Selected Approaches to Enhance Access and Retention of Indigenous Learners in Post-Secondary Education: Options for the BC Ministry of Advanced Education

Lesley Scowcroft, MPA Candidate
School of Public Administration
University of Victoria
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Client: Deborah Hull
Executive Director
Teaching Universities, Institutes and Aboriginal Programs Branch
BC Ministry of Advanced Education

Supervisor: Thea Vakil
Associate Professor and Associate Director
Public Administration, Community Development, Dispute Resolution
University of Victoria
Executive Summary
There continues to be a significant discrepancy between the number of Indigenous learners versus non-Indigenous learners who enter and complete post-secondary education (PSE) in British Columbia (BC). As higher education benefits Indigenous individuals and communities, ensuring access to and completion of PSE by Aboriginal learners will lead to benefits for Indigenous communities. Indigenous learners face several barriers to accessing and completing PSE, such as low secondary school completion rates, lack of financial resources, coping with differences between Indigenous cultures and the culture of PSE providers, lack of services, and consequences stemming from the legacy of the residential school system (R.A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004; Usher, 2009).

In 2012, the Teaching Universities, Institutes and Aboriginal Programs (TUIAP) branch released their most recent Aboriginal PSE policy framework, the Aboriginal Post-Secondary Education and Training Policy Framework and Action Plan: 2020 Vision for the Future (BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan) with the aim of enhancing access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE. This report was undertaken for the TUIAP branch, which is located in the BC Ministry of Advanced Education (the Ministry), and addresses the following research questions:

1. How do Canadian provincial governments and other national and sub-national governments abroad ensure public PSE providers are accessible to Indigenous learners?
2. How do these other governments ensure public PSE providers are supported to ensure Indigenous learners are successful in completing their post-secondary studies?
3. How do other governments support Indigenous-controlled PSE providers?

The purpose of this report is to research and describe initiatives undertaken by other governments to inform the continuous development of the Ministry’s strategy.

Literature Review
The literature on Indigenous learners who undertake PSE is moving away from theories that focus on student deficits and towards post-colonial or anti-colonial theories that consider the presence of racism and the dominant culture’s position of power in society’s institutions, as well as theories that analyze Indigenous PSE from Indigenous perspectives.

Lack of adequate financial resources that do not take into account the age and circumstances of Indigenous learners is one of the most significant barriers for Indigenous learners pursuing and completing PSE, along with the lower number of Indigenous learners graduating in their last year of secondary school. Barriers faced by Indigenous learners are rooted in past colonial policies of federal governments that used education as a tool of assimilation. Many Indigenous learners are first-generation learners who face distinct challenges and may not have role models who have completed PSE. Cultural differences between Indigenous communities and PSE providers, along with the lack of recognition of Indigenous knowledge, languages,
and ways of knowing, may lead to feelings of isolation and the decision to leave PSE studies.

Reports recommend enhancing funding available to Indigenous learners. In addition, initiatives undertaken by PSE providers should be institution-wide and provide cultural, academic and social support for learners while enhancing awareness of Indigenous cultures for non-Indigenous individuals. Studies further recommend that PSE providers embrace Indigenous knowledge and Indigenous perspectives and ways of knowing. Indigenous communities must play a significant role in providing culturally appropriate PSE for Indigenous learners. Indigenous-controlled PSE providers also need to have access to stable and long-term funding.

**Methodology**
The report employed a qualitative research design and semi-structured key informant interviews were used as the primary data collection method. A semi-structured interview design allowed the researcher to determine the questions beforehand, but also allowed the researcher to explore topics that arose during the interview. The purpose of the interviews was to obtain further information about Indigenous PSE policy frameworks and corresponding programs undertaken by Canadian provincial governments and particular national and sub-national governments. Five interviews were conducted with public servants from Ontario, Alberta, Manitoba, New Zealand, and Australia.

**Jurisdictional Review and Discussion**
The jurisdictions reviewed in the report demonstrate how different governments address barriers faced by Indigenous learners with respect to participating in PSE.

In Canadian jurisdictions, transitions from K-12 to PSE and academic preparedness are important priorities in Ontario and Manitoba, respectively. Further initiatives aim to address financial barriers and providing opportunities for Indigenous learners to participate in PSE in remote communities. Relationships with Aboriginal communities and implementing initiatives that result from consultation were identified as important to ensuring initiatives are successful. Indigenous-controlled PSE providers as a distinct group are not part of the legislative framework in Canadian jurisdictions.

The New Zealand government has an over-arching goal for Māori learners, which is to enable Māori to enjoy and achieve education success as Māori. This goal is reflected in several strategies across the education sector. Three Indigenous-controlled PSE providers called wānanga are recognized in the legislative framework and receive government funding.

The New Zealand interview findings focused on how the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) carries out its responsibilities with respect to ensuring Māori learners have the information needed to make choices that facilitate access to PSE.
For example, the NZQA runs national workshops to provide information to learners and their caregivers about the secondary school graduation program and transitions to PSE. Success may be measured by the collaboration between education institutes and by how well education sector agencies work together. To ensure initiatives are successful, findings pointed to the collaborative approach taken to discuss solutions.

Australia's national focus is primarily in relation to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learner outcomes in primary and secondary schooling. Key priorities related to PSE were increasing the number of Indigenous educators and individuals employed in the education sector and focusing on pathways to post-school options. The Batchelor Institute of Indigenous Tertiary Education is a larger Indigenous-controlled PSE provider that is governed by statute and receives government funding.

The Australia interview findings discussed government support provided to organizations that run programs for Indigenous learners that focus on retention and transitions into PSE or employment. Workforce planning is the primary action taken for enhancing Indigenous educators and staff in the education sector. Interview findings pointed to the importance of coordination across different levels of government and the private sector to ensure initiatives are successful.

Research in the United States was focused on federal government funding provided to tribal colleges and universities (TCUs). The federal government primarily provides funding to TCUs through various pieces of legislation. Although TCUs are recognized in the legislative framework and receive government funding, these providers still face challenges securing adequate funding.

**Recommendations**

Four recommendations are proposed based on the analysis of the literature review, jurisdictional review, and interview findings undertaken for this report:

1. Develop an integrated strategy for Indigenous learners that spans from early childhood education through PSE.
2. Recognize Aboriginal-controlled institutes in the PSE legislative framework and provide predictable funding.
3. Develop guidelines to enhance Indigenous Knowledge in PSE programming.
4. Investigate opportunities to partner with the private sector to enhance funding sources for Indigenous learners participating in PSE.

**Conclusion**

This report suggests that there are several considerations for developing initiatives that aim to enhance access and retention of Indigenous learners, such as consulting and involving Indigenous individuals and local communities, ensuring Indigenous voices are heard in PSE providers, ensuring Indigenous cultures are respected and recognized in education and learning frameworks, and linkages and collaboration across the education sector to facilitate transitions between secondary school and
PSE. The report also suggests that recognizing Indigenous-controlled PSE providers (such as Aboriginal-controlled institutes in BC) in legislative frameworks helps these providers secure government funding and identifies the unique role played by these institutes in enhancing Indigenous learner access to and participation in PSE. BC’s Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan reflect significant efforts taken by the provincial government and partners to enhance Aboriginal learner participation in PSE. These actions create a strong foundation from which to consider further initiatives and approaches implemented by jurisdictions reviewed in this report.
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1. Introduction

There continues to be a significant discrepancy between the number of Indigenous learners versus non-Indigenous learners who enter and complete post-secondary education (PSE) in British Columbia (BC). Ensuring access to and completion of PSE by Aboriginal learners will lead to benefits for both Indigenous individuals and communities. In addition, PSE is an important government focus as the province is projected to face a shortage of skilled workers in occupations requiring PSE or training (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., pp. 4-5).

Indigenous learners face several barriers to accessing and completing PSE. These barriers include low secondary school completion rates, lack of financial resources, coping with differences between Indigenous cultures and the culture of PSE providers, lack of services, and consequences stemming from the legacy of the residential school system (R.A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004; Usher, 2009). The BC Ministry of Advanced Education (the Ministry) is undertaking initiatives to address these barriers; however, there are still actions that can be taken and best practices learned from highlighting the approaches taken by other governments with relevant programs to enhance access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE.

1.1 Purpose and Objectives

This report is being undertaken for the Teaching Universities, Institutes and Aboriginal Programs (TUIAP) branch located in the Ministry, which is responsible for developing Aboriginal PSE policy.

In 2012, the TUIAP branch released their most recent Aboriginal PSE policy framework, the Aboriginal Post-Secondary Education and Training Policy Framework and Action Plan: 2020 Vision for the Future (BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan). In developing the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan, the branch consulted BC Indigenous communities and PSE stakeholders; however, the Ministry is also interested in approaches taken by other Canadian provincial and national governments to further enhance the access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE. As such, the objective of this report is to research and describe initiatives undertaken by other governments that will inform the continuous development of the Ministry’s actions in relation to Indigenous learners.

The purpose of this report is to highlight initiatives undertaken by other Canadian provincial and national and sub-national governments to ensure Indigenous learners can access PSE studies and successfully complete their studies. In addition, the research examines how these governments support Indigenous-controlled PSE providers.
This report addresses three research questions:

1. *How do Canadian provincial governments and other national and sub-national governments abroad ensure public PSE providers are accessible to Indigenous learners?*

2. *How do these other governments ensure public PSE providers are supported to ensure Indigenous learners are successful in completing their post-secondary studies?*

3. *How do other governments support Indigenous-controlled PSE providers?*

### 1.2 Organization of the Report

This report is organized into seven chapters including this Introduction. Chapter 2 provides the background for the research by describing the historical context of Indigenous peoples in Canada and the relationships between Indigenous peoples and non-Indigenous peoples and the PSE system in BC. Chapter 2 also provides an overview of the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan and a review of consultation undertaken by the Ministry for the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan to highlight Indigenous individuals’ perspectives.

Chapter 3 provides a review of the literature on access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE. The review is organized into barriers faced by Indigenous learners and discusses recommendations to address these barriers. The review also situates the discussion within an international context of Indigenous learners’ experiences in formal education systems and provides an overview of theoretical frameworks within which to consider the discussion of access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE. Government support provided to Indigenous-controlled PSE providers is also considered.

Chapter 4 outlines the methodology used in the report, which consisted of five semi-structured interviews. Interviews were undertaken with public servants from three Canadian provinces (Alberta, Manitoba, and Ontario), New Zealand, and Australia. Information obtained from publicly available government documents in each jurisdiction was also reviewed and formed the basis of research where interviews could not be secured.

Chapter 5 presents the jurisdictional review. Information obtained from publicly available government documents in each jurisdiction considered in the report, along with the interview findings, are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 6 provides an analysis of the literature review, review of government materials, and interview findings to determine initiatives that could enhance access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE and initiatives in relation to supporting Indigenous-controlled PSE providers.
Chapter 7 offers recommendations to the Ministry to enhance access and retention of Aboriginal learners in PSE and support Indigenous-controlled PSE providers in BC.

1.3 Use of Terms

In this report, the term Indigenous is used to refer to people of First Nations, Métis, and Inuit descent in Canada, Māori descent in New Zealand, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander descent in Australia, and American Indian and Alaska Native descent in the United States, recognizing that peoples and individuals may prefer to use terms that are traditional to their communities. The term Indigenous is also used interchangeably with Aboriginal (a term often used by the Canadian federal government and BC provincial government) in reference to Canada. Throughout the report, and particularly in the jurisdictional review, the terminology that is used for each jurisdiction reflects terms used in each jurisdiction’s government documents.

The report refers to Indigenous-controlled PSE providers, which take different forms in different jurisdictions. For the purposes of this report, Indigenous-controlled PSE providers are those PSE providers that deliver culturally appropriate education to Indigenous learners through Indigenous worldviews and perspectives and have Indigenous-controlled governance structures. Indigenous-controlled PSE providers primarily refer to the following in each jurisdiction: Aboriginal-controlled institutes in BC (see Appendix A) and Canadian jurisdictions, wānanga in New Zealand, the Batchelor Institute of Indigenous Tertiary Education in Australia, and tribal colleges and universities in the United States.
2. Background and Current State

This report focuses on access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE, primarily in BC. This chapter provides the background information to consider the issue by describing the historical context of the colonial and post-colonial relationship between the government and Aboriginal peoples in Canada. It also provides an overview of the Ministry’s current BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan. Finally, the chapter provides a review of materials from consultation undertaken by the Ministry in developing the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan to identify the perspectives of Aboriginal individuals and communities and PSE stakeholders.

2.1 Historical Context

The history of Aboriginal peoples in Canada and the relationships between Aboriginal peoples and non-Aboriginal peoples is complex and will be discussed briefly to provide the historical context for the purposes of this report.

Prior to the arrival of Europeans, First Nations and Inuit peoples inhabited the land that is now Canada. European countries, such as France and Britain, began actively colonizing the area of eastern Canada in the seventeenth century primarily as a result of the fur trade. In 1763, the British Crown gained control of the areas that are now central and eastern Canada after it claimed victory over France in the Seven Years War.

Beginning in the early nineteenth century, the relationship between the British Crown and First Nations changed resulting from a growing non-Aboriginal population and a new perspective of the government’s roles and responsibilities in relation to Aboriginal peoples (Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development Canada, 2013). Aboriginal individuals were beginning to be perceived as individuals that needed to be “civilized” and assimilated into European ways of life (Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples, 1996). These perspectives continued under the newly established Canadian federal government in 1867, which signed treaties with First Nations across the prairies to secure land to facilitate non-Aboriginal settlement and the economic development of the west (Treaty Relations Commission of Manitoba, 2014). The Canadian federal government also implemented the Indian Act (1876) and other initiatives, such as the residential school system (see the literature review), that had significant negative impacts on Aboriginal peoples’ cultures and ways of life.

The effects of colonialism have had a lasting impact on Aboriginal individuals and Aboriginal cultures into the twenty-first century (Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2012). Besides the federal government, provincial governments have also had their own unique histories in relation to Aboriginal
peoples. Several provincial governments have cited an intention to undertake a renewed and more cooperative relationship with Aboriginal peoples based on equality. Aboriginal peoples across Canada have also established organizations, such as the Assembly of First Nations, to protect, encourage, and assert their rights and perspectives on such issues as governance and education.

The term ‘Aboriginal’ is often the term used to refer to the Indigenous peoples of Canada. Canada’s Constitution Act (1982) defines the term ‘Aboriginal’ to refer to First Nations, Inuit, and Métis peoples. Within these three broad groupings, there are numerous distinct Aboriginal cultures and languages. As of 2011, there were approximately 33.4 million people living in Canada, with approximately 1.4 million people identifying as Aboriginal (Statistics Canada, 2011). The highest numbers of Aboriginal individuals live in the province of Ontario followed by British Columbia, Alberta, and Manitoba (Statistics Canada, 2011).

2.2 Introduction to BC’s PSE System and Aboriginal Learner Participation in PSE

The Ministry is responsible for overseeing the PSE system in the province, which is made up of 25 public institutions, 19 private and out-of-province public degree-granting institutions, 13 seminaries and theological colleges, 39 Aboriginal-controlled institutes, and approximately 310 registered private career training institutions (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2014, p. 6). The Ministry supplies policy direction to the PSE system and is also responsible for legislation that governs public PSE providers and private career training institutions. This report focuses on public PSE providers.

Aboriginal-controlled institutes are also a focus of this report (see Appendix A). These institutes in BC take a variety of forms and provide community-based, culturally relevant education to Aboriginal learners (First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008). Aboriginal-controlled institutes often face difficulties in obtaining funding which affects the array of programs being offered and their ability to appeal to and retain educators (First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008, pp. 30-31). In a policy position paper published in 2008, the First Nations Education Steering Committee (FNESC) argued for enhanced provincial government support that would enable Aboriginal-controlled institutes to be better included in BC’s PSE system (First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008).

Aboriginal Learner Participation in PSE

Despite some improvement, there continues to be a significant discrepancy between the number of Aboriginal learners versus non-Aboriginal learners who enter and complete PSE in BC (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., pp. 4-5; First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008, p. 2). For example, the percentage of Aboriginal learners that transitioned from secondary school to PSE right away in 2011/2012 was lower than the proportion of non-Aboriginal learners, the
percentages being 41% and 54% respectively (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 10). The Ministry reported that 3,010 PSE credentials were awarded to Aboriginal learners in 2011/2012 (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 8). Many Aboriginal learners enroll in programs after secondary school that confer credentials that are below PSE level. In 2011/2012, almost twice as many Aboriginal learners transitioned into trades programs and higher numbers of Aboriginal learners transitioned into developmental programs than non-Aboriginal learners (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 10). Although the number of Aboriginal students that received bachelor’s degrees had increased since the previous year, 20% of Aboriginal learners were enrolled in bachelor’s degree programs in 2011/2012 in comparison to 37% of non-Aboriginal learners (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 10). In addition, the 2006 Canada Census reported that approximately 7% of Aboriginal learners had a university credential whereas approximately 26% of non-Aboriginal individuals had a university credential (Statistics Canada as cited in BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 8).

**Barriers for Aboriginal Learner Participation in PSE in BC**

Aboriginal learners face several barriers to accessing and successfully completing PSE in BC. These barriers are similar to those that will be discussed in the literature review. As such, the discussion in this section will be brief with a more comprehensive discussion provided in the literature review.

One of the barriers for Aboriginal learners in BC is the legacy of the residential school system. The history of public education for Aboriginal peoples in BC has resulted in a difficult relationship between Aboriginal peoples and the provincial government due to the legacy of residential schools and colonial policy. Eighteen residential schools operated in BC with the first school opening in 1861 (First Nations Leadership Council, 2008, p. 2). The residential school system weakened Aboriginal culture and relationships between Aboriginal children and parents and left many Aboriginal students to deal with the effects of physical and sexual abuse that had occurred while attending the schools (Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2012). As a result of these experiences, Aboriginal communities are often distrustful of formal education systems. As of 2008, there were approximately 14,000 Aboriginal individuals who had survived residential schools in BC (First Nations Leadership Council, 2008, p. 3).

Another barrier for Aboriginal learners is lack of academic preparedness. In 2012/2013, approximately 51% of Aboriginal secondary school learners received a BC Certificate of Graduation (also known as a Dogwood Diploma) compared to 72% of non-Aboriginal learners (BC Ministry of Education, 2013, p. 31). In addition, in 2012/2013, 60% of Aboriginal learners graduated secondary school with a Dogwood Diploma within 6 years of when they first entered Grade 8 as compared to 86% of non-Aboriginal learners (BC Ministry of Education, 2013, p. 29). As noted by the Ministry, several complex issues affect the retention and achievement of
Aboriginal learners in secondary school (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 30). Further, Aboriginal learners who have been streamed into different programs or courses in secondary school must often upgrade to obtain required courses, such as English 12, before enrolling in particular PSE programs (First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008, pp. 7-8).

Aboriginal learners also face a lack of financial resources to pursue PSE (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 29; First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008, p. 6). A larger proportion of Aboriginal individuals face higher unemployment rates and live below the poverty line in comparison to non-Aboriginal individuals, which affects the ability of Aboriginal learners to enter and complete PSE (First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008, p. 6). Aboriginal learners often have to relocate to pursue PSE studies, which results in higher costs, including housing costs (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 19). In addition, Aboriginal learners are often mature, female learners and single parents, which means childcare costs and family expenses must be taken into account (First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008, p. 7).

Aboriginal learners who pursue PSE must also cope with differences between Aboriginal cultures and the culture of PSE providers. Institutional cultures that do not reflect or take into account Aboriginal perspectives may seem unapproachable to Aboriginal learners and PSE providers may not provide supportive environments for Aboriginal learners (First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008, p. 6).

2.3 Overview of the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan

In the past twenty years, the provincial government and leaders of Aboriginal communities in BC have re-framed their relationship. The Ministry consistently engages BC Aboriginal communities and is part of the BC Aboriginal Post-Secondary Education and Training Partners Group (Partners Group), which includes a number of Aboriginal organizations with an interest in Aboriginal PSE such as FNESC, the Indigenous Adult and Higher Learning Association, the Métis Nation BC, the First Nations Public Service, BC Colleges, the BC Association of Universities and Institutes, and the Research Universities’ Council of British Columbia.

In 2005, the members of the Partners Group signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) to work together to enhance the number of Aboriginal students participating and succeeding in PSE. This MOU is one of several agreements such as the New Relationship (2005), Transformative Change Accord (2005), and Métis Nation Relationship Accord (2006), which aim to close the education and socio-economic gap between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal individuals and communities.
*Current BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan*


The current BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan was published in Spring 2012. The policy framework addresses PSE broadly, for example, adult basic education, vocational and trades education, and undergraduate and graduate degrees (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 2). The policy framework’s vision is that “Aboriginal learners succeed in an integrated, relevant, and effective British Columbia PSE system that enhances their participation in the social, cultural and economic life of their communities, the province, and global society” (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 13). The two long-term outcomes are to:

- increase the number of credentials granted to Aboriginal learners by 75% by 2020, and
- increase the percentage of Aboriginal young people who transition from secondary school to PSE to 90% by 2020. This outcome will be measured by the percentage of learners who transition into PSE within five years of graduating secondary school (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 15).

The BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan identifies several principles, such as recognizing Aboriginal peoples’ right to self-determination and the function that PSE plays in achieving this right; recognizing the unique and significant role of Aboriginal-controlled institutes alongside mainstream public PSE providers; confirmation of the significant role of Aboriginal cultures and languages in education programs and enhancing Aboriginal learner achievement; and acknowledging the significant position and decision-making role that Aboriginal peoples occupy in relation to developing PSE programming and services for Aboriginal learners (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 12).

The five goals of the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan include objectives, actions and short-term, medium-term, and long-term results. The following are the five goals identified in the strategy (along with examples of objectives and actions):

1. Systemic change signifies that the public PSE framework is relevant, responsive, respectful, and receptive to Aboriginal students and communities (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 13). Objectives and actions center on increasing Aboriginal voice in public PSE providers (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 15), and public PSE providers working together with Aboriginal-controlled institutes, communities, and other bodies to

Examples of actions to achieve these objectives include ensuring Aboriginal individuals are appointed to the boards of public PSE providers and gradually requiring that all public PSE providers have Aboriginal Service Plans (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 20). Aboriginal Service Plans were an initiative implemented by the previous strategy. Aboriginal Service Plans are 3-year strategic plans that aim to enhance access and retention of Aboriginal learners, strengthen collaboration and partnerships, and enhance the relevance of PSE providers and programming for Aboriginal students (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2012, p.3).

2. Delivering community-based programming is sustained through partnerships between public PSE providers and Aboriginal-controlled institutes and communities (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 13). Objectives and actions focus on developing and strengthening partnerships to provide community-based education (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 22) and recognizing that Aboriginal-controlled institutes play a distinctive and vital part in relation to enhancing the participation and achievement of Aboriginal learners in PSE (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 23). Adult education is also a focus with a commitment that these programs allow Aboriginal students to move into PSE and labour markets (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 26).

To achieve these objectives, one action includes giving funding for collaboration between public PSE providers and Aboriginal-controlled institutes to provide programming in Aboriginal communities (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 23). A second action is to exempt on-reserve Aboriginal-controlled institutes from the *Private Career Training Institutions Act* in response to concerns that there are significant differences between private training institutions and Aboriginal-controlled institutes (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., pp. 25-26). A further initiative is to research and determine leading practices in adult education to ascertain issues and opportunities (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 27).

3. Financial barriers to accessing and completing PSE (including training) are lessened for Aboriginal students (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 13). The objective is that Aboriginal students who require financial supports for participating in PSE are accessible (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 29).

Actions include developing an Aboriginal Emergency Assistance Fund for Aboriginal learners and providing financial support to grow the BC Aboriginal Student Award (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 29).
4. Aboriginal students transition smoothly from primary/secondary education to PSE (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 13). The objectives focus on the K-12 system, such as ensuring that educators support the achievement of Aboriginal students in primary and secondary schools and information is provided to Aboriginal students and their families to support decisions learners and families make about moving into PSE and employment (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., pp. 32–33). Actions include increasing the number of educators who have Aboriginal ancestry in the K-12 system through an Aboriginal Teacher Education Award, working to increase the number of teachers of First Nations languages, and working with Aboriginal and education partners to ensure career planning resources and tools are available (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., pp. 32-34).

5. Continual improvement is founded on research, data tracking, and sharing leading practices (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 13). The objective for this goal is that shared leading practices results in knowledgeable leadership, successful practices, and outcomes in relation to Aboriginal PSE (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 36). The actions involve assisting the sharing of leading practices and aiding PSE partners in creating and distributing principles and rules for studying and sharing Aboriginal histories, cultures, and knowledge (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 36).

