A STUDY OF INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITY IN CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
JAMES CAREY MILLER SHUTE
1967

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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITY
IN CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES

by

James Carey Miller Shute

The writer's purpose in this study was to describe and analyze the international dimension of higher education in Canada. This dimension consists of several elements, each of which was dealt with in the study, namely: curriculum, research, administration, finance, programs for foreign students, technical assistance, exchange and the relationships between the university community and government. Each of these factors was examined against the background of recent developments in Canadian higher education. Throughout the study, the components of international activity were treated in their interrelationships so as to provide a wide perspective on this special concern of higher education in Canada.

The study moved from general concerns to the more particular. It opened by taking account of the challenge of the present world order through a documentation of the current state of international development, in particular, technical assistance. Next was described Canada's technical assistance program, showing its basis in foreign policy, its scope and methods, and finally, its administration.

The writer then summarized the existing international activity in Canadian universities, beginning with an historical précis of the development of the universities, then examining technical

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assistance contracts, overseas student programs, the voluntary assistance movement, instruction, research, exchange and other specialized programs.

Finally, the writer analyzed the principal difficulties in the way of more effective work in each of these areas and, after concluding that only a modest beginning has been achieved in internationalizing Canadian universities, put forward some forty-six recommendations covering each field under study for consideration by the university community in Canada.

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A STUDY OF INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITY IN CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES

By

James Carey Miller Shute

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Secondary Education and Curriculum

1967

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James C. M. Shute

1967

DEDICATION

This dissertation
is fondly dedicated to my incomparable parents
who have made all things possible

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First, to the Chairman of his Guidance Committee and constant advisor Dr. Carl Gross, Chairman of the Department of Secondary Education and Curriculum, the writer willingly confesses his gratitude, not only for wise guidance so freely given him during the production of this study but, indeed, for providing the encouragements and opening the doors which made possible in the first place three irreplaceable years at Michigan State University. Moreover, his sympathies with the development of Canada and hence with the aspect of that development which is chronicled hereinafter, should not go unrecorded by this Canadian.

To Mr. Richard Niehoff, Assistant Dean of International Programs and, more important, friend and colleague, the author also owes the enduring debts of pupil to tutor. In beginning to learn the complex and hazardous arts of international development, the author could have had no more humane and understanding a mentor, nor in their application, so experienced and patient an exemplar.

The author acknowledges the time given him from their busy lives by Dr. Cole Brembeck, Director of the Institute for International Studies in Education and Dr. Harm de Blij, Associate Director of the African Studies Center.

The writer would remiss if he did not acknowledge the assistance provided him by officials of the External Aid Office,

the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada and Canadian University Service Overseas. Personnel in the universities visited in the course of this study were helpful as well, as was the writer's University, the University of Guelph, which supported him with study time and encouragement.

To his diligent helpers, Mrs. Jean Van Douser of Michigan State University and Mrs. Doreen Hummel of the University of Guelph, the author is most grateful. Without their abilities to decipher and to type, not only with accuracy but also with speed and a generous measure of good humor, this study would have remained not only undone but unreadable.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table

LIST OF TABLES

Figure

1. Admi
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LIST OF FIGURES

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. Purpose of the Study

> It is an extraordinary fact that at a time when affluence is beginning to be the condition, or at least the potential condition, of whole countries and regions rather than of a few favored individuals, and when scientific feats are becoming possible which beggar mankind's wildest dreams of the past, more people in the world are suffering from hunger and want than ever before. Such a situation is so intolerable and so contrary to the best interests of all nations that it should arouse determination, on the part of advanced and developed countries alike, to bring it to an end.[1]

So begins Secretary-General U Thant in the Foreword to The United Nations Development Decade proposals for action; so begins this account of what is perhaps the world's major cluster of problems and what one set of institutions, the universities of Canada, is doing and can continue to do about them.

The purpose of this study is to describe and analyze the international dimension of higher education in Canada. This international dimension consists of several elements each of which will be dealt with in the dissertation, namely: curriculum, research, administration, finance, foreign students, technical assistance, exchange and relationships with government. These elements will be analyzed within the context of the developments

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[1]The United Nations Development Decade: Proposals for Action (Paris: The United Nations, 1961), p. 1.