The findings of this report will aid the Ministry in developing further initiatives that support Aboriginal learners, which is linked to the fifth goal.


In 2013, the Ministry undertook a review of the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan to report out on short-term outcomes.

Selected examples of initiatives that have been implemented are:

- 88% of PSE providers now have Aboriginal representation on their boards (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 12).
- Aboriginal Service Plans have been retained in 11 PSE providers (the PSE providers that first piloted the initiative) and culturally welcoming spaces have been completed in all but one of the 25 public PSE institutions (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 16).
- The Aboriginal Community-Based Delivery Partnerships Program (implemented in 2012) is providing funding to more than 50 projects in several Aboriginal communities (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 20).
- The FNESC and the Indigenous Adult Higher Learning Association are reviewing the legal structure of Aboriginal-controlled institutes in BC as part
of the commitment to exempt on-reserve Aboriginal-controlled institutes from the *Private Career Training Institutions Act* (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 23).

- Two million dollars of funding was provided to support the BC Aboriginal Student Award Program (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 27). Funding was also provided to support an emergency fund for Aboriginal learners at PSE providers (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 27).
- FNESC hosted a K-12 to PSE forum in October 2013 with other partners (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, 2013, p. 34).

### 2.4 Document Review: Perspectives of Aboriginal Individuals and Organizations from Ministry Consultation

The Ministry undertook consultation between September 2011 and March 2012 with Aboriginal communities, learners, and PSE stakeholders to develop the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan. Consultation took the form of face-to-face meetings, a one-day forum held in Vancouver, and social media (for example, a Ministry Facebook page). Consultation through the face-to-face meetings and the forum focused on obtaining feedback from participants on the principles and each of the five goals outlined in the Ministry’s BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan.

Several themes in relation to enhancing access and retention of Aboriginal learners in PSE emerged from consultation. For example, enhancing Aboriginal voice and presence in public PSE providers was a common theme throughout the feedback. Participants discussed increasing the number of Aboriginal individuals on the boards of public PSE providers, increasing the numbers of Aboriginal personnel working in public PSE providers, and campuses and programs of public PSE providers including and acknowledging Aboriginal ways of knowing and being.

The development of respectful, equitable partnerships between Aboriginal-controlled institutes and public PSE providers, as well as between public PSE providers and Aboriginal communities, were considered significant factors in developing initiatives to enhance access and retention of Aboriginal learners in PSE. Participants also discussed community-based delivery of programs and, in particular, the need for programming to reflect the needs of local communities and the challenges of implementing these programs (for example, lack of funding and resources for learners).

In addition, several participants discussed funding challenges that are faced by both Aboriginal-controlled institutes and Aboriginal learners. Funding that takes into account the needs of Aboriginal learners, such as daycare and relocation costs, was also recommended, along with increasing availability of financial support for trades and apprenticeships programs.
Consultation also addressed learner transitions between secondary school and PSE, between Aboriginal-controlled institutes and PSE providers, and between PSE and employment. Support from family, friends, and personnel, along with learning skills necessary for PSE, and the importance of being aware of how choices in secondary school may affect PSE program choices, were factors discussed. In addition, participants noted that tracking learners through their educational experiences would provide data to inform programs.

Participants’ personal stories generally echoed the comments received from the face-to-face meetings and forum feedback, and provided examples of additional challenges learners may face in PSE environments, such as stereotyping.
3. Literature Review

This literature review discusses barriers faced by Indigenous learners in accessing and completing PSE and recommendations to address those barriers in Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and the United States. The purpose of the review is to provide a framework within which to discuss the document review of Ministry consultation, jurisdictional analysis, and interview findings. Canadian literature is prominently featured because the focus of this report is access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE in BC. Support provided to Indigenous-controlled PSE providers is also considered.

The review relies primarily on Internet searches, including Google Scholar; websites of governments and organizations; the collections and research databases of the University of Victoria; and books.

3.1 International Context

Indigenous learners’ experiences in formal education systems is part of the larger international dialogue of challenges faced by Indigenous peoples around the world due to the legacy of colonialism and intolerance. In 2007, the United Nations General Assembly adopted the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (the Declaration) to recognize and rectify challenges faced by Indigenous peoples (United Nations Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, n.d.). The Declaration “emphasizes the rights of indigenous peoples to live in dignity, to maintain and strengthen their own institutions, cultures and traditions and to pursue their self-determined development, in keeping with their own needs and aspirations” (United Nations Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, n.d., “What is the Declaration,” para. 1).

The United Nations Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues (UNPFII) is one of three bodies that provide advice and research on issues facing Indigenous peoples. The UNPFII’s report, The State of the World’s Indigenous Peoples (2009), discusses challenges facing Indigenous peoples in education within the context of peoples’ right to education, the right of Indigenous communities to control their education systems as expressed in the Declaration, and the right to culturally appropriate education (Champagne, 2009). The report discusses the following challenges facing Indigenous learners: education systems that do not reflect Indigenous cultures and knowledge or the needs of Indigenous learners, lack of education available in Indigenous languages, lack of community and Elder involvement, under-funding and lesser quality of education and resources in remote areas, discrimination, lack of family financial resources and higher incidences of Indigenous learners coming from low socioeconomic conditions, and marginalization (Champagne, 2009).
3.2 Theoretical Context

Post-colonial or anti-colonial theoretical frameworks are prominent in the literature that discusses Indigenous education theories. These theories recognize that colonialism continues in education and other structures by western ways of being and knowing being emphasized over Indigenous and other cultural ways (Pidgeon, 2008). Contextualizing Indigenous PSE discussions using post-colonial or anti-colonial frameworks shifts the dialogue beyond perceived deficits of Indigenous learners to analyzing the nature of PSE providers and their responsibility in creating an environment that provides a holistic perspective on education, which is aligned with other cultures and does not perpetuate western hegemonic power structures.

Critical race theory is commonly referred to in literature that analyzes approaches to Indigenous education. The theory originated in legal studies in the United States in the 1970s and its central tenet is the prevalence of racism in society’s institutions that privileges the dominant group over minority or marginalized groups. One of the theory’s themes is the importance of marginalized groups telling their stories to counter the dominant culture’s narrative. Another element of critical race theory is its attempt to challenge the dominant culture to affect change (Delgado and Stefancic, 2001). There are several offshoots of critical race theory that focus on the experiences of particular groups. For example, tribal critical race theory (or TribalCrit) focuses on colonialism and its influence in western societies and institutions, such as PSE providers (Brayboy, 2005). TribalCrit emphasizes the importance of stories to understand and build theoretical knowledge and objects to the notion of assimilation that may be rooted in or result from western education systems. In part, this theory contends that Indigenous Americans who pursue education may be able to combine their cultural knowledge with western academic knowledge to pursue greater political and legal autonomy for Indigenous peoples (Brayboy, 2005).

Critical race theory has also been referred to specifically in relation to education. Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) argue for critical race theory to be applied to education practices rather than relying on multicultural education strategies, the latter of which exposes students to different cultures at a high level, but not in a way that explores the differing perspectives and experiences of cultures. Haynes Writer (2008) argues for critical race theory and tribal critical race theory to be considered in conjunction with multicultural education and social justice to ensure that power structures in education are challenged. In addition, McLaughlin and Whatman (2011) advocate for critical race theory to be used by education professors in Australian PSE to debate and challenge the dominant culture’s prominent position in curriculum and PSE structures. McLaughlin and Whatman draw parallels between critical race theory and Nakata’s (2002) discussion of the “cultural interface”, which are points in which Indigenous knowledge is translated and attempted to be understood by individuals who are situated in western traditions. In addition, Gray and Beresford (2008) draw on key tenets of critical race theory to explain the
Australian government’s past Indigenous education policies, which the authors argue stem from entrenched racism in Australia’s social structures and the failure of the dominant culture to recognize this power imbalance.

Huffman (2010) describes three general themes discussed in literature that addresses Indigenous American education: external challenges Indigenous learners face in accessing and completing studies; internal aspects of learners, such as lack of self-esteem; and Indigenous learners’ interchange with educational institutions and their perceptions and interpretations of their experiences. Huffman discusses four theories that focus on Indigenous learners’ experiences in educational settings:

- cultural discontinuity theory, which focuses on the differences between Indigenous learners’ cultures at home and cultures of educational providers (p. 12);
- structural inequality theory, which centers on social inequalities that may be reflected in educational settings (p. 12);
- interactionalist theory, which looks at a learner’s transition into a new PSE environment and individual background factors that may facilitate or impede a student’s integration into the academic and social fabric of the PSE provider (p. 12); and
- transculturation theory, which analyzes the significance of a learner’s Indigenous cultural identity in pursuing and completing education in western educational settings (p. 12).

Huffman also points to emerging perspectives in Indigenous American education that question dominant Eurocentric theories and aim to take into account Indigenous perspectives, such as decolonization theories; critical race theory; and the Family Education Model, which studies specific education interventions that recognize and account for the importance of extended family in Indigenous learners’ pursuit and completion of PSE studies.

Lawrence (2005) discusses the persistence of deficit approaches to student diversity in Australia in which learner differences may be viewed as the reason for a learner’s failure to succeed. Lawrence draws on critical discourse theory and constructivism, which focus on potential power structures in communication in education and how individuals construct knowledge, respectively, to counter deficit approaches and proposes the deficit-discourse shift model. This model views PSE providers as being made up of several cultural groups. Students must master the discourses attached to each discipline area and faculty need to facilitate students learning these discourses. In addition, Devlin (2009) argues that more studies be undertaken that focus on Indigenous students who succeed in PSE to develop strategies that may be applied more broadly. Devlin references Lawrence (2005) and suggests that one area of study could be understanding how Indigenous learners who complete PSE navigate through these different discourses and an education system that emphasizes western ways of knowing.
In New Zealand, Kaupapa Māori is growing as a theory and practice. Kaupapa Māori may be described as a “body of knowledge’ accumulated by the experiences through history, of the Māori people” (Tukana Mate Nepe as cited in Pihama, 2001, p. 78). Māori language is central to the theory. Smith (2003) describes six principles of the theory and practice that are common among Māori education initiatives: Māori self-determination, validating and legitimating cultural aspirations and identity, incorporating culturally preferred pedagogy, mediating socioeconomic and home difficulties, incorporating cultural structures that emphasize the collective rather than the individual, and a shared and collective vision/philosophy (pp. 10-14). Kaupapa Māori may be adapted to different Indigenous groups and may take multiple forms across different sectors such as health, education, and justice (Smith, 2003; Pihama, 2001). Kaupapa Māori theory and practice have been compared to decolonization perspectives (Smith, 2003) and critical race theory (Pihama, 2001). To Smith (2003), a significant difference between Kaupapa Māori theory and decolonization theory is that the former seeks to raise the consciousness of Māori peoples with the purpose of moving forward, rather than focusing on the colonizer. Pihama (2001) recognizes the importance of critical race theory in facilitating room for theories that are critical of the power structures in society’s institutions, but acknowledges the importance of Kaupapa Māori being recognized on its own and as a theory that exists alongside critical race theory.

Minnabarriet (2012) uses Indigenous Knowledge (IK) as the theoretical foundation for her study of how the Nicola Valley Institute of Technology, an Indigenous PSE provider in BC, has addressed Indigenous self-determination and the needs of Indigenous learners. Minnabarriet describes IK as a way in which Indigenous communities may assert the importance of Indigenous worldviews, ways of knowing, and culture in the face of western Eurocentric academic structures. The author outlines the importance of Elders, story-telling, and affective and holistic learning in IK. Among other education models that emphasize IK, Minnabarriet describes the “4 R’s” devised by Kirkness and Barnhardt (1991) for PSE providers to better take into account the needs of Indigenous learners: respect of Indigenous cultural identity, relevance to Indigenous perspectives and experiences, reciprocal relationships, and responsibility through participation (Kirkness and Barnhardt as cited in Minnabarriet, 2012, p. 31). The focus shifts from perceived learner deficits to the characteristics of educational institutes. Minnabarriet also discusses IK alongside critical theory.

Wilson and Battiste (2011) provide six models by which to analyze approaches taken by Canadian PSE providers to Indigenous PSE in their study for the Government of Australia. These models are:

- Assimilation and Disenfranchisement. Beginning in the nineteenth century and into the twentieth century, education was used by the Canadian government as a tool of assimilation with the outcome of enfranchisement by which Indigenous individuals who pursued PSE would lose their status as Indians (p. 14).
First Nations Student Support Model. This model reflects strategies undertaken in PSE that provide support to Indigenous learners with the aim of enhancing access and retention of Indigenous learners. Indigenous programming is provided in addition to the existing programming and framework of the PSE provider; non-Indigenous paradigms are maintained (p. 16).

Dual Programming Model. This model is similar to the Student Support Model, but also takes into account some of the cultural barriers that Indigenous learners face in mainstream PSE institutions by developing cohort programs that help learners with the move into PSE; provide culturally relevant programming; and offer supports for Indigenous learners in specific academic areas, such as law and education (p. 18).

Systemic Change Model. In this model, PSE providers recognize other knowledge systems and aim to make changes across the whole university. Efforts may also be made to raise awareness about Eurocentric assumptions that may be present in western education systems among non-Indigenous staff, faculty, and students (p. 19).

Distributed Education Model. This model aims to provide distance education to Aboriginal learners to allow Indigenous individuals to work and stay in their communities while pursuing PSE (p. 22).

Indigenous Community-Based Model. This model includes institutes that are based in local Indigenous cultures and communities, focus on holistic learning, and feature Indigenous governance. The community may also play a role in the governance of these institutes (p. 24).

The models reflect different perspectives on Indigenous education that have resulted from changing historical, social, and legal contexts, but recognize the persistence of Eurocentrism in many of the models. The authors note that Indigenous learners have experienced greater success under the Indigenous Community-Based Model.

3.3 Barriers faced by Indigenous Learners in PSE

Although there are differences in the historical, cultural, and political contexts of Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and the United States, Indigenous learners face similar barriers in accessing and completing PSE. These include: financial barriers, historical experiences in public education, secondary school completion and transition into PSE, lack of role models and support, and cultural barriers.

Financial Barriers

Lack of adequate financial resources is a significant challenge that may prevent Indigenous learners from transitioning into and completing PSE studies (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; Canada Millennium Scholarship Foundation, 2005; Centre for the Study of Higher Education, 2008; Larimore and McClellan, 2005; Reid, 2006).
Costs for indigenous learners are unique in comparison to non-Indigenous learners due to the age, responsibilities, and residence location of many Indigenous students. In each country, Indigenous learners are often older, predominantly female, have to move away from their communities to participate in PSE, have greater community and/or cultural responsibilities, and there is a greater likelihood that Indigenous learners have a spouse and/or children (Canadian Millennium Scholarship Foundation, 2005; Hunt, Morgan and Teddy, 2001; Institute for Higher Education Policy, 2007; Larimore and McClellan, 2005; Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011; Reid, 2006; Usher, 2009). These demographic characteristics mean Indigenous learners may have unique costs in addition to tuition, such as day care and relocation expenses. Online learning opportunities may address some of these challenges; however, in Canada, Indigenous learners may not have access to computers and required technology (Kawaiilak, Wells, Connell, and Beamer, 2012) and course delivery and content may not address cultural barriers faced by Indigenous learners (McMullen and Rohrbach, 2003).

Indigenous individuals may face more difficult socioeconomic circumstances than non-Indigenous individuals (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; Gray, Hunter, and Lohoar, 2012; D. Hayward, 2012; Usher, 2009). For example, the 2006 Canadian census reported the median income for the Aboriginal population was $22,366 in comparison to $33,394 for the non-Aboriginal population (Statistics Canada, 2010). The same census reported an unemployment rate of 14.8% for people who identified as Aboriginal compared to 6.3% for non-Aboriginal peoples (Government of Canada, 2013). The current socioeconomic conditions of Indigenous peoples in Canada are often used as a call to action to enhance access and retention of Indigenous individuals in PSE. In Canada, the Assembly of First Nations (2010) projects that poverty of Indigenous peoples will cost $11 billion per year by 2016 (p. 7). Other reports point to PSE as a vehicle through which employment opportunities and higher incomes may be generated for Indigenous individuals in Canada, leading to benefits for both Indigenous communities and Canada as a whole (Mendelson, 2006; Usher, 2009).

Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Develop Canada (AANDC) allocates funding to First Nations organizations for Indigenous learners who are Status Indian or Inuit and undertaking post-secondary studies through the Post-Secondary Student Support Program (PSSSP). Since 1996, federal funding for Indigenous education has been capped at 2% annually (Assembly of First Nations, 2010; Usher, 2009). Lack of funding has resulted in many Indigenous learners being denied access to PSE funding in Canada (Standing Committee on Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development, 2007).

R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd. (2008) completed a study that focused on factors that may affect Indigenous learners’ pursuit of financial assistance for PSE. The study asserts that Aboriginal youth often predict that band funding will cover the cost of PSE programs and, consequently, often do not seek out information on additional financial assistance for PSE. As noted above, band funding is limited and
demand for funding frequently exceeds the amount of funding available. In addition, individuals may perceive PSE funding from the Canadian federal government as a treaty right; however, this is not necessarily the perspective of the federal government. The report also noted that Indigenous individuals often lack access to information about avenues through which they could receive PSE funding, relying mostly on informal networks of people they know to obtain information. As many Indigenous learners are first-generation PSE students, they may not have family that can provide assistance in researching funding sources or in applying for funding. In addition, youth may lack confidence in their ability to obtain financial awards and may decide not to apply for the funding. Indigenous individuals may also be hesitant to borrow money to pursue PSE due to concerns about finishing PSE, providing for their families, or due to individual socio-economic circumstances.

**Historical Experiences in Public Education**

Education systems have been used historically as an instrument of assimilation by national governments in Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and the United States (Arbon 2008; Calman, 2012; Gray and Beresford, 2008; D. Hayward, 2012; Institute for Higher Education Policy, 2007; Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2012). Western education systems separated Indigenous children from their parents, weakened Indigenous cultures, and resulted in many children having to live through abusive situations. These experiences impacted generations of Indigenous families and have affected Indigenous perspectives of and participation in formal education (Cottrell, 2010, p. 224).

Beginning in 1883, the Canadian federal government provided funding to build and operate schools that were run by church organizations and had the purpose of “civilizing” Aboriginal children. These schools were the beginnings of the residential school system. Schools provided education in trades for boys and domestic skills for girls to ensure Indigenous children were not educated beyond their perceived social class (Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2012). In part, the residential school system was an attempt to relieve the Canadian government of treaty responsibilities through assimilation and to ensure there would not be an uprising by Indigenous peoples due to their children being under government control (Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2012). The impacts of residential schools affected all aspects of Indigenous children’s lives in Canada long after they left school (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2012).

**Secondary School Completion and Transition to PSE**

The gap between the numbers of Indigenous versus non-Indigenous students who graduate during their last year of secondary school (for example, Grade 12 in BC) results in fewer Indigenous learners transitioning into PSE (Centre for the Study of Higher Education, 2008; Hook, 2006; Institute for Higher Education Policy, 2007; Mendelson, 2006; National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2011).
Indigenous learners’ academic qualifications upon entry to PSE may also result in greater challenges for students (Centre for the Study of Higher Education, 2008; Guillory, 2009; Usher, 2009). Indigenous students living in remote communities and on reservations may not have opportunities to strengthen their academic skills due to the lesser quality of education that may be provided (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; Australian Human Rights Commission, 2009; Guillory, 2009; Usher, 2009). An Australian study suggests that Indigenous students value education and have motivation to do well in studies, but may lack confidence in their academic skills (Craven et. al as cited in Centre for the Study of Higher Education, 2008, p. 48). In addition, Reid (2006) cites low teacher expectations for Māori students and the marginalization of Māori culture as potential reasons for inadequate school qualifications.

Several authors recognize the lack of clarity of the Canadian federal government’s responsibility to provide elementary and secondary education under the Indian Act and the act’s deficiencies with respect to education (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; Mendelson, 2008; Richards, 2008). Mendelson (2008) states the Indian Act provisions are not compatible with twenty-first century education and recommends that an Indigenous education system be developed to provide the educational services that provincial ministries and school boards supply to the provincial K-12 school system. Along with deficiencies in the Indian Act’s education provisions, the Assembly of First Nations (2012) points to lack of funding for elementary and secondary Indigenous education and argues for enhanced funding based on the needs of learners and to support education systems.

**Role Models and Support**

Indigenous learners are often first-generation PSE learners and may not have role models who have completed PSE. First-generation learners may face distinct challenges such as lower secondary school grades than students whose parents have obtained PSE, doubt about the benefits that may accrue from PSE, and financial barriers (Canadian Council on Learning, 2009a). Lack of role models who have participated in PSE (including parents) may prevent learners from believing that PSE is a feasible path to take (R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004). Cotrell (2010) suggests that the use of education systems to assimilate Indigenous peoples has played a role in decreasing the involvement of many parents in mainstream education systems. The Assembly of First Nations (2010) in Canada underlines the significance of parents in their children’s decision to pursue PSE and suggests the educational attainment of a learner’s mother is particularly important.

Once enrolled in PSE, Indigenous learners may lack the familial and personal support needed to complete their studies, leading to lower rates of retention. Lack of support (and corresponding lower rates of retention) may result from students having to relocate to pursue PSE and to the cultural differences between Indigenous learners and communities on the one hand and PSE providers on the other hand.
O’Rourke (2008) states that Aboriginal learners in Australia, who are often first-generation students, feel like “cultural pioneers” who know little about the world of PSE (pp. 4-5). Lack of personal, familial, and academic support may lead to feelings of isolation, resulting in Indigenous learners deciding to leave PSE studies (R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015).

**Cultural Barriers**

Differences between western and Indigenous Knowledge (IK) and Indigenous ways of knowing results in Indigenous students having to cope with a PSE culture that may be far removed from Indigenous cultures. Indigenous learners may face challenges learning within a western education system that does not include Indigenous learning paradigms and may reflect perspectives of the dominant, non-Indigenous culture and perpetuate discrimination.

A report by the Canadian Council on Learning (2009b) describes Indigenous learning as holistic, lifelong and inter-generational, experiential, and spiritually oriented (p. 10). Indigenous learning also combines Aboriginal and western knowledge; involves shared, community activity; and is grounded in Indigenous languages and cultures (Canadian Council on Learning, 2009b, p. 10). On the other hand, concepts integral to western ways of knowing are its linearity and emphasis on written records (Woolsey Des Jarlais, 2009), individuality, empiricism (Della Porta and Caffarella, n.d.), and abstract and theoretical understanding (Merriam and Sek Kim, 2008). Western ways of knowing often split sacred knowledge from secular understandings, and place a greater value on formal versus informal learning (Merriam and Sek Kim, 2008).

Many authors speak to the need to provide culturally appropriate education for Indigenous learners due to the differences that exist between Indigenous and western ways of knowing and the prominence of the latter in education systems. Battiste (n.d.) discusses the importance of acknowledging the domination of western knowledge as a starting point for incorporating IK. Hook (2006) discusses how education has been used for the purposes of assimilation and argues the separation of education from Māori culture results in Māori learners' disengagement from learning. Hook's conclusion is that education of Māori individuals must be connected to Māori culture. Further, preserving and teaching Indigenous languages, which are fundamental to conveying Indigenous cultures and ways of knowing, are singled out as significant factors in teaching IK and Indigenous ways of knowing and should be a part of curriculum programming (Battiste, n.d.; Champagne, 2009; Hook, 2006; National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2011).

Some American studies link an Indigenous learner’s ability to adapt to differences between Indigenous culture and the culture of PSE providers to the strength of an
individual's cultural identity. It is within this context that transculturation theory is often discussed. Huffman (2010) suggests the process of transculturation allows Indigenous individuals to learn about and understand another culture while maintaining their own cultures. In other words, Indigenous individuals do not need to give up their Indigenous cultural knowledge and values to understand and function in another culture.

The literature also focuses on the differences in the environment and values of PSE providers in comparison to Indigenous communities. Although IK is gradually being acknowledged on Canadian PSE campuses (Battiste, 2004), the number of Indigenous professors and instructors may be fewer on campuses in comparison to non-Indigenous faculty and staff. Further, universities tend to be competitive and potentially confrontational environments whereas Indigenous communities are often more collaborative and value the collective (Holmes, 2006). Differences in culture, learning paradigms, and values between PSE providers and Indigenous communities may lead to Indigenous learners feeling as though they are caught between two worlds. As such, Indigenous educators have voiced the need for greater control over developing curriculum (R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004).

Many Indigenous learners have also faced discrimination and racism on PSE campuses. These experiences, coupled with the cultural differences between PSE providers and Indigenous communities and lack of personal support, may lead to feelings of isolation and the decision to leave PSE studies before completion (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; James and Devlin, 2006; Centre for the Study of Higher Education, 2008; Hunt, Morgan, and Teddy, 2001; Larimore and McClellan, 2005; National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2011; Nikora, Levy, Henry, and Whangapirita, 2002; Timmons, 2009).

### 3.4 Recommendations to Enhance Access and Retention of Indigenous Learners

Several recommendations are made in the literature to address the barriers Indigenous learners may face in accessing and completing PSE.

**Funding**

The literature provides several recommendations to enhance the access and retention of PSE for Indigenous students by addressing financial barriers. Funding provided to Indigenous learners may be in the form of loans, bursaries, grants, and scholarships.

Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and the United States each have programs that provide funding to Indigenous students in several ways: through specific programs that target Indigenous learners and through national programs that target students seeking PSE generally (R.A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004; Silta Associates,
In Canada, funding is provided to Indigenous bands and/or organizations for distribution to learners who pursue PSE. Indigenous learners may also benefit from actions taken to ensure greater awareness of PSE funding opportunities (R.A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2008). In addition, funding from grants may address some learners’ hesitancy to obtain loans.

To better target potential financial barriers, studies recommend that funding programs target the particular costs of Indigenous learners and that increased funding be based on student needs (Assembly of First Nations, 2010; Government of Australia, 2012; Greenwood and Te Aika, 2008; Institute for Higher Education Policy, 2007; Standing Committee on Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development, 2007). Costs of mature students such as childcare, housing, and those associated with relocation, should also be taken into account.

In Canada, several studies suggest lifting the 2% cap on the federal PSSSP to ensure greater numbers of eligible Indigenous learners may access PSE (Assembly of First Nations, 2010; Canadian Alliance of Student Associations, 2011; Standing Committee on Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development, 2007). Usher (2009) recommends making changes to the way the program is administered to enhance its efficiency and consistency for distributing funding to learners. To this end, the study suggests several options, including that the federal government provide PSSSP monies to a regional Indigenous education organization or to a pan-Canadian Indigenous foundation to administer (Usher, 2009). Canadian literature also recommends enhancing funding for non-status Indian and Métis peoples, who are not currently eligible for AANDC’s PSSSP. In January 2013, the Canadian Federal Court ruled that individuals who currently identify as Métis and non-status Indians should be considered Indians in accordance with the Constitution Act, 1867. The decision is currently being appealed.

**Transition Programs and Support Initiatives**

Several studies recommend that PSE providers develop initiatives to aid Indigenous learners in the transition from secondary education to PSE and provide support based on the needs of learners (Adelman, Taylor and Perry, n.d.; Bear Spirit Consulting, 2007; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015; Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011; R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004). Initiatives that provide support services for Indigenous students (whether academic or personal) are important for facilitating learners’ transitions into PSE and managing differences between Indigenous cultures and the culture of PSE providers.

Transition programs provide Indigenous learners with foundational academic skills that aid in the completion of PSE studies (Mixon, 2008; Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011). Mixon (2008) provides several recommendations for structuring transition programs including developing programs in conjunction with Indigenous communities that cater to all secondary school grade levels and junior PSE levels and evaluating learners to determine if they are building the necessary skills.
Transition programs may also be implemented by partnerships between Indigenous communities and PSE providers, as is the case with the Squamish Nation and Capilano College (now Capilano University) in British Columbia (R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004). One challenge for PSE providers to implement transition programs may be securing funding for these programs, which may not be covered by funding arrangements (Holmes, 2006).

Support programs may act as a touchstone for students in post-secondary environments and provide a sense of belonging, which can be a significant factor in ensuring retention of learners past the first year of post-secondary studies (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015). Support initiatives vary among PSE providers and may include having smaller class sizes for Indigenous learners, ensuring learners have a contact person who may provide information, encouraging participation of Elders in PSE, and providing daycare services (R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004). Facilitating informal support networks made up of other students, academics, and support staff for Indigenous learners is also recommended (Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011). Regardless of the structure, the following components are recommended for support programs:

- programs should provide both personal and academic support and be culturally appropriate (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015);
- support services should be coordinated within PSE providers and include collaboration with Indigenous students and communities (Larimore and McClellan, 2005); and
- support initiatives for Indigenous learners should be integrated and part of the general support structure developed for all students by the PSE provider (Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011).

Support may also take the form of providing space for Indigenous students. The New Zealand Ministry of Education (2015) discusses Morrison’s (1999) meanings of space for Māori students that encompass both physical space and space for Māori culture and ways of knowing. In New Zealand, several PSE providers have marae, which refer to traditional meeting places for Māori. In PSE, an institutional marae provides a space for Māori students that embodies Māori culture and can be used for a variety of purposes (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015). In Australia, Indigenous Education Units may provide culturally appropriate spaces for Indigenous learners (Government of Australia, 2012).

Several Canadian PSE providers dedicate space for the use of Indigenous learners. The use and size of the space may vary from a single room to larger centers (Holmes, 2006), such as the First Nations Longhouse at the University of British Columbia and the First People’s House at the University of Victoria in BC. The Government of BC provided $15 million for the construction of gathering places in public PSE providers between 2007 and 2010 (Juniper Consulting, 2010).

**Recruitment Programs**
Recruitment programs that target Indigenous learners may be undertaken by PSE providers to enhance participation (Government of Australia, 2008; James and Devlin, 2006; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015; Orr, 2008; Timmons, 2009). To develop effective recruitment programs, PSE providers need to understand the barriers faced by Indigenous learners from Indigenous perspectives (Guillory, 2009). Larimore and McClellan (n.d.) note that interactive and in-person activities can be effective recruitment strategies. PSE providers may also establish culturally appropriate admission requirements for Indigenous learners that provide a more holistic evaluation of the student and take into account such things as work experience and future goals (Orr, 2008).

Both Orr (2008) and Holmes (2006) discuss characteristics of recruitment initiatives implemented across Canada. Examples of initiatives include building a team to organize recruitment activities that includes Aboriginal liaison officers; web pages that outline academic and financial programs, provide contact information for finding out information about programs, and background information on Indigenous support personnel; summer programs for secondary students; career fairs; events; and senior Indigenous post-secondary students who act as student ambassadors and speak to local secondary school students (Orr, 2008). Post-secondary Indigenous learners working with communities on pertinent issues may also provide opportunities to build connections with Indigenous communities, which is one component of the LE,NONET program at the University of Victoria in BC (Holmes, 2006). In Manitoba, Indigenous learners are also recruited for access programs, which provide support for Indigenous learners transitioning into PSE (R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004).

**Mentorship Programs**

Mentorship programs may create a sense of belonging and provide general support and cultural and social networks for Indigenous learners (Mixon, 2008; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015; Shotton, Oosahwe and Cintron, 2007; Timmons, 2009). Mentorship programs also enhance learners’ awareness of student role models, who must manage the challenges of living in both Indigenous and non-Indigenous worlds.

In their study on a peer mentorship program established for Indigenous learners, Shotton, Oosahwe and Cintron (2007) found that “[p]eer mentors helped participants overcome potential barriers in three key areas: (a) connecting students to the community, (b) providing [various types of] support, and (c) providing guidance” (p. 94). The student’s trust of the mentor was an important factor in establishing the peer-mentor relationship (Shotton, Oosahwe and Cintron, 2007). The New Zealand Ministry of Education (2015) notes the importance of formal and informal mentoring circumstances and identifies two elements of mentoring: teaching and learning that occurs between the mentor and the mentee and the
development of a relationship that allows for the former to occur (Parker-Redmond as cited in New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015).

The literature also discusses the importance of role models for Indigenous learners (Mixon, 2008). In her study that analyzes the importance of a mentor’s cultural heritage for Indigenous learners, Smith-Mohamed (1998) found that Indigenous learners value role models more than non-Indigenous learners. The author further suggests the importance of faculty members who exhibit certain characteristics, such as “cross-cultural understanding”, and those who take a personal interest in the individual’s learning and progress. In addition, Duquette’s (2007) literature review regarding Indigenous role models suggests that Indigenous role models should, in part, be knowledgeable of Indigenous culture and participate in the community, value integrity, live by the principles they project, and readily provide support to students. Non-Indigenous mentors for Indigenous youth need to be aware of the consequences residential schools have had on Indigenous cultures and communities (Klinck et al., n.d.). The role of mentor may be undertaken by a variety of people, including post-secondary students (Association of Canadian Community Colleges, 2010; Mixon, 2008), alumni (Association of Canadian Community Colleges, 2010), and Elders (Thompson Rivers University, 2011).

Enhancing Indigenous Voice in PSE Providers

Several studies recommend increasing the number of Indigenous staff on PSE campuses to provide mentors, role models, and support networks for Indigenous students (James and Devlin, 2006; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015; Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011). Indigenous staff should also occupy decision-making roles to provide direction on initiatives to support Indigenous learners and Indigenous education (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; James and Devlin, 2006; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015; Orr, 2008; Universities Australia, 2011).

Elders and partnerships with Indigenous communities can also play an important role in enhancing awareness of Indigenous perspectives in PSE providers. For example, Elders may provide advice and guidance on curriculum, culture, and other initiatives (Association of Canadian Community Colleges, 2010; Minnabarriet, 2012). Rosenbluth (2011) also recommends that Indigenous communities and PSE providers develop partnerships with each other to leverage the strengths of both the community and the provider and to create a collaborative and culturally appropriate learning environment. Partnerships between Indigenous communities and PSE providers and other stakeholders play a foundational role in a framework for Indigenous education initiatives developed by the Association of Canadian Community Colleges (2010) for PSE providers. Institution-wide strategies are significant for developing holistic and comprehensive approaches to Indigenous education and for demonstrating commitment to developing outcomes for Indigenous learners that take into account Indigenous perspectives and advice.

Enhance Understanding of Indigenous Culture at PSE Institutions
PSE providers should implement strategies to increase awareness of Indigenous cultures and issues faced by Indigenous learners among non-Indigenous staff, decision-makers, and students to enhance understanding and appreciation for Indigenous cultures and to create a positive and welcoming environment for Indigenous learners (Larimore and McClellan, 2005; Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011; Timmons, 2009). These initiatives may also aid in preventing discrimination towards Indigenous learners (Timmons, 2009).

Rosenbluth (2011) discusses the importance of non-Indigenous faculty being skilled at carrying on cross-cultural discussions and initiatives that demonstrate how Indigenous and non-Indigenous cultures may fit together to collaboratively deal with pressing issues (pp. 27-28). In addition, Mixon (2008) identifies and provides examples of the role played by Aboriginal Coordinators who work with Canadian universities to provide knowledge of Aboriginal culture and increasing awareness of barriers facing Aboriginal students to staff and faculty on post-secondary campuses.

**Enhancing IK and Indigenous Perspectives**

Education systems should recognize IK and Indigenous ways of knowing and build Indigenous perspectives into education frameworks (Battiste, 2002; Bear Spirit Consulting, 2007; Gorinski and Abernethy, 2007; Government of Australia, 2008). Within the context of New Zealand, Hook (2006) discusses the importance of connecting Māori culture to Māori education and recommends that: (a) culturally appropriate programs be provided in a culturally appropriate setting, (b) secondary education be provided within Māori wānanga (Māori-controlled PSE providers that provide culturally appropriate education), and (c) that a National Māori University be created that would be a “Māori-focused research-based institution” and would enhance Māori participation in international systems (p. 15). R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd. (2004) provide examples of Canadian PSE providers that have created programs specifically for Indigenous students that follow the same structure and evaluation criteria as mainstream programs, but focus on issues important to Indigenous communities and/or have components that aim to alleviate challenges faced by Indigenous students in mainstream PSE environments.

The Canadian Council on Learning (2009b) has collaborated with Indigenous education experts to develop Holistic Lifelong Learning Models for First Nations, Métis, and Inuit peoples that reflect important components of lifelong learning from Indigenous perspectives and captures the holistic nature of Indigenous learning and connections with Indigenous communities. The Canadian Council on Learning (2009b) also developed the Holistic Lifelong Learning Measurement Framework from which culturally appropriate learning indicators may be drawn. Although there are recognized gaps within the measurement framework, the learning models and framework attempt to provide a more consistent and unified approach to Indigenous learning in Canada that is more culturally appropriate for Indigenous learners and may lead education providers and practitioners to have a better
understanding of Indigenous perspectives and learner needs (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; Canadian Council on Learning, 2009b).

**Collaboration, Information-Sharing, and Data**

Several reports identify the importance of collaboration amongst the education sector and between PSE providers to inform policies and programs that target the needs of Indigenous learners (Durie, 2005; James and Devlin, 2006; Larimore and McClellan, 2005; Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011). Sharing best practices on successful strategies is one example of collaboration that may take place. Further, PSE providers should take a unified, institution-wide approach to create stronger policies and programs for Indigenous learners (Association of Canadian Community Colleges, 2010; Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011).

The literature suggests that adopting standardized collections of data and reporting will help ensure the development of appropriate outcomes and levels of funding for Indigenous students (Assembly of First Nations, 2010; Standing Committee on Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development, 2007). Examples of data that may be collected include the number of students who qualify for PSE funding but do not receive it and the type of secondary school courses taken by students that may impact their PSE choices (Standing Committee on Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development, 2007). Knowing this information will help governments, PSE providers, and Indigenous communities plan for the needs of Indigenous learners (Standing Committee on Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development, 2007). The Assembly of First Nations (2010) in Canada recommends that data be collected similarly across the country and kept in a central repository that considers the rights of Indigenous groups in relation to the data. Orr (2008) also suggests that costs of attending PSE studies be tracked, consistent standards for students receiving funding be established between federal government and Indigenous organizations, and that information about Indigenous PSE candidates be collected along with data about programs that address access and retention of Indigenous learners.

**Community-based Education**

Developing ties with Indigenous communities and providing access to PSE programs that allow Indigenous learners to remain in their communities are significant strategies to enhance the number of Indigenous learners who undertake and complete PSE studies (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; Canadian Council on Learning, 2009a; Guillory, 2009; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015; Schwab, n.d.). Providing programs that promote community ties allows Indigenous students to maintain connections to family and community support systems (Guillory, 2009; R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004) and may also ease financial challenges of relocating to larger city centers (R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004).
Maintaining community connections and providing culturally appropriate support allows Indigenous students to pursue careers that are in demand in their communities and enables learners to contribute to their communities, which may be an important incentive to complete PSE studies (Guillory, 2009; Schwab, n.d.). Partnerships between Indigenous communities and PSE providers also aid PSE providers in understanding the needs of communities (Holmes, 2006; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015).

In their report on promising practices undertaken by PSE providers in Canada, Wilson and Battiste (2011) describe several practices that may be linked to community-based education, such as the importance of PSE providers building ties with communities and learners through continuous discussions and a communication strategy. Community ownership of education programs and curriculum that is grounded in local Indigenous communities, education frameworks, and culture is also recommended. Institutions and communities can work together and draw on each other’s strengths to create inclusive programs. Wilson and Battiste (2011) note one of the drawbacks of community-based learning is the potential lack of opportunities for Indigenous and non-Indigenous students to work collectively, which should be undertaken in an inclusive way that respects Indigenous and non-Indigenous cultures.

**Supporting Indigenous-controlled PSE Providers**

Indigenous-controlled PSE providers focus on the needs of Indigenous learners and provide culturally appropriate education. Their community-based programming has helped Indigenous learners upgrade or complete secondary school, transition from secondary to post-secondary schooling, and obtain PSE program credits. The importance of providing stable funding to these providers and challenges faced by these institutions due to lack of funding is discussed in the literature, particularly with respect to Indigenous-controlled PSE providers in Canada and the United States (Aboriginal Institutes’ Consortium, 2005; First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008; Juniper Consulting, 2010; Saunders, 2011; Silta Associates, 2010; Wheeler, 2004).

In Canada, Aboriginal-controlled institutes may be defined as “not-for-profit adult and post-secondary centres that have an Aboriginal governance structure” (Juniper Consulting, 2010, p. 1). Aboriginal-controlled institutes encourage Indigenous culture, take into account community needs, and are examples of Indigenous communities having control over Indigenous education. Aboriginal-controlled institutes are not recognized within the provincial and federal legal frameworks in Canada. In the United States, tribal colleges and universities are formally recognized in the legislative framework and are accredited through national boards.

Each country discussed in this review has Indigenous-controlled PSE providers, although they may take different forms. Indigenous-controlled PSE providers are one way in which Indigenous communities have responded to the needs of
Indigenous learners; however, they also face several challenges. For example, in Canada these institutes often face financial difficulties (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; Silta Associates, 2010). In BC, recommended support for Indigenous-controlled institutes includes providing stable, long-term funding; setting clear federal or provincial jurisdiction for Indigenous PSE; and providing formal legislative recognition of Aboriginal-controlled institutes (First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008).

3.5 Summary

The literature on Indigenous learners who undertake PSE is moving away from theories that focus on student deficits and towards post-colonial or anti-colonial theories that consider the presence of racism and the dominant culture’s position of power in society’s institutions, as well as theories that analyze Indigenous PSE from Indigenous perspectives. These theories use tools such as storytelling to counter dominant European narratives and assert the importance of western education systems acknowledging and incorporating Indigenous ways of knowing. In addition, these theories often recognize the challenge Indigenous learners face in having to adjust to the cultures of PSE providers.

Lack of adequate financial resources that do not take into account the age and circumstances of Indigenous learners is noted as one of the most significant barriers for Indigenous learners pursuing and completing PSE, along with the lower number of Indigenous learners graduating in their last year of secondary school. Barriers faced by Indigenous learners are rooted in past colonial policies of federal governments that used education as a tool of assimilation. The experience of Indigenous peoples in western education systems has resulted in feelings of distrust towards both formal education and governments. Many Indigenous learners enrolled in PSE are first-generation learners who face distinct challenges and may not have role models who have completed PSE. Cultural differences between Indigenous communities and PSE providers, along with the lack of recognition of Indigenous knowledge, languages, and ways of knowing, has often lead to feelings of isolation and the decision to leave PSE studies.

Reports recommend providing funding to greater numbers of eligible Indigenous learners that considers the unique costs of Indigenous learners who are often mature students who need to relocate to pursue studies. Initiatives undertaken by PSE providers should be institution-wide and provide cultural, academic and social support for learners while enhancing awareness of Indigenous cultures for non-Indigenous faculty, staff, and students. Studies further recommend that PSE providers embrace IK and Indigenous perspectives and ways of knowing. Indigenous languages and cultures play a significant role in breaking down Eurocentric knowledge structures and making space for Indigenous perspectives in PSE. Indigenous communities must be able to play a significant role in providing culturally appropriate PSE for Indigenous learners. In addition, Indigenous-
controlled PSE providers, which have a better understanding of Indigenous learner needs in comparison to mainstream, non-Indigenous PSE providers and offer community-based, culturally appropriate education, need to be provided stable and long-term funding to ensure they can plan strategically for the future.
4. Methodology

This research project was designed to establish strategies implemented by other jurisdictions (Canadian provinces, like-minded national and sub-national governments) to enhance the access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE and support Indigenous-controlled PSE providers. The study employs a qualitative research design and uses semi-structured interviews to obtain information from public servants in the jurisdictions scanned in the jurisdictional review. This chapter describes the research method, sample, interview process, and potential limitations of the study.

4.1 Interviews

Key informant interviews were used as the primary data collection method in this study. The purpose of the interviews was to obtain further information about Indigenous PSE policy frameworks and corresponding programs undertaken by Canadian provincial governments and particular national and sub-national governments to enhance the access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE. The interviews were also meant to fill in any gaps and to clarify points obtained from publicly available government documents. Information obtained from the interviews was used to build on the literature review and publicly available government documents, along with the perspectives identified in the Ministry’s consultation with Aboriginal individuals and organizations, to provide potential strategies for the Ministry’s consideration.

A semi-structured interview design was chosen for this study because it allows the researcher to determine the questions before the interview, but also allows flexibility to explore topics or points of interest that may arise from the participant’s answers (Brinkmann, 2008). Semi-structured interviews also allow the participant to provide descriptions of their own viewpoints and opinions based on their knowledge and experience (Saldaña, 2011). In addition, these types of interviews are beneficial for providing additional information on a topic and for confirming data from other materials (Laforest, 2009).

4.2 Sample

A purposive sampling technique was used to select public servants who work in Indigenous policy and/or program areas in the jurisdictions surveyed. Purposive sampling allows the researcher to choose participants for a specific purpose and to obtain comprehensive information on a particular topic (Baker, 2002). Public servants were chosen for this study because of their knowledge and experience in developing Indigenous PSE policy or implementing corresponding programs. This study also used a snowball sampling technique, meaning that in some cases
individuals who were initially contacted were asked to identify potential interview participants (Frattaroli, 2012).

4.3 Recruitment

The public servants interviewed were identified through government websites and program documents consulted for the jurisdictional review. Participants were contacted via e-mail with an introduction letter outlining the purpose of the research and how the research would be used. The initial email also included a participant consent form. The researcher followed up with potential participants via email or a phone call after the introduction email to confirm participation. In some cases, public servants referred the researcher to their colleagues.

Twenty-four requests were made to potential interview participants including general inquiries made via email or telephone call to find contact information for potential participants. In some cases, emails were sent to several individuals in various ministry branches due to lack of clarity about the branch responsible for Indigenous PSE policy and programming. Five individuals agreed to participate in interviews.

Despite the large number of requests made to potential interview participants, the expectation was that one interview would be conducted per jurisdiction due to the specialized nature of the subject matter.

4.4 Interviews and Interview Questions

Interviews were conducted via telephone due to the researcher and participants residing and working in different cities. Participant consent forms were signed before the interviews were undertaken. The interviews were approximately 60 minutes in length. The interviews were recorded and extensive notes were also taken to ensure the information was documented accurately. Follow-up conversations were requested with two participants. These conversations were voluntary and consent was received via email before the conversations took place.

The researcher asked questions outlined in the interview guide (See Appendix B), and asked further questions based on information provided by the participant throughout the interview. The scope of the interviews was determined by reviewing the feedback from the Ministry’s consultation for the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan and the interests of the Ministry. The feedback from the Ministry’s consultation was compared against the goals and initiatives outlined in the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan to determine if there were areas noted by stakeholders but not addressed by the policy framework. These perceived gaps, along with pervasive themes from the Ministry’s consultation feedback and the Ministry’s interests, informed the interview questions.
Data obtained from the interviews was added to the jurisdictional review chapter to provide a greater depth of information than that obtained from publicly available government documents.

### 4.5 Analysis

The interviews were recorded and the data obtained from the interviews was analyzed using thematic analysis. The interview findings and information obtained from government documents in the jurisdictional review was compared with themes that emerged in the literature review. A list of common themes from the literature review was devised and then commonalities of policies and programs from the jurisdictional review were compared against this list. Due to the semi-structured format of the interviews, participants’ responses did not always fit into themes identified in the literature or information from government documents. Additional themes that emerged from the interview data were also compared and similarities and differences were documented.

### 4.6 Limitations

Because this study does not employ random sampling, selection bias may be a limitation. Interview participants were chosen with a clear research purpose in mind and due to the participants’ knowledge of Indigenous PSE policies and programs. Potential participants were discovered by reviewing publicly available contact information on government websites and in government documents. In addition, due to different cultural and political contexts and work environments, the findings of this study are not expected to be generalized to the context of Indigenous PSE initiatives in BC. The data obtained through the interviews was analyzed in relation to the perspectives of Aboriginal communities in BC as demonstrated in the consultation undertaken by the Ministry.

A second potential limitation to this study is the researcher’s lack of experience in conducting qualitative research. Interviewing requires, in part, building a rapport with the participant, developing appropriate and effective questions, (Whiting, 2008), being a considerate listener, and asking effective follow-up questions or prompts throughout the interview (Saldaña, 2011). An inexperienced interviewer may not have honed these skills. The researcher has attempted to mitigate these concerns by developing an interview guide with the client beforehand to ensure effective questions were developed and taping the interviews to ensure accurate information was captured. In addition, follow-up conversations with participants were undertaken where necessary to clarify and confirm information.

Researcher bias may also be a limitation in this study. Researchers who conduct interviews may be influenced by preconceived ideas and perspectives that may bias how the interview data is interpreted (Brinkmann, 2008). Researcher bias may also emerge if questions are asked differently to different participants (Gray, 2004). To mitigate these influences, the interviews were recorded and differences in themes
or patterns between the interview data and literature review were acknowledged in the discussion section of the study.
5. Jurisdictional Review

Despite different local contexts, Indigenous learners face similar barriers in other countries (such as New Zealand and Australia) in addition to other Canadian provinces. This chapter provides an overview of initiatives undertaken by Canadian provinces, New Zealand, and Australia that are identified in PSE strategies to enhance the access and retention of Indigenous learners. The United States government is also discussed in relation to how the government provides funding to Indigenous-controlled PSE providers (known as tribal colleges and universities).

The chapter is presented as case studies that first provide the historical context for each jurisdiction, followed by a review of publicly available information from government strategies that focus on PSE initiatives in relation to Indigenous learners, and finally a discussion of the interview findings, where applicable. The historical context for Canadian provinces is provided in the Background chapter of the report (see section 2.1).

Other National Governments

The jurisdictional review focuses on like-minded national governments, such as New Zealand and Australia. For this paper, like-minded refers to governments that have Indigenous populations and follow the Westminster model of parliamentary democracy. Like Canadian provinces, only PSE initiatives in relation to Indigenous learners, such as the Māori in New Zealand and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in Australia, will be discussed.

Canada’s PSE System and Scope

Canadian provincial governments have jurisdiction over PSE; however, the federal government does provide funding to Aboriginal learners through the Post-Secondary Student Support Program (PSSSP) (as discussed in the Literature Review). Jurisdiction in relation to Aboriginal learners in Canada can be complex and there are differing perspectives about whether or not the federal government is required to provide PSE to Aboriginal learners as a treaty right. This report will not analyze the complexities of issues related to government jurisdiction; however, concerns over jurisdiction will be noted where applicable within the context of provincial government strategies.

This chapter discusses initiatives undertaken by Canadian provincial governments that have implemented specific strategies in relation to Aboriginal learners in PSE. These primarily include the provinces of Ontario and Manitoba. Alberta is also briefly discussed. Initiatives undertaken by the governments of Canadian territories are considered out of scope due to variations in contexts from provinces.
5.1 Canada

5.1.1 Ontario

The Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities (MTCU) is responsible for allocating funding to colleges and universities and providing direction for the province’s PSE system (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, n.d., p. 2). There are 20 public universities and 24 public colleges in Ontario. In addition, there are several Aboriginal-controlled institutes.

**Aboriginal PSE and Training Policy Framework**

The 2011 *Aboriginal Postsecondary Education and Training Policy Framework* (2011 Ontario Framework) provides direction for policy and programs for public PSE providers, Aboriginal-controlled institutes, and stakeholders and attempts to shape positive initiatives across the PSE and training sector (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2011, p. 4). The 2011 Ontario Framework consists of principles, key goals, and strategic directions to provide direction for PSE policy, programs, and initiatives. The five principles of the framework are “excellence and accountability; equity, inclusion, and respect for diversity; cooperation on and shared responsibility for post-secondary education and training; respect for Constitutional and treaty rights; and respect for Indigenous Knowledge, languages, and cultures” (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2011, p. 6).

In addition, the 2011 Ontario Framework identifies the following four goals:

- Transparency and accountability are improved by enhanced reporting on and access to data about PSE and training (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2011, p. 16).
- PSE and training surroundings are more responsive to and respectful of the needs, choices, and ambitions of Aboriginal individuals (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2011, p. 16).
- An enhanced number of Aboriginal learners attain success in PSE and training (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2011, p. 27).
- An enhanced number of Aboriginal learners have the skills and education required to take part in the shifting labour market (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2011, p. 16).

To attain its goals, the province commits to continue building and maintaining relationships with Aboriginal communities and organizations, PSE providers and stakeholders, elementary and secondary education stakeholders, other government ministries, and the federal government.

**Funding provided by the MTCU**

The MTCU provides funding for initiatives in relation to Aboriginal learners in PSE through the Postsecondary Education Fund for Aboriginal Learners, which is provided in three different funding envelopes: Student Success Funding, Targeted
Initiatives Fund, and Aboriginal Student Bursaries. The interview respondent provided several ministry documents about funding.

Student Success Funding is available to public colleges and universities on a voluntary basis and is currently offered for multiple years. Funding may be used for initiatives that focus on services and programs to enhance the number of Aboriginal individuals accessing PSE, participating in PSE, and completing PSE studies; enhance transitions; and enhance partnerships to encourage access and achievement of Aboriginal learners in PSE (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2013, pp. 2-3).

To obtain Student Success Funding, applicants must provide a proposal that outlines the initiatives for which the funding is being requested. There are eligibility requirements to obtain the funding, such as the requirement to establish an Aboriginal Education Council, which helps to ensure Aboriginal peoples are involved in the institution's decision-making, and the PSE provider must have at least one Aboriginal Counselor, who could be an Elder, a career counselor, etc. (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2013, p. 3). The funding applicant is required to annually report back to the MTCU on the initiatives funded on a template that reflects the goals of the 2011 Ontario Framework (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2013, p. 3).

Student Success Funding is also available to Aboriginal-controlled institutes to deliver programming in collaboration with a college or university as well as services for Aboriginal learners (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2013). To obtain funding, there are certain eligibility and reporting requirements (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2013). For example, Aboriginal-controlled institutes are required to report on information such as Aboriginal learner enrolment, completion, transitions, and partnerships that encourage Aboriginal learner access to and achievement in PSE (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2013, p. 1).

The Targeted Initiatives Fund is proposal-based and available to colleges, universities, Aboriginal-controlled institutes, and other organizations for initiatives to be completed in a particular time frame that show best practices, test out potential enhancements to current programs, or that are aligned with MTCU priorities but may not fall within the purview of the Student Success Funding (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2013, p. 2).

**Interview Findings**

The interviewee representing the MTCU stated the provincial government's overarching goal is closing the gap in relation to the number of Aboriginal learners versus non-Aboriginal learners participating in PSE. The MTCU has not specified a particular percentage increase in participation due to the lack of strong data currently available for Aboriginal PSE learners.
The respondent stated the MTCU provides funding to enhance access to PSE, participation in PSE, and completion of PSE studies by Aboriginal learners. The MTCU aims to ensure public PSE providers are supported to ensure Aboriginal learners are successful in completing their PSE studies primarily through funding. The respondent noted the MTCU is currently concentrating on Aboriginal learner transitions from K-12 to PSE and challenges that learners may face in these transitions. The interviewee stated that a review of the first three years of the 2011 Ontario Framework is currently being undertaken.

The interviewee indicated that approximately $1.5 million was distributed to colleges, universities, and Aboriginal-controlled institutes through the Aboriginal Student Bursaries Fund. The PSE provider determines eligibility for the funds. For example, the funds could be provided to numerous learners, or be used to cover emergency costs of learners.

In addition to funding, the respondent pointed to other activities, such as Contact North (an organization that delivers education online, particularly in northern Ontario) to help ensure public PSE providers are accessible to Aboriginal learners. The interviewee also identified recruitment activities (especially for K-12 students), such as summer camps, campus experiences, and outreach activities. A group of MTCU staff also travel to remote communities to provide information about PSE and undertake recruitment activities. The MTCU is also currently funding a project with the Council of Ontario Universities that involves community outreach.

The interviewee stated that, broadly speaking, MTCU is seeing progress in relation to its actions. One sign of progress has been that a proportion of colleges and universities have identified increasing enrolment and participation of Aboriginal learners in PSE as a priority. Currently, all public colleges and universities have requested Aboriginal PSE funding. The respondent suggested that MTCU’s current ability to make a multi-year funding commitment may result in confidence to hire staff and implement initiatives. In addition, the interviewee noted the importance of Aboriginal Education Councils and that the funding framework allows providers to make decisions about their own priorities and programming. The respondent also discussed MTCU’s emphasis on stakeholder relationships with Aboriginal communities and its inclusion of members from different organizations in decision-making and planning. The MTCU is also linked with K-12 education, resulting in a joint effort. The MTCU is making improvements on performance evaluation and focusing funding on what initiatives appear to be achieving results.

The respondent noted that tracking and measuring progress is, in part, collected from annual reporting requirements for funding, which supplies information on what programs have been effective, how many Aboriginal learners participated, and feedback from learners themselves about the initiatives.

The Ministry of Advanced Education was specifically interested in MTCU’s initiatives that provide PSE information to Aboriginal learners. The respondent noted that the
approach was multi-pronged. For example, the MTCU provided funding to the Ontario Native Education Counseling Association (ONECA) for the development of a website for Aboriginal learners that focuses on transitions. Conferences have been held to bring stakeholders together and the MTCU has also provided funding for outreach activities. In addition, the MTCU is supporting an initiative in which six northern colleges are developing a report on best practices in Aboriginal education.

The interviewee stated that MTCU provides funding to nine Aboriginal-controlled institutes. The respondent identified that Aboriginal-controlled institutes play a variety of significant roles in relation to Aboriginal learners, including reaching learners that mainstream PSE providers may not reach; delivering programs directly to Aboriginal learners; aiding in transition to PSE by providing the first year of a program; providing connections to Indigenous Knowledge; helping to preserve Indigenous languages; and working with mature learners who may have family obligations.

The interviewee indicated that Aboriginal-controlled institutes face several challenges in Ontario. For example, the provincial government does not officially recognize Aboriginal-controlled institutes. In addition, Aboriginal-controlled institutes lack authority to accredit their programs and may have challenges securing funding. The respondent noted an additional challenge could be that greater provincial government resources could result in less control over programming.

5.1.2 Manitoba

Manitoba Advanced Education and Literacy manages and distributes funding for PSE, literacy, adult learning, and financial aid related to PSE learning. Manitoba Advanced Education and Literacy also oversees relevant legislation and the regulatory framework for PSE and provides direction for policy under several legislative acts (Manitoba Advanced Education and Literacy, n.d., p. 1). The Ministry provides funding to literacy programs, adult learning centres, and seven public PSE providers.

The Aboriginal Education Directorate directs and manages Aboriginal education and training programs. The Aboriginal Education Directorate's goals are to make certain that an integrated approach is taken to Aboriginal education and training in K-12 education by Manitoba Education and Manitoba Advanced Education and Literacy, coordinate with other ministries to dismantle barriers Aboriginal learners may face that may impede achievement, and make sure there are connections with respect to research and policy approaches on Aboriginal education and training (Manitoba Advanced Education and Literacy, n.d., p. 5).

The current Aboriginal education strategy, *Bridging Two Worlds: Aboriginal Education and Employment Action Plan, 2008 – 2011* (Bridging Two Worlds), builds on the preceding strategy released in 2004 entitled *Aboriginal Education Action Plan, 2004 – 2007*. Bridging Two Worlds is meant to guide the work of several government departments and build on the previous framework. Bridging Two Worlds employs a model in which the Aboriginal learner is at the center and the goals and guiding principles flow outwards from the learner. The title of the strategy is meant to reflect that Aboriginal learners must have a strong Aboriginal identity to participate in both the Aboriginal world and the non-Aboriginal world (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 1).

Bridging Two Worlds has guiding principles, a vision, mission, lessons learned, and four goals with objectives identified. The strategy’s vision is that Aboriginal individuals fully participate in society via education, training, and workforce participation (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 2). The mission of the strategy is to support Aboriginal peoples’ achievement in education, training, and workforce participation (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 2). The four goals identified in Bridging Two Worlds are:

- The first goal is learner engagement and completion of secondary school (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 3). Activities relevant to PSE are in relation to enhancing the number of Aboriginal educators (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 3).

- The second goal is access to and achievement in adult learning that includes PSE and training (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 4). Activities undertaken in relation to this goal include: providing financial support through the creation of scholarships and bursaries, the provision of financial support for ACCESS programs delivered at PSE providers, ensuring residents living in the north of the province have access to education opportunities in their communities, and establishing adult literacy courses and adult learning centers to aid individuals in obtaining necessary school qualifications (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 4).

- The third goal is meaningful participation in the workforce (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 5). Examples of activities undertaken include: the ministry undertakes career development initiatives to enhance the ability of Aboriginal organizations to employ culturally relevant career resources and supports the Igniting the Power Within program that provides counselors and advisors in Aboriginal communities with certification training to implement Essential Skills and Recognition of Prior Learning in services provided (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 5). Another example is that Partners for Careers aids individuals to obtain employment and the Community-Based Apprenticeship Training gives choices to
Aboriginal individuals in an apprenticeship program to finish a component of training in close proximity to their community. Partnerships have also been built with such entities as the Hydro Northern Training and Employment Initiative and the Northern Manitoba Sector Council to enhance Aboriginal learners participation in the labour force in the northern areas of the province (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 5).

- Goal four centers on family and community engagement and Aboriginal educational stewardship (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 6). “Stewardship” refers to the responsibility all individuals hold for their own education and others’ education and the value that should be placed on individuals for their contribution to education (Aboriginal Education Directorate, n.d., p. 6).

**Interview Findings**

The interviewee representing the provincial government stated that the second goal in Bridging Two Worlds, which focuses on access to and achievement in adult learning that includes PSE and training, is the government’s overarching goal in relation to Aboriginal PSE learners. Further research was undertaken on adult learning initiatives to put the interview findings into context and is included in Appendix C.

In addition to the second goal identified in Bridging Two Worlds, the respondent discussed several other government priorities, such as adult learning centres (ALCs), providing scholarships and bursaries, and providing education opportunities for Aboriginal learners in regional areas (particularly in the northern region). The interviewee noted that one of the areas in which the province is undertaking more work is the challenges faced by learners who wish to attend PSE programs, but are not able to because they have not completed secondary school. In the context of these comments, the respondent discussed ALCs and pointed to the accompanying adult learning strategy and adult learning legislation. The respondent noted that learners may attend ALCs free of charge and receive credits to complete their Grade 12 diploma. ALCs may also enhance academic preparedness for learners going into particular programs.

Secondly, the interviewee discussed the government’s focus on scholarships and bursaries for Aboriginal learners, providing the Helen Betty Osbourne Foundation as an example. The foundation has increased the number of bursaries provided to individuals from two to over 120 bursaries in the last ten years. The government of Manitoba, in addition to other organizations, contributes funding for this bursary. In addition, the government continues to consider the needs of Aboriginal individuals living in different regions of the province, particularly northern areas. The interviewee discussed the establishment of the University College of the North (UCN) in 2004, which grants diplomas, certificates and degrees and noted the development of Kenanow, a teacher education program developed by UCN’s Faculty
of Education department in conjunction with elders and communities. The Kenanow program is also connected to another government priority, which is increasing the number of Aboriginal teachers in the province. The provincial government has received favorable feedback about the Kenanow program from the local school division.

The provincial government supports PSE providers in relation to Aboriginal learners through funding and participation on advisory councils. PSE providers are given funding for some Aboriginal PSE initiatives. For example, the interviewee noted that funding was provided for one PSE provider’s elder in residence program. In addition, department staff members sit on Indigenous advisory circles within PSE providers to participate in discussions about facilitating Aboriginal learners’ participation in PSE. The interviewee also stated that several PSE providers have an executive lead that is placed in the president’s office to work directly with the institution in relation to Indigenous education and Indigenous government.

The interviewee discussed the UCN, Campus Manitoba, and mobile learning units provided through Red River College as examples of how the provincial government ensures PSE providers are accessible to Aboriginal learners. The interviewee noted that many communities now have regional centres. In the northern area of the province, communities may identify specific needs for programs and, through the UCN, may bring in programs and professors to deliver the courses. The UCN website provided further information and identifies 12 regional centres in northern Manitoba (University College of the North, n.d.). Campus Manitoba provides a similar function to UCN, but in rural communities (communities outside of city limits). Campus Manitoba, which the interviewee noted is funded by the provincial government, offers courses within communities and also provides courses through distance education.

The interviewee also outlined a program in which the government partners with Red River College to establish mobile training labs. Mobile training labs are classrooms fitted on to large trailers that may be brought into different communities. For example, the interviewee described a construction mobile learning unit that was stationed in a community. The mobile classroom has the tools and classroom materials needed for students to learn skills. The Red River College website provided further information and noted the two mobile training labs were used for vocational/trades education (Red River College, n.d.).

The interviewee identified that the ministry has used graduation and completion rates of courses and degrees to measure success. A further consideration for success could be whether or not learners obtain employment upon completion of their programs. The government has started to track employment of Aboriginal teachers through the Aboriginal Teachers Questionnaire. The interviewee noted that tracking employment outcomes can be challenging because it relies on learners self-identifying as an Aboriginal person in PSE. The interviewee identified the establishment of the UCN (in which the provincial government played an important
role) and the Adult Literacy Act (and adult learning strategy) as successful initiatives. Involving the community and implementing initiatives that result from consultation were identified as important factors for ensuring successful initiatives. To track and measure progress, the interviewee described the reporting process in relation to Bridging Two Worlds. There are three different committees: the management committee, steering committee, and reporting committee. The reporting committee undertakes a roll-up annually. Internally, progress on outcomes is reported to the Aboriginal Issues Committee. Highlights reports are also developed and shared publicly.

The interviewee noted that the provincial government does provide some funding to Aboriginal-controlled institutes, such as for the ALC at Yellow Quill College and programs delivered by the Louis Riel Institute. The Louis Riel Institute is governed by legislation, the *Louis Riel Institute Act*. The respondent identified that the government works with the Louis Riel Institute and the Métis Foundation to determine common interests and how they can support each other on projects.

### 5.1.3 Alberta

The Ministry of Innovation and Advanced Education is responsible for managing Alberta’s PSE system, with a goal of aligning the government’s economic initiatives with the PSE system. There are 26 publicly funded PSE providers that fall into six sectors: comprehensive academic and research institutions, baccalaureate and applied studies institutions, polytechnic institutions, comprehensive community institutions, independent academic institutions, and specialized arts and culture institutions. There are also several Aboriginal PSE providers, which are listed on the Ministry’s website. However, the relationship between the Ministry and these PSE providers is unclear.

**First Nations, Métis and Inuit Education Policy Framework**

The *First Nations, Métis and Inuit Education Policy Framework* (2002 Policy Framework) was released in winter 2002 by Alberta Learning (now Alberta Education). The 2002 Policy Framework was a result of a review of the Government of Alberta’s Policy Statement on Native Education articulated in 1987, in which the government pledged support to education programs and services for all learners in Alberta to enhance awareness and comprehension of Aboriginal histories, cultures and perspectives and that could facilitate Aboriginal involvement in shaping education for Aboriginal learners (Alberta Learning, 2002, p. 2).

Alberta Education’s 2002 Policy Framework is described in the framework as a living document and identifies an over-arching vision, goals, principles, strategies, and performance measures in relation to education initiatives for Aboriginal learners from early learning to PSE – this discussion will focus on PSE initiatives. The vision of the 2002 Policy Framework focuses on ensuring the education system
is receptive and accountable to the life-long learning goals of Aboriginal individuals and communities (Alberta Learning, 2002, p. 9).

Policy initiatives in relation to Aboriginal learners appear to be directed primarily to learners in K-12 education. In addition, due to information obtained during the interview, the role played by the framework in directing policy is unclear. Therefore, the policy framework is briefly discussed.
The 2002 Policy Framework lists five goals, along with strategies for each goal, to achieve the vision. The five goals are:

1. The first goal is to ensure education opportunities that are responsive, flexible, accessible, and affordable (Alberta Learning, 2002, p. 11). The strategies for Goal 1 include ensuring appropriate information resources and services are provided for learners and communities, encouraging Aboriginal involvement on PSE boards, developing consultation processes and tools to enhance success of Aboriginal learners, enhancing access to PSE and adult education and support services, and making sure that financial resources do not prevent learners from undertaking education opportunities (Alberta Learning, 2002, pp. 16-17).

2. The second goal is excellence in accomplishments of Aboriginal learners (Alberta Learning, 2002, p. 12). The strategies to implement Goal 2 include enhancing attendance, retention, and graduation rates of learners in provincial schools; enhancing the number of Aboriginal teachers and staff in education providers; enhancing awareness of Aboriginal cultural perspectives and worldviews and issues in relation to Aboriginal rights; aiding in the creation of Aboriginal education and participation in professional development for education staff; enhancing tools to measure learner achievements; and enhancing assessment of learner assessment.

3. The third goal is that learners are equipped to take part in PSE and the job market (Alberta Learning, 2002, 12). Strategies identified to fulfill Goal 3 include enhancing literacy opportunities; providing support to arrangements meant to enhance entrance in PSE programs; enhancing connections between education and employment; and consulting with education and other stakeholders to give career and labour market data resources and services to Aboriginal individuals, parents, and communities.

4. The fourth goal is effective working relationships (Alberta Learning, 2002, p. 13). Strategies identified to achieve goal four include putting in place tools to enhance Aboriginal participation in the creation of policies, making decisions, accountability, and resolving issues in relation to education; establishing relationships that will lead to valuable education for Aboriginal learners; and recognizing and lessening barriers to learner achievement (Alberta Learning, 2002, p. 19).
5. The fifth goal is to ensure a highly responsive and responsible ministry (Alberta Learning, 2002, p. 13). Strategies identified to achieve this goal include increasing performance measurement, assessment, and reporting on outcomes; enhancing the ability of the Ministry to react to opportunities and issues that are significant to Aboriginal individuals and communities; and enhancing knowledge and appreciation of Aboriginal cultures, rights, lands, and languages (Alberta Learning, 2002, p. 20).

Two progress reports have been published on the Internet in relation to the 2002 Policy Framework. The 2004 and 2008 progress reports identify certain strategies from the 2002 Policy Framework as priorities. Examples of initiatives discussed in the 2004 report include provincial government support for apprentice programs and scholarships for these programs, developing materials to provide information about trades careers (such as the Step into the Trades guides), Aboriginal Youth Ambassadors who speak to secondary school students about career opportunities in the trades, and developments in relation to teacher education programs (Government of Alberta, 2004).

The 2008 progress report builds on initiatives discussed in the 2004 Progress Report and also discusses various initiatives. For example, Alberta Education worked with Bow Valley College and the First Nations, Métis, Inuit Community Liaison Advisory Committee to create a FNMI Community Liaison Certificate Program with the goal of enhancing Aboriginal learner achievement in the education system (Alberta Education, 2008, p. 6). A discussion event on issues centering on teacher preparation was also held in 2006 with PSE and education stakeholders and Aboriginal communities. Alberta Education also created an Aboriginal Awareness workshop for their employees to enhance awareness and comprehension of Aboriginal histories, cultures, and issues in Aboriginal education.

**Interview Findings**

The interviewee noted that the provincial government’s goal is to enhance access to PSE, but that the individual was not aware of a specific plan that was in place for Aboriginal learners. The interviewee was not aware of the First Nations, Métis and Inuit Education Policy Framework. The respondent identified the Ministry of Innovation and Advanced Education’s 2014 Business Plan, which has as a goal to increase access to PSE by learners who are under-represented in PSE and that Aboriginal learners are listed under this umbrella.

The interviewee noted that the government tracks progress in relation to its goals of increasing access and participation rates of Aboriginal learners through the government’s learner enrolment and reporting system. The government tracks overall enrolment of learners by head count and then tracks learners in program bands by how many learners are taking a full-time course load. The tracking system relies on Aboriginal individuals self-reporting.
5.2 New Zealand

The Māori are the Indigenous people of Aotearoa, or New Zealand. As of June 2012, New Zealand’s population was approximately 4.43 million people with Māori making up approximately 15.4% of the population (Statistics New Zealand, 2012). Approximately 84% of Māori live in urban areas, with one-quarter living in Auckland (Meredith, 2012). Māori language (Te Reo Māori), English, and Sign Language are the official languages of New Zealand.

**Historical Context**

Māori are thought to have inhabited New Zealand from the 14th century when groups traveled to Aotearoa in canoes from the Polynesia area. The traditional structure of Māori society includes iwi (tribes), which are the largest political group in which members shared a common ancestor. The hapū (clan) is the most important political grouping of the Māori (Taonui, 2012). Several whānau (extended family units) make up the hapū. Iwi, hapū, and whānau continue to be important in Māori society today.

The first Europeans (or Pakeha) who arrived in New Zealand in the late eighteenth century were primarily traders, sealers, and whalers (Lovell-Smith, 2012). By the 1830s, European settlement was growing steadily. The word ‘Māori’ means “normal, usual, natural, common” (Moorfield, 2014) and was the name Indigenous peoples used to distinguish themselves from European settlers.

In 1831, James Busby became the British Resident whose role was to safeguard British traders, strengthen law and order, and to secure Britain’s claim to New Zealand in the face of interest from other European powers. In 1835, Busby took it upon himself to sign the Declaration of Independence with 34 Māori tribal leaders, which deemed New Zealand to be an independent nation under the ‘United Tribes of New Zealand’. The British viewed the declaration as a way to entrench British power in New Zealand over other European nations; the Māori viewed the declaration as a way to secure Māori independence over the land and British protection in the face of other European nations’ interest in New Zealand (Ministry for Culture and Heritage, May 2013). The effects of the Declaration of Independence and its meaning are much debated in New Zealand’s history (Ministry for Culture and Heritage, May 2013).

In the face of increasing British settlement and the potential for conflict over land issues, the Treaty of Waitangi was signed in 1840 at the behest of the British between the British Crown and over 500 Māori chiefs. The Treaty of Waitangi was a political document that, to the British, secured New Zealand as a colony under British sovereignty. The treaty was written in English and translated into Māori.
There are significant differences in the translation and meaning of particular words in the English and Māori versions of the treaty. It is widely viewed that the English version included wording that specified that Britain had greater exclusive sovereignty over the land. For example, as the treaty was translated into Māori language, the word ‘kawanatanga’ (meaning governance) was used in place of sovereignty, which was referred to in the English version of the treaty (New Zealand Ministry of Justice, n.d.a; Meredith and Higgins, 2012). In addition, cultural differences may have resulted in different perceptions of the treaty’s meaning, with Māori culture emphasizing oral traditions, and British culture emphasizing written traditions. Despite differences in meaning, both versions of the treaty “represent an agreement in which Māori gave the Crown rights to govern and to develop British settlement, while the Crown guaranteed Māori full protection of their interests and status, and full citizenship rights” (New Zealand Ministry of Justice, n.d.a, Introduction, para. 1)

In the late nineteenth century, relations between the Māori and the British often ended in violence as European settlement resulted in greater pressures on Māori land and resources. Māori petitioned the Crown several times citing Britain’s failure to honour the terms of the Treaty of Waitangi. The Waitangi Tribunal was created in 1975 by the New Zealand government to consider allegations of contraventions of the treaty and to provide recommendations regarding these claims.

The intention or principles of the Treaty of Waitangi are considered when interpreting government obligations to Māori peoples. While there is no official list of treaty principles – the principles have been determined by court cases, legislation, the Waitangi Tribunal, and government (J. Hayward, 2012) – the Waitangi Tribunal notes the following principles: “the principle of active protection, the tribal right to self-regulation, the right of redress for past breaches, and the duty to consult” (New Zealand Ministry of Justice, n.d.b, para. 3).

**New Zealand’s Tertiary Education System**

PSE is referred to as tertiary education in New Zealand and encompasses all education after secondary school. The Ministry of Education, Tertiary Education Commission (TEC), and the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) have responsibilities in relation to New Zealand’s tertiary education system. There are many public tertiary education institutes including eight universities; four colleges; 21 Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics, which provide professional and vocational education, including degree programs; and three wānanga (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2014). Additional tertiary providers include private training establishments, industry training organizations, and Māori providers.

The New Zealand Ministry of Education is responsible for providing guidance on tertiary education policy, including guiding the formation of the tertiary education strategy and working with other government agencies and stakeholders; working with tertiary education organizations to implement government policy; completing

The roles and responsibilities of the TEC include managing the government’s tertiary education budget, advising on the policy and priorities of the tertiary sector, playing an important role in implementing the tertiary education strategy, and monitoring the performance of tertiary education providers (Tertiary Education Commission, 2014a). The Tertiary Education Strategy, 2014 – 2019 includes priorities in relation to Māori learners.

The NZQA’s responsibilities include quality assurance of non-university tertiary education providers (such as private training establishments, institutes of technology and polytechnics, and wānanga) and managing the secondary school assessment system. Quality assurance encompasses both the learning outcomes and the way in which tertiary education providers deliver their programs (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2014). In addition, the NZQA administers the New Zealand Qualifications Framework, which sets out all education qualifications that are quality-assured. There are 10 qualification levels:
  - Levels 1 to 4: Certificates (higher levels indicate more specialization and training)
  - Levels 5 to 6: Diplomas
  - Level 7: Bachelor’s Degree and Graduate Diplomas and Certificates
  - Level 8: Postgraduate diploma and Bachelor Honors Degree
  - Level 9: Master’s Degree
  - Level 10: Doctoral Degree (NZQA, n.d.).

The NZQA’s Māori Strategic Plan for the NZQA 2012 – 2017 sets out the entity’s goals in relation to Māori learners.

Universities New Zealand has responsibilities in relation to quality assurance for universities. The Committee on University Academic Programmes and the Academic Quality Assurance for New Zealand Universities (AQA) aid Universities New Zealand in carrying out its responsibilities (Universities New Zealand, 2013). The Committee on University Academic Programmes plays several roles, including program approval and accreditation and meeting with the NZQA on relevant matters. The Academic Quality Assurance for New Zealand Universities (AQA) undertakes audits of teaching and learning in universities and shares best practices that aim to increase the quality of the sector.

New Zealand Tertiary Education Strategies

The Government of New Zealand’s holistic vision for Māori learners across the education system is to enable Māori to enjoy and achieve education success as Māori. This vision is articulated in several strategies in relation to Māori learners, including the Tertiary Education Strategy 2014 – 2019, Ka Hikitia: Accelerating
**Success 2013 – 2017** (Accelerating Success), and the *Māori Strategic Plan for the NZQA 2012 – 2017* (NZQA Māori Strategic Plan).

**Tertiary Education Strategy 2014 – 2019**

The *Tertiary Education Strategy 2014 – 2019* identifies the priorities and direction for New Zealand's tertiary education system. The strategy identifies six strategic priorities, with the third priority identified as “boosting achievement of Māori and Pasifika” (New Zealand Ministry of Education and Ministry of Business, Innovation, and Employment, 2014, p. 12). In addition, the strategy identifies that Māori learners must be allowed to obtain success in tertiary education as Māori (New Zealand Ministry of Education and Ministry of Business, Innovation, and Employment, 2014, p. 7). The *Tertiary Education Strategy 2014 – 2019* is meant to work alongside the Ministry of Education’s Accelerating Success strategy (which includes tertiary education as a focus area) and the *Māori Economic Development Strategy and Action Plan*. See Appendix D for further information about the strategy’s outcomes in relation to Māori learners.

**Ka Hikitia: Accelerating Success, 2013 – 2017**

Accelerating Success is part of a phased approach that includes three strategies that span from 2008 to 2022. Each of the three strategies has a different focus: *Ka Hikitia: Managing for Success/Māori Education Strategy 2008 – 2012* (Managing for Success) focused on direction setting and building momentum, Accelerating Success focuses on action by all key stakeholders, and the proposed strategy for 2018 – 2022 will focus on realizing Māori potential (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 8).

Managing for Success adopted the Māori Potential Approach and Ako as significant concepts. Within the context of education, the Māori Potential Approach focuses on successes of Māori learners, rather than focusing on deficits or disparities (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2009, p. 19). The principles of the Māori Potential Approach are recognizing the great potential of all Māori learners, the cultural advantage learners have by virtue of being Māori, and the inherent capability of all Māori learners attaining success. Ako is a concept that reflects the reciprocal relationship between learner and educator and the use of research by educators to implement effective teaching practices. Ako also encompasses Māori language, identity and culture, as well as partnerships between Māori and educators (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2009, p. 20).

The Accelerating Success strategy focuses on developing an education system that is responsive to Māori learners and in which education stakeholders take action to fulfill the strategy’s vision, goals, and outcomes. In implementing the Accelerating Success strategy, the New Zealand Ministry of Education is guided by five principles: the Treaty of Waitangi; the Māori Potential Approach; Ako; acknowledging and understanding the importance of Māori language, culture, and identity; and the importance of productive partnerships, which are defined as “a two-way
relationship leading to and generating shared action, outcomes, and solutions” (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 18). Accelerating Success also lists two critical factors that will have the greatest impact on Māori learners’ education success:

- “Quality provision, leadership, teaching and learning supported by effective governance”; and
- “Strong engagement and contribution from parents, families and whānau, hapū, iwi, Māori organizations, communities and businesses” (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 11).

The Accelerating Success strategy has five focus areas: Māori language in education, early learning, primary and secondary school, tertiary education, and organizational success. The Accelerating Success strategy also identifies supporting successful transitions between the focus areas as a focal point and stresses collaboration between the parents of Māori learners, Māori organizations, whānau, iwi, and educators.

Māori language in education, the first focus area, is significant throughout all levels of education. There is also a separate language strategy entitled Tau Mai Te Reo – The Māori Language in Education Strategy 2013 – 2017, which was reviewed, but appears to primarily target early learning, primary education, and secondary education. Consequently, this strategy is not extensively discussed.

a) Accelerating Success Focus Area: Tertiary Education

The outcome identified for tertiary education is that Māori learners succeed at higher qualification levels of tertiary education (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 43). The strategy links higher achievement levels with better employment opportunities and enhancing economic and social outcomes for Māori individuals.

The Accelerating Success strategy identifies four goals for tertiary education: (a) Māori learners partake in and achieve success at all levels of tertiary education the same as non-Māori learners; (b) Māori learners obtain the necessary skills and knowledge to participate in all levels of the labor force; (c) enhance research and development of mātauranga Māori (which generally refers to Māori traditional knowledge and Māori worldview); and (d) enhance Māori learners participating and completing Māori language courses in part to raise the quality of Māori language teaching and delivery (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 46).

The strategy identifies both short-term and long-term actions to be undertaken by the Ministry of Education and agencies in the education, business, innovation and employment sectors to achieve these goals. Short-term actions include:

- Increasing training in trades for Māori learners;
- Continuing to consider the performance of tertiary providers in relation to outcomes for Māori learners to ensure accountability as a component for funding;
• Enhancing career and tertiary education information available to learners, whānau, communities, and iwi; and
• Reviewing the support for research based on mātauranga Māori (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 46).

Longer-term actions include:
• Linking tertiary education with Māori economic programs;
• Expanding studies available on teaching and learning strategies for Māori learners;
• Ensuring that the NZQA assessment of tertiary organizations is more transparent regarding Māori learner success;
• Making available quality Māori language pathways through tertiary education; and
• Enhancing the incorporation of mātauranga Māori in tertiary programs (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 47).

In implementing the Accelerating Success strategy’s two critical factors for tertiary education, providers are expected to expand and share research on effective education techniques for Māori learners, among several other initiatives. For example, to address the first critical factor, tertiary providers will be expected to:
• Enhance accountability and monitoring for increasing educational and workforce success outcomes for Māori learners;
• Provide information and connect with the parents of Māori learners and whānau to enhance transitions to tertiary education;
• Implement initiatives to support learners that may have lower qualifications, particularly adult learners;
• Facilitate the development and provision of culturally appropriate education strategies;
• Incorporate and explore models for Māori pastoral care, including working with whānau, hapū, and iwi; and
• Develop stronger connections with whānau, hapū, and iwi to enhance relationships with Māori communities and support Māori learner success (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 48).

To address the second critical factor the education sector must enhance expectations of Māori learners and enable whānau, iwi, Māori organizations and Māori communities to be included in and to expect that tertiary providers will take into account their needs to enhance educational and workforce outcomes for Māori learners (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 48). The strategy suggests that parents of Māori learners, whānau, iwi, and communities should:
• Have high expectations of Māori learners to undertake tertiary education;
• Enhance their awareness of the advantages of tertiary education, along with the challenges in undertaking tertiary education programs and support available;
b) Accelerating Success Focus Area: Māori Language in Education

The focus on Māori language in education may also impact Māori learners pursuing tertiary education. The outcome is that Māori learners can access “high quality Māori language in education” (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 27). The focus is on enhancing opportunities for Māori language in education, strengthening Māori language, and revitalizing and protecting Māori language (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, pp. 28-29). The strategy discusses initiatives in education alongside the importance of Māori language being learned in Māori homes and within Māori social structures (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 30). The Accelerating Success strategy also refers to Tau Mai Te Reo – The Māori Language in Education Strategy 2013 – 2017.

c) Accelerating Success Focus Area: Organizational Success

The organizational success focus area may also be relevant to Māori learners in tertiary education. The outcome for this focus area is that government and education sector agencies develop the environment for Māori learners to enjoy and experience education success as Māori (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 49). The Accelerating Success strategy notes the importance of collaboration and synchronization of relevant government agencies, business, and employment agencies to implement initiatives. Collaboration with Māori learners and Māori stakeholders is also required.

The goals of this focus area are that the New Zealand Ministry of Education will offer leadership to government organizations and education stakeholders that support Māori learner success; that evidence-based, effective education for Māori learners and the Accelerating Success strategy are entrenched in government agencies’ planning and accountability procedures; and that the New Zealand Ministry of Education and education organizations enhance their capacity and capability to enhance the education system’s effectiveness for Māori learners (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 51). The key actions for attaining these goals include implementing several strategies that focus on Māori learners in education; creating shared implementation plans; building capacity in government and education organizations; and enhancing monitoring, assessment, and progress (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 52).

d) Accelerating Success: Actions and Outcomes
To implement the Accelerating Success strategy, the government proposes to emphasize collaboration and specifically notes the importance of prioritizing resources to promote Māori learner and whānau voices in education, develop and sustain momentum and action, and create additional measures and progress indicators (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 56).

The specific outcomes for tertiary education identified at the end of the Accelerating Success strategy are:

- Increasing the proportion of Māori who obtain a qualification of Level 4 or higher (see p. 50 in this report);
- Improvement in employment outcomes for Māori individuals;
- An increase in the number of individuals who participate in and complete Māori language qualifications; and
- An increase in the number of individuals who complete immersion or bilingual initial teacher education (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 58).

e) Measurable Gains Framework

The Measurable Gains Framework is referred to in the Accelerating Success strategy, but is discussed further on the New Zealand Ministry of Education’s website in relation to the Managing Success strategy. The Measurable Gains Framework provides evaluation tools for measuring progress on the New Zealand Ministry of Education’s strategies for Māori learners, including a logic model and evaluative rubrics created for Ministry roles and education sector areas (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013b). The logic model identifies three components: (a) identity, language and culture; (b) culturally relevant, responsive and affirming activities and initiatives; and (c) Māori learners connected, engaged, and achieving (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2013b). The Treaty of Waitangi is identified at the top of the logic model. It is unclear if the Measurable Gains Framework applies to tertiary education.

The Māori Strategic Plan for the NZQA 2012 – 2017

The NZQA Māori Strategic Plan supports the New Zealand government’s overall vision of Māori achieving and enjoying education success as Māori. It also builds on the goals and pathways of the NZQA’s previous strategic plan, Te Rautaki Māori 2007 – 2012.

The NZQA Māori Strategic Plan’s two goals are: accelerated Māori learner success and advanced use of mātauranga Māori (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 4). Four implementation workstreams are discussed to aid the NZQA in achieving their goals: Mahi Ngatahi (Collaboration), Ara Tohu (Pathways), Tohu Kairangi (Quality Assurance) and Whakapakar (Organizational Culture and
Capability) (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 8). Each pathway has an outcome and key deliverables.

The outcome for the collaboration workstream is to change the education system by means of leadership and collaboration (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 9). This workstream takes a sector-wide approach and focuses on NZQA collaboration with other government agencies to make sure its initiatives are aligned and consistent with those of other government agencies, as well as engaging with Māori. In addition, the workstream focuses on providing quality education information to education providers to aid in enhancing Māori learners’ education achievement and to Māori learners, whānau, hapū, and iwi (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 9).

The pathways workstream outcome is to create “qualification pathways in a Māori context” (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 11). The workstream aims to create and promote NZQF qualification pathways that are relevant to both Māori and the country’s economy (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 11). The NZQA pledges to continue working to provide culturally relevant education pathways that lead to higher levels of education. In addition, the NZQA will continue to endorse and support Field Māori principles and qualifications, which are quality-assured standards that reflect Māori knowledge, pedagogy and skills (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 11). The NZQA will also work with iwi and other stakeholders to create pathways resulting in greater opportunities for learners and provide support to ensure qualification pathways are understood by Māori learners and whānau.

The quality assurance workstream has two areas of focus: to highlight the significance of Māori learner achievement with tertiary education organizations that are not universities and to make sure qualifications and programs that integrate mātauranga Māori are considered to be valid and robust and are viewed by Māori communities as exceptional (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 12). The NZQA developed the Mātauranga Māori Evaluative Quality Assurance (MM EQA) with iwi and education professionals (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 12). The MM EQA is supported by a kaupapa Māori framework, Te Hono o te Kahurangi, which provides guidelines for determining the quality of mātauranga Māori qualifications, programs, and organizations (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 13). The Mātauranga Māori Quality Assurance Mark was also developed and signifies “that a programme of study is highly likely to meet the needs and aspirations of Māori learners” (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 13). Deliverables for quality assurance include increasing work with the education sector to aid tertiary providers in enhancing achievement of Māori learners and evaluating tertiary organizations’ performance with respect to achievements of Māori learners, entrenching the MM EQA approach in the NZQA’s roles and responsibilities, and awarding the Mātauranga Māori Quality Assurance Mark where appropriate (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 12).
Organizational culture and capability is the fourth workstream. This workstream focuses on building the capacity for NZQA staff to work with Māori and entrenching comprehension of Māori worldviews (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 14). The NZQA has developed several tools to enhance the capability of staff to work effectively with Māori, including Nga Matapono (which outlines the organization’s values), a Māori Relationships Toolkit, professional development initiatives, and the Engaging with Māori competency (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 14). Competencies include Te Kakano (New Potential/beginnings), Tipuranga (Grow/Nurture), Manaakitanga (Empower/Encourage), and Puawaitang (Realization/Self Actualization). Deliverables include enhancing professional development, supporting staff to share their knowledge to attain the strategy’s goals, enhancing fluency of Te Reo Māori throughout the organization, and enhancing the capacity of staff with respect to the Engaging with Māori competency (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2012, p. 14).

Indigenous-controlled PSE Providers

In New Zealand, there are three wānanga: Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiarangi, Te Wānanga o Aotearoa, and Te Wānanga o Raukawa. Wānanga provide culturally appropriate education to learners through Māori ways of teaching and learning. Wānanga may provide a variety of education programs, from certificates to Doctoral degrees. Wānanga may have several campuses and provide programs throughout New Zealand.

Wānanga are considered Tertiary Education Institutions (TEIs) under the Education Act 1989 and are subject to a variety of requirements, such as annual financial reporting and governance requirements. As TEIs, wānanga are Crown entities and receive funding from the New Zealand government primarily through the Student Achievement Fund and the Performance-based Research Fund (Tertiary Education Commission, 2014b, p. 14). TEIs are required to provide an investment plan to set out the objectives they will undertake with government funding and how the institution will contribute to the goals set out in the Tertiary Education Strategy (Tertiary Education Commission, 2014b, p. 15).

Silta Associates (2010) cite the New Zealand government’s approach to funding wānanga and their ability to grant a variety of qualifications as a notable practice (p. 64). However, wānanga are not without challenges. For example, Te Wānanga o Raukawa notes that government regulations and policies based on western tradition may make it difficult for wānanga to maintain their purpose of focusing on Indigenous learners and providing education that is consistent with Māori worldviews (Te Puni Kokiri, 2011).

Interview Findings
The interviewee provided answers within the context of the NZQA’s roles and responsibilities. The NZQA’s two goals in relation to Māori learners are accelerated Māori learner success and advanced use of mātauranga Māori (which encompasses both traditional and contemporary Māori knowledge) across all areas of studies.

The interviewee identified that one of the NZQA’s most significant priorities in relation to Māori learners is ensuring that schools, learners, and parents have access to information that allows Māori learners to make decisions that will enable them to access tertiary education programs. In addition to information provision, the NZQA works to ensure tertiary education providers are providing adequate pastoral care, which is a legislative requirement and may vary between providers depending on their programs of study and student body. Pastoral care encompasses support services for learners that may include access to cultural or religious advisors, career counselors, or cultural networks or groups to provide learners with a sense of belonging. Further, the NZQA provides advice to tertiary education providers with respect to interpreting the Education Act 1989 and how the act relates to Māori learners.

The respondent also discussed the Mātauranga Māori Evaluative Quality Assurance (MMEQA), which was developed by NZQA in 2012. The MMEQA is a quality assurance standard for programs provided by tertiary education providers that give effect to mātauranga Māori. A tertiary education provider may opt in to the MMEQA pathway to have a program of study approved by the NZQA. It is compulsory for programs that are marked MMEQA to be evaluated by the NZQA as part of the NZQA’s review process for tertiary education providers.

To ensure accessibility, the interviewee identified the NZQA’s roles and responsibilities in relation to providing information to Māori learners and whānau. In addition, the NZQA ensures that tertiary education providers clearly define all program indicators and that information is provided that clearly states what learners will gain from programs and the industries within which learners may find opportunities.

The NZQA runs national workshop programs with other education sector agencies to support transitions of Māori learners into tertiary education and to enhance the awareness of Māori learners and whānau of the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (or NCEA – the qualification for secondary school graduation) and potential pathways to tertiary education. One of these programs is the “NCEA and Whānau” workshops. The “NCEA and Whānau” workshops provide parents and caregivers of Māori learners with information about the NCEA program and its components to facilitate parent conversations about their child’s education with both their child and their child’s teachers and other school staff. The NZQA provides a toolkit of information and resources and also trains people to run the workshops.

The NZQA is also currently piloting a workshop program that focuses on whānau education action planning. The interviewee identified that the NZQA is partnering
with iwi to implement the program. The workshops focus on mapping pathways and are currently focused on the NCEA, with the future goal being to offer education planning from early childhood education to tertiary education. The intended outcome is to train volunteer members of the local iwi workforce to develop education action plans within their professional contexts. For example, a nurse who works with young women who are mothers may talk about education planning or a social worker who is providing services to a family may develop an education plan as part of the social worker’s services.

The interviewee pointed to the workshop programs (for example, the “NCEA and Whānau” workshop) as successful initiatives that have been implemented by the NZQA. The respondent identified several ways that success may be measured. For example, success is typically measured by whether or not the NZQA met the initiatives as set out in its Statement of Intent. However, the interviewee also noted that success can be measured by collaboration between education institutes (which benefits families and communities) and by how well education sector agencies work together, which creates a seamless point of access for the public. The interviewee stated that milestones for projects are monitored and tracked monthly to ensure early identification of any potential risks or problems to help ensure project success. The government has also developed and adopted a new framework for measuring Māori effectiveness that was informed by an in-depth study (see Appendix C).

When asked about the NZQA’s success in relation to Māori learners, the interviewee suggested that the entity has been successful because the NZQA works with students, communities, and other organizations to collaborate and provide opportunities to contribute to solutions. Further, in addition to the NZQA’s governance board that is appointed by the Minister, a board of Māori individuals that are representative of iwi groups has also been established that provides strategic advice to the NZQA about initiatives in relation to Māori learners and the Mātauranga Māori quality assurance framework.

The BC Ministry of Advanced Education was also interested in learning more about responsibilities of tertiary education providers in comparison to government responsibilities. The interviewee stated that having requirements for tertiary education providers built into legislation and the education sector’s role in ensuring compliance builds capacity across the education system and ensures a cohesive system for learners. Tertiary education providers do have flexibility to respond to local needs of communities in complying with the legislation.

The interviewee was also asked to discuss Māori providers that offer education based on Māori models of operation (for example, within Māori environments). The government has a regulatory relationship with Māori providers and NZQA staff work to ensure consultation with Māori providers takes place and also to ensure these providers are informed of policy changes. Māori providers must register with the NZQA and must meet certain requirements (for example, the provider must be a
legal entity and have a business plan); however, there is flexibility with respect to how Māori providers are structured.

5.3 Australia

The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples are the Indigenous peoples of Australia. According to the 2011 census, Australia had a population of approximately 21.5 million people (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013). The population of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples is 548,368 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013). Just over one quarter of the population in the Northern Territory identified as being Indigenous individuals, while in all other regions individuals of Indigenous descent numbered 4% or less (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012). In addition, approximately one-third of Indigenous Australians lived in capital cities (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012). There are approximately 145 Indigenous languages spoken in Australia; however, less than 20 languages are regarded as “strong languages” in the sense that they are spoken by large numbers of people (Obata & Lee, 2010).

Historical Context

Prior to the arrival of Europeans, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples inhabited the land and islands that now make up Australia. European colonization of Australia began in the late eighteenth century with the arrival of explorers from Britain and subsequent British settlers. Colonization had a significant impact on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and cultures as disease destroyed Indigenous populations. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders faced displacement from land areas that became inhabited by European settlers as non-Indigenous settlement grew (Government of Australia, 2009).

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples faced restricted civil rights and traditional cultures were often viewed as unequal and primitive in comparison to non-Indigenous culture. By the early twentieth century, protectionist legislation was passed in several states and territories in relation to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, which resulted in further strict and discriminatory rules for Indigenous peoples and governments created reservations and stations on which Aboriginal peoples were expected to live (Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission, 1997). Many Aboriginal children were separated from their families to lessen the influence of Indigenous cultures (Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission, 1997) and where Aboriginal children did receive education, it was mostly in segregated schools. Children who were of mixed Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal ancestry were removed from their homes and often placed in institutions or sent to live with non-Indigenous foster families to assimilate into European culture and receive a European upbringing (National Sorry Day Committee Inc.,
Indigenous children who were removed from their families are referred to as the “Stolen Generations”.

Beginning in the later twentieth century, there was greater recognition of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures. The Australian Government gave an official apology to individuals of the Stolen Generations in 2008. The reconciliation movement, which refers to creating improved relationships between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians (Reconciliation Australia, n.d.), has also brought greater attention to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures and perspectives in the country.

**Australia’s PSE System**

Australia’s PSE system consists of the higher education (universities) and the Vocational Education Training (VET) systems. Responsibility for setting policy and direction appears to be the purview of both the national and state/territory governments; the national government provides funding for PSE in relation to Indigenous learners and state and territory governments can also provide additional funding (Silta Associates, 2010).

**National Initiatives in Relation to Indigenous Learners**

In 2007, the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) initiated the National Indigenous Reform Agreement (NIRA) the goal of which is to “close the gap” or lessen disadvantages often faced by Indigenous Australians in relation to health, social, education, and economic outcomes in comparison to non-Indigenous Australians. The COAG consists of the Prime Minister, Premier and Chief Ministers from the State and Territory governments as applicable, and the president of the Australian Local Government Association. The NIRA was signed by six states and two territories (the Northern Territory and Australian Capital Territory). The states and territories that signed the NIRA are the jurisdictions that were reviewed in this section.

Part of the NIRA is the National Integrated Strategy for Closing the Gap in Indigenous Disadvantage that has seven building blocks: early childhood, schooling, health, healthy homes, safe communities, economic participation, and governance and leadership (Council of Australian Governments, 2008). The education outcomes are mostly in relation to early childhood education and primary and secondary education outcomes (for example, enhancing the number of Indigenous learners who complete Year 12, which is the equivalent to completing up to Grade 12 in BC).

**Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Action Plan, 2010 – 2014**

The *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Action Plan, 2010 – 2014* (Education Action Plan) is a national plan that is part of the broader COAG initiatives for education (Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development and
Youth Affairs, n.d.). It sets out an integrated approach to close the gap between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners and non-Indigenous learners. The Education Action Plan primarily focuses on primary and secondary school and makes a specific recommendation to the Ministerial Council on Tertiary Education and Employment (now the Standing Council on Tertiary Education, Skills, and Employment) to develop a plan that includes strategies to “close the gap” in outcomes related to training, university, and employment (Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development, and Youth Affairs, n.d.).

The Education Action Plan does include two priorities that may be considered related to PSE and are related to the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan: the focus on teacher training in relation to Indigenous learners and enhancing the number of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander educators and staff (part of the “leadership, quality teaching and workforce development” priority) and transitions to further education and employment opportunities (part of the “pathways to real post-school options” priority). Within the priority related to teacher training, some of the initiatives focus on pre-service teacher education programs and the teacher registration framework to make ensure “good practice” in relation to teaching Indigenous learners is included. In addition, it is recommended that a National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Educator Workforce Strategy be implemented to ensure greater numbers of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander individuals work in the education system (Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development, and Youth Affairs, n.d.). The priority that focuses on transitions includes a commitment to obtain guidance from the VET and higher education sectors to ensure successful transitions to university and further programs and also studying how technology may enhance access for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners to education and training (Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development, and Youth Affairs, n.d.). Within secondary schools, objectives focus on enhancing career and employment services to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners (Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development, and Youth Affairs, n.d.). Progress on the Education Action Plan is reported annually (see Appendix E for selected initiatives identified in the 2012 Annual Report of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Action Plan).

Other Australian Government Initiatives

While there is no specific PSE strategy for Indigenous learners in tertiary education, there are several initiatives listed on various national government websites. It appears as though the Australian government is re-structuring some responsibilities, as initiatives were found on several different department websites, which means it is sometimes challenging to determine the most current initiatives. Examples of initiatives that have been undertaken by the Australian government include the Away from Base program, which provides funding for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners in VET and higher education programs that include components of online delivery and classroom delivery on campuses (or “mixed-mode” programs) (Department of Industry, n.d.a). In addition, Indigenous Higher
Education Centres have been established in universities and have several purposes, such as providing support to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners, creating a network for learners, and ensuring that Indigenous cultures have a presence on campuses (Department of Industry, n.d.b).

**State and Territory Government Initiatives**

Only those states that have a broader and more substantive focus on PSE, including both VET and higher education, or that have more PSE substantive initiatives are discussed in this report. For example, New South Wales also has a Tertiary Education Plan; however, Aboriginal learners are primarily identified within the general context of learners from low socioeconomic backgrounds. As such, this report will focus on specific priorities identified in Queensland’s strategy, *Solid Partners Solid Futures: A partnership approach for excellence in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander early childhood, education, training and employment from 2013 to 2016* (Solid Partners Solid Futures).

**Queensland**

The Solid Partners Solid Futures strategy sets out the education priorities and approach for the Queensland government in relation to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners. The purpose of the plan is to provide learners with the support needed to ensure individuals may benefit from and obtain success in relation to education from early childhood to entering the labour force (Queensland Government, n.d.). Solid Partners Solid Futures calls for a partnership approach between education providers and stakeholders to enhance education and employment outcomes for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners (Queensland Government, n.d.).

The following two outcomes (out of the four outcomes identified in the strategy) are relevant to this report:

- Indigenous learners undergo successful transitions from school to training, additional education programs or into the labour force. Several initiatives under this priority focus on connecting employers with learners. In addition, this priority identifies the importance of maintaining the Year 12 Destinations program, increasing support for learners to one year after Year 12, maintaining transition programs to enhance the enrolment of Indigenous learners in tertiary education, and connecting learners and schools to scholarships (Queensland Government, n.d.). Through the Year 12 Destinations program, Indigenous learners are provided with an individual pathways plan and support to assist in successful transitions from school to further education or employment. At a higher level, components of the program also aim to enhance partnerships between schools, education providers, and other stakeholders (Queensland Government, n.d.).
• Young Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander individuals can successfully transition from training or other education into the labour force. Initiatives identified under this priority focus on employing training strategies for communities that connect to employment and business development prospects; enhancing the completion of VET credentials; and expanding the Queensland Indigenous Business Gateway project, which focuses on linking Indigenous business owners to industry supply chains (Queensland Government, n.d.).

**Indigenous-controlled PSE Providers**

In Australia, Indigenous education providers often serve particular communities and mostly provide vocational training and adult education, with the Batchelor Institute of Indigenous Tertiary Education (Batchelor Institute) having authority to confer degrees (Silta Associates, 2010). The Batchelor Institute, located in the Northern Territory, is one example of a larger Indigenous-controlled institute that receives public funding. It is briefly discussed due to the BC Ministry of Advanced Education’s interest in how funding is provided to Aboriginal-controlled institutes.

*Batchelor Institute of Indigenous Tertiary Education*

The Batchelor Institute focuses on providing PSE to Indigenous learners. The institute is located in the Northern Territory – it has a main campus in Batchelor, a second campus in Alice Springs, and annexes, study centres, and community-based learning centres located throughout the rest of the area. The Batchelor Institute receives funding from both the Australian Government and the Northern Territory government, among other sources. The institute provides preparatory courses, VET and diploma courses, and higher education degrees (Batchelor Institute of Indigenous Education, 2012). The Batchelor Institute has also partnered with Charles Darwin University to create the Australian Centre for Indigenous Knowledges and Education to deliver higher education and postgraduate education opportunities (Batchelor Institute of Indigenous Education, n.d., p. 11).

The institute employs a “both-ways philosophy”, which the institute defines as “a philosophy of education that brings together Indigenous Australian traditions of knowledge and Western academic disciplinary positions and cultural contexts, and embraces the values of respect, tolerance and diversity” (Batchelor Institute of Indigenous Education, 2013, p. 6).

In part, learners are required to consider the application of their knowledge in culturally sensitive and respectful ways in both Indigenous and non-Indigenous bodies and communities (Batchelor Institute of Indigenous Education, 2013).

The Batchelor Institute’s powers, governance and reporting structure is set out in the *Batchelor Institute of Indigenous Tertiary Education Act* (2012). For example, the Batchelor Institute Council is primarily responsible for governing the institute. It includes members that represent different knowledge backgrounds and groups of
people. In addition, there is an Institute Advisory Board that is made up of individuals of Indigenous descent. Its members also represent different regions of the Northern Territory and various Indigenous community interests as well as have knowledge of issues that impact Indigenous peoples (Batchelor Institute of Indigenous Education, 2014). The institute is required to provide an annual report, along with an external financial audit, which are laid before the legislative assembly of the Northern Territory Government.

**Interview Findings**

The interviewee responded to questions in relation to the following two priorities of the Education Action Plan: “leadership, quality teaching and workforce development” and the “pathways to real post-school options” of the national Education Action Plan. The interviewee noted that issues surrounding Indigenous education have been re-organized and key decisions currently come from the Prime Minister and Cabinet. Funding arrangements have also been re-configured and the application for funding is through the Indigenous Advancement Strategy (see Appendix C).

The interviewee identified that increasing the number of Aboriginal educators and staff is a strong national priority in addition to being a priority of each jurisdiction. Actions taken include the development of clear workforce planning for Indigenous staff in schools and staff in education bureaucracies and briefly discussed the national More Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Teachers Initiative (see Appendix C). The interviewee noted that jurisdictions have targets for numbers of Indigenous staff and identified that the Northern Territory’s goal for Indigenous staff in the education workforce is 16%, with the current figure being 13%.

To address retention of Aboriginal educators in the Northern Territory, the respondent identified the Centre for School Leadership at Darwin University, which runs several courses for Indigenous staff that focus on leadership as well as teaching and learning. The interviewee also discussed a program that focuses on Indigenous individuals who are teacher assistants, with the goal being to support these individuals in obtaining bachelors degrees. Under the program, academic mentors from Charles Darwin University who have backgrounds in education are connected with Indigenous teacher assistants in remote communities to provide on-site mentoring and coaching, rather than individuals having to move to a main city center. The interviewee noted that the initiative is proving to be successful and helps to ensure education is sustainable in remote areas that may experience high staff turnover. In addition, pre-service education programs in which learners can undertake internships at Indigenous schools to obtain credits towards their degree was identified as an example of an initiative that helps to ensure teachers can meet the needs of Indigenous learners.

The interviewee was also asked about initiatives being undertaken in relation to Indigenous languages. One of the challenges of teaching Indigenous languages is the
difficulty a community may have determining what language should be taught, as
the interviewee identified that there are over 260 Indigenous languages spoken. The
respondent discussed bi-lingual education, which is typically in schools in which
90% or more of the student population is Indigenous (known informally as
Aboriginal schools). Indigenous learners are taught in their language up to eight
years old and then oral instruction takes place in English. The interviewee identified
that there is a general movement throughout Australia to promote speaking and
teaching Indigenous languages in schools. The respondent identified that the focus
may be on language renewal teachers (bringing traditional Indigenous languages
into communities through school) or language maintenance teachers in different
regions. Teaching Indigenous languages must be negotiated with local Indigenous
communities.

The interviewee identified several initiatives when asked what actions are being
undertaken to support learners in transitions from secondary school to PSE as part
of the “pathways to real post-school options” priority. One of the initiatives
discussed, which was identified as having successful outcomes, was the Clontarf
program (see Appendix C). The interviewee noted the program’s focus on
attendance and retention of Indigenous young men in school and its use of sport to
achieve its objectives. After completion of secondary school, Clontarf program staff
mentor the young men in transitioning to employment or finding pathways into
training or higher education. The Clontarf Foundation receives funding from the
national government, state and territory governments, and philanthropic funding.

The respondent also discussed the Higher Education Participation and Pathways
program (see Appendix C). Universities throughout Australia receive funding to run
programs in secondary schools to provide support and mentoring to targeted
learners. Higher Education Participation and Pathways programs aid learners in
moving along pathways to higher education. While the program is geared towards
all learners, some programs focus on Indigenous learners.

In addition, the interviewee discussed the Foundation for Young Australians, which
runs a series of Indigenous leadership programs for young people in secondary
schools and is focused on career opportunities (see Appendix C). The foundation
receives government and philanthropic funding.

Boarding school education initiatives for Indigenous learners were also identified.
For example, the Cape York Institute, which focuses on pathways to employment
and higher education, was discussed (see Appendix C). The government has
provided the institute with control over a number of Aboriginal schools. In relation
to secondary school, the institute provides opportunities for Indigenous secondary
school learners to attend private boarding schools outside of their communities. The
boarding schools employ an individual from the local community to act as a mentor
and support for program participants. A key part of the programs is also parent
engagement. The program has experienced successful outcomes and other
jurisdictions are looking to replicate the model. The Australian Indigenous
Education Foundation is another example of boarding school initiatives that receive government funding (in addition to philanthropic funding) (see Appendix C).

The interviewee identified that national reporting is required for learners for three years after leaving secondary school. The interviewee also identified that success is measured typically by Year 12 completion and employment outcomes, both of which are required to be reported nationally. Universities and higher education providers are also responsible for reporting on the number of Indigenous learners that attend their institutions. It was noted that school staff often provide informal support and mentoring to students after completion of secondary school.

The interviewee identified the Clontarf program and the Foundation for Young Australians as initiatives that have been successful and pointed to the coordinated approaches across society as potential factors in success. Responsibility for these initiatives exists across all organizations – the national government, local government, and philanthropic involvement – rather than the education sector alone.

The national Education Action Plan is being updated and the interviewee noted that it would most likely look different than the current plan due to the large number of actions that proved significantly challenging to take on.

5.4 United States: Funding Tribal Colleges and Universities

American Indian and Alaska Native peoples are made up of numerous Indigenous cultures and languages. In 2010, the population of American Indian and Alaska Native peoples in the United States was approximately 5.2 million, about 1.7% of the country’s population (United States Census Bureau, 2012).

There are three types of PSE providers that predominantly serve American Indian and Alaska Native peoples in the United States: tribal colleges and universities (TCUs); two PSE providers run by the Bureau of Indian Education; two tribally controlled vocational institutions; and the Institute of American Indian Arts, which is a federally chartered institution (Grob, n.d., p. 12).

TCUs are located either on or close by to reservations and offer a variety of programs, including programs that lead to certificates, diplomas, degrees, apprenticeships and Master’s degrees. TCUs are accredited through national boards. Approximately 30,000 American Indian and Alaska Native learners attend TCUs throughout the country, in addition to non-Indigenous learners (American Indian College Fund, n.d.).

This section discusses how funding is provided to TCUs by the United States government.

**Overview of TCUs**
TCUs seek to provide an education that straddles both western perspectives and American Indian and Alaska Native cultures and perspectives and provide services to help enhance access and retention of American Indian and Alaska Native learners, such as day care, health services, and Indigenous language programs (American Indian College Fund, n.d.). In addition, TCUs provide PSE to American Indian and Alaska Native learners who may live in geographically isolated areas and reservations and, therefore, may not have access to mainstream providers. TCUs also provide services to American Indian and Alaska Native communities, such as providing adult education courses, libraries, and access to computers for community members (American Indian Higher Education Consortium, 1999, p. B-2). TCUs are typically chartered by tribes and controlled by a board consisting of American Indian and Alaska Native individuals. TCUs encompass the notions of self-determination and American Indian and Alaska Native control over education (American Indian Higher Education Consortium, 2007).

**Historical Context of TCUs**

The movement to provide PSE for American Indian and Alaska Native peoples began in the 1960s during a time that saw increased social activism, including American Indian and Alaska Native activism and ideas about American Indian and Alaska Native self-determination (Ridingin, Longwell-Grice, and Thunder, 2008). It grew out of a disillusionment and dissatisfaction with an education system for American Indian and Alaska Native peoples in the United States that was centered on non-Indigenous knowledge and ways of being and promoted assimilation of American Indian and Alaska Native peoples (American Indian Higher Education Consortium, 1999, p. A-2; Ridingin, Longwell-Grice, and Thunder, December 2008). Attempts to establish Indigenous-focused PSE providers were led by leaders that noted the significance of PSE and the potential benefits PSE could have for American Indian and Alaska Native cultures, reservations, and communities (Boyer as cited in American Indian Higher Education Consortium, 1999, p. A-2).

The Navajo Nation established the first TCU (now known as Diné College) in 1968. Shortly thereafter, the American Indian Higher Education Consortium (AIHEC) was founded in 1972 by leaders of the first TCUs as a collaborative organization that helped to establish a vision for TCUs and supported TCUs to form a national movement (American Indian Higher Education Consortium, 2014a). The AIHEC now represents 37 TCUs (American Indian Higher Education Consortium, 2014b).

The **Tribally Controlled Colleges and Universities Assistance Act** (Tribal Colleges Act) was signed into law in 1978 and is the foundational legislation for recognizing and providing funding to TCUs. The Bureau of Indian Affairs oversees the administration of the act. Despite the act, TCUs continue to face challenges in securing enough funding to run programs and services for their learners while ensuring reasonable tuition costs (Statement to Committee of Appropriations, 2014).
In addition to legislation, three Executive Orders have been issued in relation to TCUs:

- An Executive Order (13021) was issued in October 1996. The order had several purposes, including enhancing access to resources from federal government, greater recognition for TCUs as PSE providers, ensuring access to education for learners from low socioeconomic backgrounds, encouraging and protecting American Indian and Alaska Native languages, and connecting TCUs with programs in other levels of education (Executive Order No. 13021, 1996).

- An Executive Order (13270) was issued in July 2002 and stated similar objectives as the previous order issued in 1996. The 2002 order reaffirmed the federal government’s support and recognition of TCUs. The order also stated the government’s policy to ensure TCUs received the same pledge for quality in education and opportunity as other PSE providers (Executive Order No. 13270, 2002).

- In December 2011, President Barack Obama issued an Executive Order (13592) that stated the government’s dedication to enhancing educational opportunities for learners who enrolled in TCUs as one of the its policy goals (Executive Order No. 13592, 2011). The order also states the government’s commitment to enhancing education opportunities and enhancing results for American Indian and Alaska Native learners to advance self-determination for American Indian and Alaska Native groups and points to the significance of learners being able to learn Indigenous languages (Executive Order No. 13592, 2011).

Each of the orders established an advisory board or other type of body to provide recommendations on specific topics related to TCUs or American Indian and Alaska Native education generally. Each order also required the participation of several government agencies and encouraged the participation of the private sector in providing funds to TCUs.

**TCU Funding**

The federal government is authorized to provide funding to TCUs through various pieces of legislation, such as the Tribal Colleges Act, the *Higher Education Act*, the *Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Improvement Act of 2006* (sometimes known as Perkins IV), and the *Equity in Educational Land Gant Status Act of 1994*.

Under the Tribal Colleges Act, the Bureau of Indian Education (BIE) provides funding for eligible TCUs, including operational funding, endowment funding, and funding for technical assistance. The Tribal Colleges Act provides for funding per Indigenous learner based on a formula that takes into account the total number of Indigenous learners attending the institution. The federal government provides $5,850 per student, which is less than amount authorized by government ($8,000) (Statement to Committee of Appropriations, 2014). Funding is not provided for non-Indigenous learners, which the AIHEC states as 20% of enrolment (Statement to
Committee of Appropriations, 2014). In the Fiscal Year 2015, the BIE has requested approx. $69.7 million in funds to 28 TCUs – approximately $69 million in operating grants to TCUs; approximately $109,000 in endowment grants; and approximately $601,000 for technical assistance (United States Department of the Interior, n.d., p. IA-BIE-23). In addition, funding is provided for PSE programs, which includes two PSE providers run directly by the BIE, and financial support for two tribal technical colleges, scholarships, and adult education (United States Department of the Interior, n.d., p. IA-BIE-21).

The federal government also provides funding to TCUs under the *Equity in Education Land Grant Status Act of 1994*. The act provides funding programs for TCUs that are listed as land-grant institutions, which are institutions that receive funding for agricultural programs. Being designated as a land-grant institution allows many TCUs to access further funding that may be used for a variety of purposes related to agricultural activities, such as tools to undertake research for agricultural purposes, faculty and curriculum development, research design, and extension programs. Funding has been available from the National Institute of Food and Agriculture (under the U.S. Department of Agriculture) under different programs, such as: the Tribal Colleges Equity Grants ($3.4 million for Fiscal Year 2014) (U.S. Department of Agriculture, n.d.a, p. 5), the Tribal College Research Grant Program ($ 1.7 million for Fiscal Year 2014) (U.S. Department of Agriculture, n.d.b, p. 7), and the Tribal Colleges Extension Program: Capacity ($3.4 for Fiscal Year 2014) (U.S. Department of Agriculture, n.d.c, p. 6).

TCUs also have access to funding through the *Higher Education Act*, which was re-authorized in 2008. The Strengthening American Indian and Tribally Controlled Colleges and Universities program was added in 2008 and provides for eligible TCUs to obtain grants that may be used for student services, to develop faculty, to develop programs of study, and to enhance facilities (Hegji, 2014, p. 6). The act also provides further funding opportunities for both TCUs and Native American-serving, nontribal institutions.

The *Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Improvement Act* (reauthorized in 2006) also provides funding to TCUs and to two tribally controlled post-secondary career and technical institutions. Eligible TCUs, along with other institutions, such as Indigenous tribes and tribal organizations, may receive funding to provide career and technical education programming.

**5.5 Summary**

This chapter recounted findings from government PSE strategies in relation to Indigenous learners and five interviews conducted with participants from Canadian provinces (Ontario, Alberta, and Manitoba), New Zealand, and Australia. The jurisdictions demonstrate how different governments address barriers faced by Indigenous learners with respect to participating in PSE.
Canada

In Canadian jurisdictions, transitions from K-12 to PSE and academic preparedness are important priorities in Ontario and Manitoba, respectively. Further initiatives aim to address financial barriers faced by Indigenous learners and providing opportunities for Indigenous learners to participate in PSE in remote communities. The interview findings indicate that Alberta does not currently have a specific strategy that targets Indigenous learner participation in PSE. The lack of robust data on Indigenous learners was identified as a challenge, in addition to tracking and measuring progress due to reliance on learner self-identification. Relationships with Aboriginal communities and implementing initiatives that result from consultation were identified as important to ensuring initiatives are successful.

Indigenous-controlled PSE providers as a distinct group are not part of the legislative framework in Canadian jurisdictions. Interview findings from Ontario identified that these institutes face challenges, such as lack of funding and the lack of authority to accredit programs.

New Zealand

The New Zealand government takes a coordinated approach to addressing education initiatives in relation to Māori learners. The New Zealand government has an over-arching goal for Māori learners, which is to enable Māori to enjoy and achieve education success as Māori. This goal is reflected in several strategies across the education sector, including the Ministry of Education’s Accelerating Success strategy, which spans from early learning to tertiary education.

Indigenous-controlled PSE providers called wānanga (of which there are three) are recognized as Tertiary Education Institutions in the legislative framework and receive government funding and are subject to various requirements.

The interview findings focused on how the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) carries out its responsibilities with respect to ensuring Māori learners have the information they need to make choices that will enable them to access PSE programs. For example, the NZQA runs national workshops to provide information to Māori learners and their caregivers about the secondary school graduation program and transitions to PSE. Aside from meeting goals outlined in the NZQA’s Statement of Intent, the interviewee noted that success may be measured by the collaboration between education institutes and by how well education sector agencies work together, which creates a seamless point of access for the public. To ensure initiatives are successful, interview findings pointed to the collaborative approach taken that involves working with students, communities, and other organizations to provide opportunities to discuss solutions.

Australia
Australia’s national focus is primarily in relation to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learner outcomes in primary and secondary schooling. However, key priorities that are related to PSE are increasing the number of Indigenous educators and individuals employed in the education sector and focusing on pathways to post-school options. Indigenous-controlled PSE providers primarily serve particular communities and primarily provide training and adult education. The Batchelor Institute is one example of a larger Indigenous-controlled PSE provider that is governed by statute and receives government funding.

The interview findings discussed government support that is provided to organizations that run programs for Indigenous learners that focus on retention and transitions into further education or employment opportunities. In addition, workforce planning is the primary action taken by governments in Australia for enhancing Indigenous educators and staff in the education sector. The interview findings identified that reporting is required for learners for three years after leaving secondary school. Interview findings pointed to the importance of coordination across different levels of government and the private sector to ensure initiatives are successful. A coordinated approach also demonstrates a shared sense of responsibility.

United States

Research in the United States was focused on federal government funding provided to tribal colleges and universities (TCUs). The federal government primarily provides funding to TCUs through various pieces of legislation, including the Tribally Controlled Colleges and Universities Assistance Act, which is the foundational legislation for recognizing and providing funding to TCUs, the Higher Education Act, and Equity in Educational Land Grant Status Act of 1994. Three Executive Orders under various presidents have also been issued that focus on enhancing educational opportunities for American Indian and Alaska Native learners. Although TCUs are recognized in the legislative framework and receive government funding, these providers still face challenges securing adequate funding to operate and run programs and services.
6. Discussion

The purpose of this report has been to identify initiatives that Canadian provincial and like-minded national and sub-national governments have undertaken to enhance access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE. The research has also reviewed how these jurisdictions support Indigenous-controlled PSE providers. To that end, a literature review was undertaken to identify barriers faced by Indigenous learners in participating in PSE and recommendations to address these barriers. A jurisdictional review was conducted, which included both a scan of government PSE strategies in relation to Indigenous learners and interviews with public servants in Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta, New Zealand, and Australia.

The following discussion considers the research findings in relation to the literature review and the BC context. The first part of the chapter sets out the BC context, followed by a brief discussion of initiatives within the theoretical framework provided in the literature review. The next section focuses on barriers and initiatives to address barriers as determined from both the literature review and the interview findings. The final section discusses considerations with respect to supporting Indigenous-controlled PSE providers with a focus on legislative versus non-legislative approaches.

6.1 BC Context

Barriers faced by Indigenous learners with respect to participating in PSE in BC include lack of financial resources, the legacy of the residential school system, the lack of academic preparedness, and differences that exist between Aboriginal cultures and the cultures of PSE providers. The Ministry implemented the most recent BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan in 2012 to enhance opportunities and outcomes for Aboriginal learners in PSE.

The BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan was developed after a review of the 2007 Aboriginal PSE strategy and consultation with Indigenous communities, learners, and PSE stakeholders. The strategy sets out the following five goals with objectives:

1. Systemic change signifies that the public PSE framework is relevant, responsive, respectful, and receptive to Indigenous learners and communities;
2. Delivering community-based programming is sustained through partnerships between public PSE providers and Indigenous-controlled institutes and communities;
3. Financial barriers to accessing and completing PSE (including training) are lessened for Indigenous students;
4. Aboriginal students transition smoothly from secondary education to PSE; and
5. Continual improvement is founded on research, data-tracking, and sharing leading practices (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 13).

In addition to the Ministry’s initiatives, other government agencies and organizations have taken actions that are consistent with actions taken by the jurisdictions reviewed in this report. For example, ReadNow BC is the province’s literacy action plan, which includes a focus on both adult learners and Aboriginal learners. Further, the Ministry of Education and other organizations (such as the BC School Trustees Association, First Nations Education Steering Committee, and the BC Principals and Vice-Principals Association) and public PSE providers have formed the Aboriginal Teacher Education Consortium to develop an Aboriginal Teacher Recruitment Strategy.

These initiatives, in addition to the Ministry’s BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan, reflect efforts taken by the provincial government and partners to enhance Aboriginal learner participation in PSE in B.C.

6.2. Theoretical Context

The actions taken by jurisdictions fall on a spectrum from providing services for students to enhancing Indigenous Knowledge (IK) in PSE providers and supporting Indigenous-controlled PSE providers. Recognizing the presence of other knowledge systems reflects contemporary theories, such as anti-colonial theory and tribal critical race theory that focus on the prominence of western, Eurocentric perspectives that are present in the social structures of institutions, such as PSE providers. Initiatives that are inclusive of and recognize Indigenous cultures and ways of knowing, being, and doing in education reflect IK and Kaupapa Māori theoretical approaches to Indigenous learner education (Minnabarriet, 2012; Pihama 2001; Smith, 2003).

Actions taken by Canadian jurisdictions may be considered within the context of education models set out by Wilson and Battiste (2011). Initiatives implemented by PSE providers in accordance with government strategies may fit into several different models simultaneously. The models are fluid as a PSE provider may offer some culturally appropriate programming, distance education, and have a gathering place for Indigenous learners, but may not undertake a system-wide approach that is inclusive of Aboriginal perspectives and content or actions to enhance understanding of Indigenous cultures by non-Indigenous staff and learners. Actions identified by jurisdictions and implemented by PSE providers primarily reflect the Dual Programming Model, in which some culturally relevant programs are offered along with supports for Indigenous learners in specific academic areas (Wilson and Battiste, 2011, p. 18). The Systemic Change Model appears to be gaining greater recognition, as jurisdictions are increasingly recognizing the importance of both acknowledging Indigenous learning paradigms and facilitating opportunities for Indigenous learners across the whole PSE provider (Wilson and Battiste, 2011, pp. 19-20).
6.3 Enhancing Access and Retention of Indigenous Learners in PSE

Financial Resources and Funding

Inadequate access to financial resources is a significant barrier to Indigenous learner participation in PSE (Assembly of First Nations 2012; Canada Millennium Scholarship Foundation, 2005; Centre for the Study of Higher Education, 2008; Larimore and McClellan, 2005; Reid, 2006). Indigenous learners, who are often older in age, female, and have a spouse or dependent, face unique costs such as daycare. Indigenous learners from remote communities also face costs associated with relocating to participate in PSE programs. Lack of financial resources is cited as a barrier to pursuing PSE by interviewees in Ontario and New Zealand and the most significant barrier for Indigenous learners in Manitoba.

Both the literature and Canadian jurisdiction interview data agree on the importance of addressing financial barriers. Interviewees from Canadian jurisdictions point to the availability of scholarships and bursaries for Indigenous learners. Ontario PSE providers obtain funding that they may distribute to Aboriginal learners in accordance with eligibility requirements set by the institution. In Manitoba, the interviewee discussed the Helen Betty Osbourne Aboriginal award, which has seen significant growth in the past several years and receives contributions from both the private and public sectors.

Funding provided to PSE providers to implement programs and services for Indigenous learners is also a consideration. Jurisdictions take varied approaches for providing funding to PSE providers. One of Ontario’s priorities is to provide direct funding to increase access, participation, and completion of PSE by Indigenous learners. Obtaining funding for Indigenous learner initiatives is voluntary for public PSE providers. This approach provides flexibility for PSE providers to determine the best use of the funds received within the requirements of the funding envelope. The respondent also identified the significance of offering multi-year funding, which can result in institutions feeling confident about hiring staff and implementing initiatives.

The approach taken by the New Zealand government differs in that the investment and funding decisions are based on the priorities set out in the Tertiary Education Strategy 2014 – 2019. One of the strategy’s six strategic priorities is enhancing the achievement of Māori and Pasifika learners (New Zealand Ministry of Education and Ministry of Business, Innovation, and Employment, 2014, p. 12). As such, the focus on Māori learners is built into the government’s funding framework and there are expectations that PSE providers will undertake initiatives to support the government’s identified priorities.
Indigenous learners may not have academic qualifications required to move into PSE programs. This barrier includes the disparity between the number of Indigenous learners versus non-Indigenous learners who graduate during their last year of secondary school and move into PSE and academic preparedness for entering into PSE programs. Transitioning from secondary school into PSE is identified by the literature and by the interview findings as a significant focus area.

Considering the research data, initiatives to address transitions may take different forms and have different focus areas. The literature suggests that PSE providers undertake transition programs that provide personal and academic support and are culturally appropriate (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015), provide foundational academic skills (Mixon, 2008; Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011), and be developed with or include partnerships with Indigenous communities (Mixon, 2008; R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004). Support programs and initiatives may also be implemented and include smaller class sizes and the participation of Elders (R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004). The interview data reflect some of these ideas in addition to further actions to enhance transitions and facilitate Indigenous learner access to PSE programs as discussed below.

 Individual Support

One way the Australian government addresses learner transitions to further education and employment opportunities is through funding to organizations that run programs with a focus on transitions. The Clontarf program is one example in which learners are provided with a Specialist Employment Officer who supports learners in finding employment. The Australian Indigenous Education Foundation also provides individual support for learners in their programs to transition into PSE.

 Providing Information to Indigenous Learners

Providing information to Indigenous learners is a common theme from the interview data and may be considered relevant within the context of ensuring PSE is accessible to Indigenous learners in addition to supporting learners in their transition to PSE.

In New Zealand, the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) plays a direct role in providing information to Indigenous learners, whānau (Māori extended family units), and schools to ensure Māori learners can make decisions that enable them to access PSE programs. The NZQA has developed workshop programs in collaboration with education sector agencies to enhance the awareness of learners and whānau of the secondary school graduation program. The premise is that quality, clear information will result in informed choices and facilitate access to PSE.
Transitions are a current priority of the Ontario government. The government has provided funding for initiatives such as a transitions website developed by the Ontario Native Education Counseling Association. Funding has also been provided for outreach initiatives and marketing communications to enhance awareness about why learners should consider going into PSE. Further, as part of the Ontario ministry’s recruitment activities, staff travel to remote communities to provide information about PSE.

**Adult Learning**

In Manitoba, a government priority is adult learning with a focus on academic preparedness. The government has developed a legislative framework that requires an adult learning strategy be developed. The current strategy includes a pillar that focuses on Aboriginal learners. There is also a legislative framework for adult learning centres (which receive government funding), to address transitions and academic preparedness in relation to Indigenous adult learners.

**Addressing Cultural Barriers**

The literature identifies that Indigenous learners face cultural barriers in pursuing PSE. Cultural barriers faced by Indigenous learners include learning within a western education system that differs greatly from Indigenous ways of learning. Indigenous learners may also face discrimination and racism on PSE campuses. These incidences, coupled with differences between the environment and values of PSE providers in comparison to Indigenous cultures and inadequate personal support, may lead to feelings of isolation and the decision to leave PSE before completion (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; Centre for the Study of Higher Education, 2008; Hunt, Morgan and Teddy, 2001; James and Devlin, 2006; Larimore and McClellan, 2005; National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2011; Nikora, Levy, Henry, and Whangapirita, 2002; Timmons, 2009). Consequently, recommendations identified in the literature review include recognizing IK, providing culturally appropriate education, programs, and services for Indigenous learners, and increasing the number of Indigenous educators and staff. Actions take by jurisdictions reflect these recommendations.

**Recognizing IK and culturally appropriate programming**

The literature recommends that education systems recognize IK and Indigenous ways of knowing and build Indigenous perspectives into education frameworks (Battiste, 2002; Bear Spirit Consulting, 2007; Gorinski and Abernethy, 2007; Government of Australia, 2008).

Recognizing IK and Indigenous ways of being and knowing is also reflected in the jurisdictional review data. The New Zealand government takes a coordinated approach by identifying mātauranga Māori as a priority in education sector strategies, such as the Accelerating Success strategy and the Tertiary Education
Strategy 2014 – 2019. Advancing the use of mātauranga Māori is also one of two priorities identified in the NZQA’s strategy. The NZQA has developed a Matauranga Māori Evaluative Quality Assurance framework in consultation with Māori, which is one way to give effect to mātauranga Māori in programs and provides a quality assurance standard for programs. The New Zealand system also recognizes three wānanga as public education providers that receive funding through the federal government in accordance with legislation.

Other jurisdictions also support specific initiatives that provide culturally appropriate programming for Indigenous learners. Interviewees in Ontario and Manitoba said that Indigenous learners face cultural barriers in relation to participating in PSE. In Manitoba, the University College of the North’s (UCN) Kenanow teacher education program is one example of providing culturally appropriate programming to Indigenous individuals. In Ontario, incorporating IK into PSE programs is an eligible activity for which an institution may receive funding.

Indigenous-controlled PSE providers also provide a way for Indigenous learners to acquire education in culturally appropriate environments. Indigenous-controlled PSE providers are recognized in the legislative framework in the United States; however, besides specific institutions (such as the Louis Riel Institute), Indigenous-controlled PSE providers are not recognized as part of the legislative PSE frameworks of the Canadian jurisdictions reviewed.

Programs and Services for Learners

Programs and services may help to ensure a sense of belonging for Indigenous learners in PSE environments that do not reflect Indigenous cultures in addition to providing general support and cultural and social networks for Indigenous learners. This could include developing a mentorship program (Mixon, 2008; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2012; Shotton, Oosahwe and Cintron, 2007; Timmons, 2009). Further support programs identified by the literature include having smaller class sizes, ensuring Indigenous learners have a contact person who may provide information, and encouraging participation of Elders in PSE (R. A. Malatest and Associates Ltd., 2004).

The interviewee in New Zealand explained that pastoral care is a broad legislated requirement for providers. Pastoral care encompasses support services for learners that may include access to cultural or religious advisors, career counselors, or cultural networks or groups. The NZQA is responsible for ensuring pastoral care is adequate and appropriate. In this way, support services for Indigenous learners are entrenched within the PSE system. PSE providers do have flexibility to determine the pastoral care in accordance with the programs of study offered and the composition of the student body. Respondents from Ontario and Manitoba also identified programs that are similar to those discussed in the literature, such as
mentorship programs, elder-in-residence programs, and creating spaces for Indigenous learners.

**Increasing the Number of Indigenous Educators and Staff**

Increasing the number of Indigenous educators and individuals working in the education sector may provide mentors, role models, and support networks for Indigenous students (James and Devlin, 2006; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015; Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011). This has been identified as a priority by interviewees in Manitoba and Australia.

Strategies to achieve this objective include providing bursaries for Indigenous learners to enroll in teacher education programs, providing culturally appropriate teacher education programs, and workforce planning. In Manitoba, the UCN’s Kenanow program is a teacher education program that was developed in conjunction with elders and Indigenous communities. In Australia, the interviewee described workforce planning as a process through which to increase the number of Indigenous educators and individuals working in the education sector. The national strategy, *More Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Teachers Initiative*, includes a research component to determine factors that affect increasing the number of Indigenous educators, partnerships between university teacher education programs and local authorities and stakeholders, and a marketing and communications strategy.

**Community-based education**

Providing access to PSE programs that allow Indigenous learners to maintain ties with communities and remain in their communities is recommended by the literature and reflected in initiatives undertaken by Canadian and Australian jurisdictions (Assembly of First Nations, 2012; Canadian Council on Learning, 2009a; Guillory, 2009; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2015; Schwab, n.d.). In Ontario and Manitoba, online learning initiatives are offered to facilitate access to PSE programs in remote and northern locations. In Manitoba, the UCN has regional centres through which local Indigenous communities may access PSE programs. The government has also partnered with Red River College to develop mobile training labs that may be taken to remote communities to deliver trades programs. In Australia, academic mentors from Charles Darwin University who have backgrounds in education are connected with Indigenous teacher assistants in remote communities who are working towards obtaining full teaching credentials to provide on-site mentoring and coaching, rather than individuals having to move to an urban center. The initiative also helps to ensure education is sustainable in remote areas that may experience high staff turnover.
**Tracking and Measuring Progress**

The literature suggests the importance of collaboration amongst the education sector and between PSE providers to inform policies and programs that target the needs of Indigenous learners (Durie, 2005; James and Devlin, 2006; Larimore and McClellan, 2005; Pechenkina and Anderson, 2011). Adopting standardized collections of data and reporting will also help ensure the development of appropriate outcomes and levels of funding for Indigenous learners (Assembly of First Nations, 2010; Standing Committee on Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development, 2007).

Tracking and measuring progress is identified as a challenge primarily by interviewees from Canadian jurisdictions. Data may be inaccurate or difficult to obtain and relies on learners self-identifying as having Indigenous ancestry. Determining the effectiveness of initiatives may therefore be challenging. In New Zealand, the government has developed a framework for measuring the effectiveness of government initiatives in relation to Māori, which was the result of an in-depth study. The framework provides a holistic measurement of effectiveness and builds in consultation with Indigenous communities and collaboration with other government agencies (See Appendix C).

**Determining Success**

Interviewees were asked about how success is measured and to identify key components that ensure an initiative is successful. One of the themes for measuring success is determining whether or not the organization achieves its stated objectives. For example, success may be measured by how many learners graduate from secondary school, access and complete programs, or obtain employment. Success may also be measured through qualitative data, such as learning about Indigenous students’ and PSE providers’ perspectives about programs. In New Zealand, the interviewee indicated that success may be measured by the collaboration that takes place between education sector agencies and PSE providers to provide a seamless point of access for Māori learners. This is reflected by the New Zealand government’s approach that has a single, overarching goal: to enable Māori to enjoy and achieve education success as Māori. This goal is included in the Accelerating Success strategy, which covers early childhood education through to PSE, as well as the NZQA’s strategy and the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2014 – 2019*. Rubrics and a framework have also been developed to measure effectiveness of initiatives in relation to Māori.

Interviewees identified several key components that help to ensure an initiative is successful. There is general agreement that effective partnerships between education sector agencies and Indigenous communities are an important component of successful actions taken by jurisdictions. Positive and effective relationships with Indigenous communities and PSE stakeholders, consultation, and implementing recommendations and ideas obtained from communities are also
considered key factors in determining success. The interviewee from Australia talked about the coordination across different levels of government (national, provincial/state, local) and suggested that philanthropic efforts are significant for successful outcomes because they reflect a coordinated approach and shared responsibility.

6.4 Indigenous-controlled PSE providers

The interview and jurisdictional review findings agree that Indigenous-controlled PSE providers play an important and unique role in Indigenous learner participation in PSE by providing culturally appropriate education and services for learners (Aboriginal Institutes’ Consortium, 2005; First Nations Education Steering Committee, 2008; Juniper Consulting, 2010; Saunders, 2011; Silta Associates, 2010; Wheeler, 2004). Indigenous-controlled PSE providers reflect Wilson and Battiste’s (2011) Indigenous Community-Based Model, in which the authors note Indigenous learners have experienced greater success than other models.

Jurisdictions take different approaches to supporting and recognizing Indigenous-controlled PSE providers. In Canada and Australia, besides specific legislation that relates to particular institutes, such as legislation for the Louis Riel Institute and the Batchelor Institute, Indigenous-controlled PSE providers are not formally recognized in the PSE legislative framework. In Ontario, in which Indigenous-controlled PSE providers feature more prominently in the interview findings, this lack of recognition results in challenges to secure stable, core funding. Ontario Indigenous-controlled PSE providers partner with mainstream public PSE providers to obtain funding to deliver programs. A similar situation exists for Indigenous-controlled PSE providers in BC.

New Zealand and the United States take a different approach and recognize wānanga and TCUs, respectively, in the PSE legislative framework resulting in relatively more secure government funding. Wānanga are recognized as Tertiary Education Institutions (TEIs) under the Education Act 1989. As a TEI, wānanga receive government funding, and are subject to a variety of accountability requirements (for example, they must provide an investment plan to the Tertiary Education Commission). Other Māori providers that offer education in Māori frameworks are required to register with the NZQA. In the United States, TCUs are defined and established in a distinct act, the Tribally Controlled Colleges and Universities Assistance Act. TCUs receive additional funding via other legislation through their designation as land-grant institutions and programs that are funded through other acts. In both New Zealand and the United States, there is clear federal jurisdiction for Indigenous learners in PSE.

An inclusive legislation framework that recognizes Indigenous-controlled PSE providers provides some certainty with respect to recognizing the important role of these providers and for stable, core funding in comparison to approaches taken by Canadian jurisdictions. However, Indigenous-controlled PSE providers still face
challenges, namely of securing enough funding to run their programs in the United States (Statement of Committee of Appropriations, 2014) and the balancing act of offering education through Indigenous frameworks while meeting non-Indigenous government accountability requirements in New Zealand (Te Punı Kokiri, 2011).

6.5 Summary

This chapter discussed the interview findings in relation to the literature review. An overview of the BC provincial context was provided as a lens through which both the literature review and the findings could be considered. Key considerations from the research in relation to addressing barriers to enhance access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE were discussed and presented thematically. In addition, research regarding ways in which governments support Indigenous-controlled PSE providers was discussed, with a focus on considerations for legislative approaches versus non-legislative approaches taken by the jurisdictions reviewed.
7. Recommendations

This chapter provides recommendations to the Ministry to answer the project’s research questions:

1. How do Canadian provincial governments and other national and sub-national governments abroad ensure public PSE providers are accessible to Indigenous learners?
2. How do these other governments ensure public PSE providers are supported to ensure Indigenous learners are successful in completing their post-secondary studies?
3. How do other governments support Indigenous-controlled PSE providers?

Four recommendations are proposed based on the research undertaken in this report. The recommendations flow from consideration of information obtained in the Literature Review and Jurisdictional Review. The latter included a jurisdictional scan of government strategies and interview findings. The recommendations provide steps for enhancing the access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE. They also take into account current initiatives in the Ministry’s BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan.

7.1 Develop an integrated education strategy

The Ministry would work with the Ministry of Education, in addition to the BC Aboriginal Post-Secondary Education and Training Partners Group (Partners Group) and Ministry of Education partners, to develop an education strategy for Indigenous learners that spans from early childhood education to PSE. The requirement for an integrated strategy would be enshrined in legislation and provide the basis for providing funding to PSE providers for initiatives in relation to Aboriginal learners.

Timelines

The integrated strategy would be implemented in five years. This would allow time for research and consultation, particularly in relation to K-12 initiatives (there is currently no comprehensive K-12 strategy for Aboriginal learners). A five-year timeline would also allow the Ministry to review the current PSE strategy and report out on long-term outcomes identified in the BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan.

Strategy components

The strategy would consist of the following five main components:
• **Overarching goal:** The provincial government would set an overarching goal in relation to Indigenous learners in BC to guide the development of its initiatives across the education sector. The government would consult with Aboriginal education partners to ensure the goal reflects the needs and aspirations of Aboriginal communities.

• **K-12 education:** The strategy would build on initiatives undertaken by the Ministry of Education, such as Enhancement Agreements. These agreements are signed by the school district, Aboriginal communities, and the Ministry of Education. Enhancement agreements promote partnership between school districts and local bands to support Aboriginal students while recognizing the importance of Aboriginal culture. These agreements also support the use of data to follow Aboriginal student performance.

• **PSE:** The strategy would build on goals and actions identified in the current BC Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan. The goals focus on systemic change across BC’s PSE framework that is responsive and respectful to Indigenous learners and communities and based on respectful relationships; supporting community-based programming through partnerships; addressing financial barriers; learner transitions from K-12 to PSE; and improvement that is based on research, data tracking and sharing leading practices (BC Ministry of Advanced Education, n.d., p. 13).

Specific focus areas would include the following:
  o Initiatives that target the transition of learners from secondary school to PSE. For example, developing initiatives (such as workshops) to provide information to Indigenous learners and caregivers to ensure course selection in secondary school facilitates learners’ abilities to pursue PSE programs.
  o Enhance knowledge and awareness of Indigenous cultures and perspectives by non-Indigenous staff and learners.
  o Enhance Indigenous Knowledge (IK) in public education providers (see Recommendation #3).

• The strategy would align with initiatives undertaken by other government agencies and groups to ensure a fully integrated approach.

• **Evaluation:** Evaluation should include both quantitative and qualitative measurements:
  o Examples of quantitative measurements include: the number of Aboriginal learners completing secondary school, the number of Aboriginal learners transitioning into PSE within a specific time period, the number of learners completing PSE programs, the number of Aboriginal learners obtaining employment following PSE completion.
Examples of qualitative evaluation include rubrics that could be developed to assess whether or not the initiatives are meeting the needs of Aboriginal learners and families, Aboriginal communities, and PSE providers. Rubrics could also be used to assess internal collaboration between government ministries and agencies.

7.2 Recognize Aboriginal-controlled institutes in the PSE legislative framework and provide predictable funding

The Ministry would work with the Indigenous Adult and Higher Learning Association (IAHLA) through a Memorandum of Understanding on a study to determine potential options for Aboriginal-controlled institutes to be recognized in the PSE legislative framework and, as part of this framework, have access to predictable funding. The study would take into account topics such as a framework for including Aboriginal-controlled institutes and potential legislated requirements; quality assurance; transitions between Aboriginal-controlled institutes and mainstream public PSE providers; and accountability to address the interests of IAHLA, Aboriginal-controlled institutes, stakeholders, and the provincial government. Funding sources would also be considered.

In addition to the study, the Ministry could consider engaging with the federal government regarding responsibilities in relation to funding PSE initiatives for Aboriginal learners. The Ministry could work with other provinces, such as the Ontario provincial government, to engage the federal government in these discussions.

Timelines

It is anticipated that this recommendation would be implemented in three years. Consultation and research would be required to determine potential pathways to recognize Aboriginal-controlled institutes in the PSE legislative framework. Legislative changes would then need to be drafted and proposed based on the recommended option.

7.3 Develop guidelines to enhance Indigenous Knowledge in PSE programming

The Ministry would work with the Partners Group and local Indigenous communities to develop guidelines, respectful of Aboriginal cultures and protocol, to be used by public PSE providers to enhance IK and Indigenous ways of knowing.

The guidelines would augment initiatives in the recommended integrated education strategy and the Ministry’s work on encouraging and coordinating sharing leading
practices. Developing guidelines will also add to information shared via the Ministry’s website, social media, and Indigenous and PSE communication networks.

**Timelines**

It is anticipated that the guidelines would be developed and published within three years to provide time for both research and consultation.

7.4 Investigate opportunities to partner with the private sector

The Ministry would look for opportunities that leverage both private sector and public sector funding sources to provide financial resources for Indigenous learners in PSE. This could include providing funding to organizations that run programs or to foundations that administer scholarships and bursaries that have both private and public funding sources.

**Timelines**

It is anticipated that funding opportunities would be available for learners entering PSE in fall 2016.
8. Conclusion

This report was completed for the Executive Director of the Teaching Universities, Institutes and Aboriginal Programs Branch at the BC Ministry of Advanced Education to provide an overview of initiatives undertaken by other jurisdictions to enhance access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE. In addition, the report studied how these governments support Indigenous-controlled PSE providers. A review of academic and professional literature was undertaken that discussed the barriers Indigenous learners face in accessing and completing PSE studies and recommendations to address these barriers. In addition, government PSE strategies that focused on Indigenous learners were reviewed and interviews were conducted with public servants responsible for Indigenous education policy and programming to identify initiatives for the Ministry’s consideration.

A variety of actions have been taken by jurisdictions to enhance access and retention of Indigenous learners in PSE. Areas identified as priorities vary by jurisdiction and the roles of particular education sector agencies (such as the NZQA’s specific role in New Zealand’s tertiary education sector). Initiatives that focus on transitions of learners from secondary schooling to PSE (including ensuring that learners make course selections that facilitate access to PSE programs), allow Aboriginal learners to remain in their local communities, provide access to financial resources, and enhance Indigenous Knowledge and culturally appropriate education are significant focus areas of the jurisdictions reviewed in this report. Further research could focus on specific barriers and recommendations for access and retention of Indigenous learners in graduate programs; how success in PSE may be defined from the perspectives of Aboriginal communities, families, and learners to ensure community and individual needs are being met by the PSE system; appropriate and respectful ways to enhance Indigenous Knowledge in PSE programming; and approaches for obtaining effective data for measuring and determining outcomes.

This report suggests that there are several considerations for developing initiatives that aim to enhance access and retention of Indigenous learners, such as consulting and involving Indigenous individuals and local communities, ensuring Indigenous voices are heard in PSE providers, ensuring Indigenous cultures are respected and recognized in education and learning frameworks, and linkages and collaboration across the education sector to facilitate transitions between secondary school and PSE. The report also suggests that recognizing Indigenous-controlled PSE providers in legislative frameworks helps these providers secure government funding and identifies the unique role played by these institutes in enhancing Indigenous learner access to and participation in PSE. BC’s Aboriginal Policy Framework and Action Plan reflect significant efforts taken by the provincial government and partners to enhance Aboriginal learner participation in PSE. These actions create a strong
foundation from which to consider further initiatives and approaches implemented by jurisdictions reviewed in this report.
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Appendices

Appendix A: Aboriginal-controlled Institutes in British Columbia

The Indigenous Adult and Higher Learning Association (IAHLA) represents the interests of Aboriginal-controlled institutes in British Columbia. The following institutes are members of IAHLA:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region A: Kaska/Dene/TahltanTagish/Inland Tlingit/Tsek’ene</th>
<th>Region F: Nuu-chah-nulth/Coast Salish</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Fort Nelson First Nation Community Education</td>
<td>• Wah-meeish Learning Centre – Mowachaht/Muchalaht</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Kwadacha Dune Tiyy – Aatse Davie School</td>
<td>• Ahousaht Education Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Tsay Keh Dene</td>
<td>• a-m’a-a-sip Learning Place (Nuu-chah-nulth Tribal Council)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Muskoti Learning Centre – Sauteau First Nations</td>
<td>• Ittatsoo Learning Centre</td>
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<th>Region G: Secwepemc/St’atl’imc/Nlaka’pamux</th>
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<td>• First Nations Training and Development Centre</td>
<td>• Northern Shuswap Tribal Council – Weekend University Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Wilp Wilko’oskwhl Nisga’a</td>
<td>• Ts’zil Learning Centre (Mount Currie Band Council)</td>
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<td>• Wabsuwilaks’im Gitselasu</td>
<td>• Community Futures Development Corporation of Central Interior First Nations</td>
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<td>• Kitamaat Village Council / Kitimat Valley Institute</td>
<td>• Secwepemc Cultural Education Society</td>
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<td>• Nicola Valley Institute of Technology</td>
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<th>Region C: Gitksan/Wet’suwet’en</th>
<th>Region H: Kootenay/Okanagan</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Gitwangak Education Society</td>
<td>• Neskonlith Education Centre</td>
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<td>• Gitksan Wet’suwet’en Education Society</td>
<td>• En’owkin Centre</td>
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<td>• Kyah Wiget Education Society</td>
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<td>• Ted Williams Memorial Learning Centre</td>
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<td>• Burns Lake Native Development Corporation</td>
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<td>• T’az’t’en Adult Learning Centre</td>
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<th>Region E: Kwakwaka’wakw/Heiltsuk/Nuxalk/Oweekeno</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Heiltsuk College</td>
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<td>• Lip’alhaye Learning Centre (Nuxalk College)</td>
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<td>• K’a’k’otlats’i School</td>
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Appendix B: Interview Guides

Canadian Provinces

Introduction:

- Thank the interviewee for participating
- Provide context for report
- Reiterate may choose not answer a question

1. Can you tell me what the [government entity] feels are the most significant barriers for Aboriginal learners accessing PSE and completing PSE?

2. Does the [government entity] have an over-arching goal in relation to Aboriginal PSE learners?

3. What are the [government entity's] most significant priorities in relation to PSE for Aboriginal learners?

4. How does the [government entity] ensure public post-secondary providers are supported to ensure Aboriginal learners are successful in completing their post-secondary studies?

5. How does the [government entity] ensure public post-secondary providers are accessible to Aboriginal learners?

6. What, in your opinion, have been successful initiatives implemented by the [government entity]?

   How do you measure success?

   What, in your opinion, has been key in ensuring an initiative is successful?

7. How has [government entity] been tracking and measuring progress in relation to goals identified in the framework?

Aboriginal-controlled institutes:

10. What is the role of Aboriginal-controlled institutes in relation to PSE in [province]? How do you see Aboriginal-controlled institutes working in the PSE system?

11. How does [government entity] support Aboriginal-controlled institutes?

   What relationship does the government have with Aboriginal-controlled institute?
Specific questions:

Ontario:

Can you please tell me more about Multi Year Aboriginal Action Plans? How do they operate/what is their function? What components do these plans include?

One of the initiatives identified by the Ministry is providing more information to Aboriginal learners. What information is being made available to learners? How is the Ministry making the information available to Aboriginal learners?

How much funding is provided to Aboriginal-controlled institutes? How is funding being provided? How is the Ministry reconciling this funding with federal responsibilities?

Alberta:

What is the Ministry’s relationship with the Muskwachees?

New Zealand

Introduction:

- Thank the interviewee for participating
- Provide context for report
- Reiterate may choose not answer a question(s)

1. Can you tell please me what the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) feels are the most significant barriers for Māori learners accessing and completing tertiary education?

Over-arching goal and priorities:

2. What are the NZQA’s most significant priorities in relation to tertiary education for Māori learners?

3. Does the NZQA have an over-arching goal in relation to Māori learners in tertiary education?

4. What actions or initiatives is the NZQA taking to ensure tertiary education is accessible to Māori learners?

5. How does the NZQA support transitions of Māori learners from secondary school to tertiary education?
6. What actions is the NZQA taking to assist Māori learners and whānau in awareness and understanding of qualification pathways?

7. What actions or initiatives is the NZQA taking to address retention of Māori learners in tertiary education program?

Specific questions:

8. Can you please describe the MM EQA? How does the MM EQA contribute to Māori learner success?

9. Can any program provider opt in to obtain the MM Quality Assurance Mark?

10. The Ministry is interested in responsibilities of institutions and those of government. For example, the British Columbia government currently takes on certain responsibilities rather than requiring institutions to take these actions (such as providing information to parents or sharing best practices).

   The Ka Hikitia: Accelerating Success strategy identifies actions that will be taken by government, but also provides actions that will be taken by the tertiary education sector. How does the New Zealand government require institutions to be responsible for actions, rather than the government (see Ka Hikitia: Accelerating Success strategy, p. 48). What have been the pros and cons of this approach?

11. The Ka Hikitia: Accelerating Success strategy notes that tertiary education providers will be expected to incorporate and explore models for Māori pastoral care, including collaborating with whānau, hapū, and iwi as part of addressing the two critical factors (“Quality provision, leadership, teaching and learning supported by effective governance” and “Strong engagement and contribution from parents, families and whānau, hapū, iwi, Māori organizations, communities and businesses”)*See Ka Hikitia: Accelerating Success strategy, p. 48.*

   Can you please tell me what is meant by “pastoral care”?

Tracking and measuring progress:

12. How does the NZQA track and measure progress in relation to its goals or objectives?

13. How is success measured?

14. What, in your opinion, have been successful initiatives implemented by the NZQA?

15. What, in your opinion, has been key in ensuring an initiative is successful?
**Māori PSE providers:**

16. What is a “Māori provider”? What is the role of Māori education providers in tertiary education in New Zealand? How are these providers different from wānanga?

17. What relationship does the NZQA have with these tertiary education providers?

18. Are Māori providers part of the legislated tertiary education framework? For example, are these providers required to register with the NZQA? Is there flexibility to account for the uniqueness of Māori education providers?

**Australia**

**Introduction:**

- Thank the interviewee for participating
- Provide context for report
- Reiterate may choose not answer a question(s)

1. Can you please tell me about your role in relation to the national Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Action Plan (Education Action Plan)?

2. Confirm understanding of the context and implementation of the Education Action Plan

3. What are the government’s priorities in relation to Aboriginal learners?

**Quality teaching, leadership and workforce development:**

4. Can you please describe examples of initiatives that are being implemented to increase the number of Aboriginal educators in schools?

5. Can you please describe examples of initiatives that are being implemented to increase retention of Aboriginal educators in schools?

6. What initiatives are being undertaken that help to ensure all teachers can meet the needs of Aboriginal learners in primary and secondary school?

7. Is the government supporting or undertaking any initiatives in relation to Aboriginal languages? For example, the teaching of Aboriginal languages? If so, what initiatives are being supported?
Pathways to real post-school options:

8. For clarity, can you please tell me what “post-school” refers to? (For example, higher education and VET?)

9. Is there a particular goal in relation to enhancing transitions of Aboriginal learners to tertiary education?

10. What initiatives, if any, are being supported by the government to provide Aboriginal learners in secondary school with career planning tools and information about pathways to different tertiary education programs (e.g., course selection, etc.)?

11. Are there any partnerships between tertiary education providers and primary/secondary schools (or any involvement from the tertiary sector) to enhance transitions of Aboriginal learners? If yes, does the government play a role in supporting or facilitating these partnerships?

12. How does the government track and measure progress in relation to its goals or objectives for these priorities?

13. How is success measured?

14. What, in your opinion, have been successful initiatives implemented for these priorities?

15. What, in your opinion, has been key in ensuring an initiative is successful?

16. The Education Action Plan recommended that a document be created that had its goal to close the gap in training, university and employment outcomes. Can you please provide me with an update on the work that has been done to develop this plan?
Appendix C: Discussion of Initiatives to Provide Context for Interview Findings

Manitoba

Adult learning is the second goal of Bridging Two Worlds. Further research was undertaken on adult learning initiatives to put the interview findings into context.

The Adult Literacy Act, Adult Literacy Regulation, and the Adult Learning Centres Act provide a legislative framework for adult learning in Manitoba. The Adult Literacy Act (effective 2009) requires the Manitoba government to establish an adult learning strategy. The act also establishes the Manitoba Adult Learning Program (MALP), the goal of which is to support adult literacy. The Adult Literacy Regulation sets out further requirements under the MALP, including the eligibility of agencies to receive MALP funding and record requirements (such as the requirement for agencies to keep records of learner attendance). The Adult Learning Centres Act sets out requirements for registered adult learning centres (ALCs). Under the Adult Learning Centres Act, certain learners are not required to pay fees, such as learners who have not completed secondary school. The provincial government provided approximately $16.6 million in funding to ALCs in 2011-2012 (Government of Manitoba, n.d., p. 14).

The Manitoba adult learning strategy has five pillars: MALP, ALCs, Workforce Development/Employment Focus, English as an Additional Language (EAL)/Immigrant Focus, and Aboriginal Focus (Government of Manitoba, n.d., p. 5). The Aboriginal Focus component centers on ensuring and creating programs and courses in adult education (for example, in ALCs) are appropriate for learners and take into account cultural, regional, and educational contexts of Aboriginal learners (Government of Manitoba, n.d., p. 5).
New Zealand: Effectiveness for Māori Framework: Measurement and Reporting

Effectiveness for Māori Framework: Measurement and Reporting

This framework has been designed to assist government agencies to identify and implement improvements to their current practice in measuring and reporting on the effectiveness of their activities for Māori. Robust measurement and reporting on the effectiveness of a sector, agency, or programme are important in many areas of government where Māori are significant consumers of mainstream social services or are important stakeholders in policy or regulatory decisions.

The government’s Better Public Services reform programme focuses the state sector on achieving targets in ten result areas of importance to New Zealanders. Outcomes for Māori in most of the Result Areas are significantly lower than for other New Zealanders. Achieving traction in these result areas will require a focus on achieving and reporting results for Māori.

The measurement and reporting process can enable a deeper understanding of what works for Māori and where shortfalls are occurring. The agency or sector can then work to:

- understand the complexity of the diverse Māori groups they are working with;
- improve understanding of their effectiveness in terms of their policy analysis and services for Māori; and
- identify any areas requiring attention in terms of internal capability for Māori.

Example: The Ministry of Education’s reporting on progress against Ka Hikitia – Managing for Success: The Māori Education Strategy 2006–2012 through its Measurable Gains Framework enables the Ministry to gain a better understanding of what works for and with Māori learners; inform the evaluation of programmes; and improve strategy development, policy and practice.


- Communicate about priorities, targets, challenges and successes;
- gain buy-in from stakeholders by demonstrating that their interests and needs are understood; and
- disseminate the reports in the best possible way(s) to reach as many stakeholder groups as possible.

Example: The Education Review Office (ERO) reports on Kōhanga Reo are published in both te reo Māori and in English. They are published on the ERO website and in hard copy. This makes them appropriate and accessible to a variety of stakeholders.


At this stage, it is important to:

- decide what is most important to measure and report on, based on an understanding of what agency and/or sector effectiveness for Māori would look like;
- identify priority indicators and measures; and
- decide on priority audiences for reported information.

Example: The Ministry of Education’s Statement of Intent specifies its priorities and outcomes for Māori, and outlines how it will work towards these. Ministry of Education. Statement of Intent 2011/12-2016/17 (see pages 32–35).

At this stage, an agency or sector will ensure it has appropriate data sources and has dealt with technical issues. The utility of the data collected is enhanced by considered selection of:

- the indicators and measures to be used for reporting and performance improvement;
- the data sources required;
- having appropriate measurement systems; and
- identifying appropriate and responsive data collection methodologies.

Example: The Ministry of Fisheries Statement of Intent 2011–14 demonstrated considerable use of proxy measures to measure the success of delivering the Crown’s fisheries and aquaculture obligations to Māori.

An agency’s measurement and reporting priorities and subsequent planning will steer the collection and analysis of data. Comparative information that highlights differences between Māori and other ethnicities can be useful when determining the effect of services on different groups.

Example: In 2007 the State Services Commission (SSC) carried out a survey that identified the key factors that influence New Zealanders’ satisfaction with, and trust in, public services. Booster samples of the key ethnic groups, including Māori, were used in the survey to increase the accuracy of results and to allow for separate analysis.


Australia

To provide context for the interview findings, research was undertaken on the following initiatives that were discussed by the interviewee: the Indigenous Advancement Strategy, the Clontarf Foundation, the Higher Education Participation and Partnerships, the Cape York Institute, the Foundation for Young Australians, and the Australian Indigenous Education Foundation.

- The Indigenous Advancement Strategy was implemented by the Australian government in July 2014 and took the place of numerous individual plans and initiatives. The purpose of the strategy is to improve the lives of Indigenous Australians (Government of Australia, 2014). The IAS has five programs: jobs, land and economy; children and schooling; safety and wellbeing; culture and capability; and remote Australia strategies (Government of Australia, 2014). One of the focus areas is to enhance Year 12 achievement and pathways to training and education (Government of Australia, 2014).

- The goal of the More Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Teachers Initiative project (which runs from 2012 to 2015) is to enhance the number of Indigenous peoples who are in teaching positions and retention of these individuals in schools throughout Australia (University of South Australia, 2012, p. 5). The identified outcomes are:
  - Undertaking research reports to identify background causes and initiatives, as well as the effectiveness of initiatives, in enhancing the number of Indigenous teachers;
  - Development of partnerships and agreements with school bodies, universities of education, in addition to other organizations to enhance recruitment, retention, and leadership in educator programs and in schools; and
  - A marketing strategy to encourage teaching as a career choice for Indigenous individuals (University of South Australia, 2012, p. 6).

- The Clontarf Foundation runs programs for Indigenous young men with the aim of enhancing education and potential employment opportunities for these learners. The program is run via football academies created in partnership with schools located in Western Australia, Northern Territory, Victoria, and New South Wales. Clontarf program staff act as mentors and the program focuses on education, leadership, employment, healthy lifestyles and life skills in addition to football (Clontarf Foundation, 2014, p. 2).

- The Higher Education Participation and Partnerships (HEPP) program (now the Higher Education Participation Program) provides government funding to universities to run programs in partnership with secondary schools that aim to enhance participation of learners in higher education from low
socioeconomic backgrounds. A variety of programs are undertaken that focus on enhancing access of higher education to learners (Department of Education and Training, 2014).

- The Foundation for Young Australians partners with both the private and public sectors to run a variety of programs that focus on leadership, transitions, and career opportunities. The foundation runs a series of leadership programs for Indigenous young people, such as the National Indigenous Youth Leadership Academy and IMPACT (which runs in the Northern Territory and aims to expand leadership skills of Indigenous learners) (Foundation for Young Australians, n.d., p. 13).

- The Cape York Institute advocates reform in Indigenous economic and social policy, particularly in relation to the Cape York area of Queensland (Cape York Institute for Policy and Leadership, n.d.). The institute runs the Cape York Leaders Program, which targets Indigenous learners in four phases from academic leaders (secondary and tertiary education) to excelling leaders (focus on executive leadership and mentor training) (Cape York Institute for Policy and Leadership, n.d. p. 33). As part of the academic leaders program, Indigenous secondary school and tertiary learners can apply to obtain a scholarship to attend either a boarding school with which the Institute has a partnership or a tertiary institution. Mentorship, transition support, and academic support are provided for secondary and tertiary leadership participants (Cape York Institute for Policy and Leadership, n.d., p. 23). The Cape York Leaders program also has a mentoring program in which leaders may participate (Cape York Institute, n.d., p. 34). The Cape York Aboriginal Australian Academy (part of the Cape York Institute) runs three primary schools in Queensland in partnership with the state government that focuses on providing “‘best of both worlds’ education” (Department of Education, Training and Employment, n.d.).

- The Australian Indigenous Education Foundation (AIEF) is a not-for-profit organization that provides scholarships to Indigenous secondary school learners to study at schools with which the foundation has a partnership. The foundation also runs a pathways program for learners who receive a scholarship, which includes programs with respect to mentorship, work experience, skills development, tutoring, and transitions (Australian Indigenous Education Foundation, 2014a). The AIEF provides on-going pathways support to learners after Year 12 into tertiary studies (Australian Indigenous Education Foundation, 2014b). In relation to tertiary education, the AIEF provides residential scholarships at specific colleges in addition to scholarships for learners undertaking engineering and mining-related degrees (Australian Indigenous Education Foundation, 2014c).
Appendix D: The Tertiary Education Strategy’s Specific Objectives in Relation to Māori Learners

The strategy identifies the need to enhance participation of Māori learners in tertiary education and completion rates. The strategy identifies the following success outcomes for this strategic priority:

- Enhanced numbers of Māori progressing from qualification levels 1 to 3 to higher levels of education;
- Enhanced rates of Māori students participating in and completing qualifications at level 4 and above;
- Māori graduates have improved employment outcomes;
- Tertiary providers identify and achieve suitable performance objectives for Māori learners;
- Tertiary education providers identify a suitable target for increasing the number of Māori educators on staff;
- Māori learners have a chance to take part in study and research that will engage them as Māori within tertiary education (New Zealand Ministry of Education and Ministry of Business, Innovation, and Employment, 2014, p. 13).

In addition, the strategy explicitly identifies that the tertiary education system must support Māori language; mātauranga Māori; and Māori culture, customs, and traditions (New Zealand Ministry of Education and Ministry of Business, Innovation, and Employment, 2014, p. 21). Tertiary education providers will achieve these goals by working with Māori and iwi to ensure Māori learners receive culturally relevant teaching and learning and assist in the expansion of mātauranga Māori research (New Zealand Ministry of Education and Ministry of Business, Innovation, and Employment, 2014, p. 21).
Appendix E: Examples of Initiatives Reported in the 2012 Annual Report of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Action Plan

The 2012 Annual Report highlighted the following actions:

- National initiatives related to the “leadership, quality teaching and workforce development” priority included: accreditation standards for initial teaching programs and requirements for teacher registration include strategies in relation to teaching Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners and respecting Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures, traditions, and languages (Standing Council on School Education and Early Childhood, 2013, pp. 59-60). National initiatives related to the “pathways to real post-school options” priority included: additional support programs that focus on access of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners into tertiary education and completion of qualifications funded under the Higher Education Support Act and the Indigenous Education (Targeted Assistance) Act; strategies that support achievement and targets for individual universities; projects, such as mentoring, information provision, academic enrichment, for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners funded by the government; and support for access to technology to help ensure access to education (Standing Council on School Education and Early Childhood, 2013, pp. 61-62). In addition, work has been undertaken to develop an Action Plan for Tertiary Education, Skills, and Employment for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander individuals.

- A variety of initiatives were identified at the state and territory levels. With respect to the “leadership, quality teaching and workforce development” priority, initiatives included: specific state strategies for increasing the number of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander educators and staff and cultural competency training and programs. Initiatives for the “pathways to post-school options” priority included: career pathways programs and conferences, on-the-job training, case management resources for learners and Aboriginal Education Officers and counselors, mentors, and specific Year 10 – 12 retention strategies (such as Tasmania’s strategy). One of the “good practices” identified was Tasmania’s Pilot Junior Ranger Program (Standing Council on School Education and Early Childhood, 2013, pp. 278-279). The purpose of the program is to enhance knowledge about careers in land management by Indigenous learners in Years 10 – 12. The program is 4 days long and provides students with the chance to learn from Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander individuals working in the land management field, provides connections with the Parks and Wildlife Service as a potential employer and also enables learners to enroll in a program called Certificate II Conservation Land Management (Standing Council on School Education and Early Childhood, 2013, pp. 278-279).

The Annual Report discussed initiatives undertaken to assist Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander to attain Year 12 credentials and maintain links with the community.
Initiatives included: the Youth Connections program (provides case management services to Indigenous and non-Indigenous young adults to help them achieve Year 12 qualifications); the School Business Community Partnerships program (involves brokers that develop partnerships between education and training providers, business and industry, parents and families, and community groups to use community resources to understand issues surrounding transitions and help young adults – both Indigenous and non-Indigenous – obtain Year 12 qualifications); the Sporting Chance Program (employs sport and recreation to enhance learner engagement to aid in enhancing educational achievement of Indigenous individuals); the Trade Training Centres in Schools program (provides funding for schools to build these centres to provide access to trades training); and ABSTUDY (provides financial assistance to Indigenous learners for such things as education tuition, accommodation, and cost of traveling to/from the location of their education studies) (Standing Council on School Education and Early Childhood, 2013, pp. 51–54).