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within higher education in Canada today. As well, changes in the financing, administration and structure of universities will be shown so as to indicate directions to which the university community should be alerted in planning subsequent programs.

Such a study as this would be incomplete, in the writer's view, if it did not put forward recommendations for consideration by the university community. This is part of the reason for making this study and the attempt will be made to conclude the study with a number of useful proposals.

This study should be viewed as a description and review of the historical developments and current directions of higher education in Canada into which international activities have been introduced and in which they may flourish if carefully nurtured. It is a synthesis of various developments in higher education to which has been grafted, only quite recently, an international dimension. The view which this study will attempt to adopt and maintain is one which sees each aspect of international activity in relation to its setting in higher education rather than in isolation. Fragmentation will be avoided, if possible, in favor of a holistic approach. From this framework, other specialized studies can later be abstracted.

No attempt will be made to study in fine detail each component of international participation by the universities. The intent throughout will be to describe and inquire into the problems as a whole in their interrelationships, in order to provide a useful perspective on international activity in universities on a national scale.

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B. Need for the Study

This study rests on the assertion that international activity in Canadian universities is an indispensable element of higher education and that conditions are ready for a heightened level of activity. There is a need to demonstrate the value and validity of this assertion for Canadian universities. Specifically, there is a need for a comprehensive look at university international work as it relates to foreign policy, international development priorities and the work of government agencies, as well as to traditional university concerns like teaching and research. To this writer's knowledge there has been no such comprehensive study done in the Canadian setting until this one. Closest to it, perhaps, are Keith Spicer's[2] study of external aid in relation to Canadian foreign policy and the Hamlin-Lalande report on international studies in Canadian universities.[3] The former, however, is a political study and is not concerned with higher education. The latter deals almost entirely with curriculum alone and is now outdated and incomplete.

There is a need to fill a gap existing in the literature in Canada. Numerous able works have concerned themselves with aspects of the concern of this paper but not until now have the

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[2]Keith Spicer, A Samaritan State (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1961).

[3]D. L. B. Hamlin, International Studies in Canadian Universities, and Gilles Lalande, L'étude des relations internationales et de certaines civilisations étrangères au Canada (Ottawa, Canadian Universities Foundation, 1964).

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various elements that make best sense in synthesis been pulled together in a single overview. This study, while only a modest beginning at this synthesis, should be one chink in the gap.

In addition, there is a need to bring into focus the opportunities available to Canadian universities to make their teaching, research and associated efforts more relevant to life in a changing world. Recent reorganizations in government and universities lend emphasis to this demand.

C. Limitations of the Study

This study is likely to suffer the limitations imposed by being contemporary. This means some risk in drawing conclusions and in making predictions. Coupled with the limitations in the author's own capabilities, this whole study may be more ambitious than is entirely justifiable. Yet, certain other limitations will be deliberately imposed on this dissertation in order to make its point of view consistent and its documentation valid and appropriate.

The study will not attempt to offer a detailed critique of aid effectiveness, foreign policy dynamics or even of the minutiae of university international programs. Nor will its recommendations be intricately detailed. Instead, the inquiry will look at university international activity in a world setting, retaining a breadth of view throughout. The concluding recommendations, in keeping with this approach, will hopefully take the form of guiding principles for policy-making.

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Resource materials for the study as well as the terms of its criticisms and recommendations will be limited to the peculiarities of the Canadian setting, with only passing reference to relevant experience in other countries of the western world.

Again, it is intended that this study be a general inquiry into the principal relationships among governments, universities and the larger world of which Canada is a part. It will assume a point of view which leads inexorably to a series of recommended actions. It will not attempt the detailed and specialized study done by Hamlin and Lalande in Canada or by Weidner[4] in the United States, but instead will attempt, for the first time in Canada, to bring together a diversity of international realities into a unified view for higher education.

D. Methods of the Study

This study will be based on a variety of sources including the literature of international development and Canadian foreign policy, together with government documents, specialized reports, correspondence and unpublished studies.

Much of the information related in Chapter V will be based on a series of interviews conducted by the author with officials of the External Aid Office, Canadian University Service Overseas and the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada--all

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[4]E. W. Weidner, The World Role of Universities (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962).

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in Ottawa. Other interviews were conducted with university personnel in Canada associated with international activity. In the course of these interviews, the writer visited twelve Canadian universities. Correspondence with persons in several other universities provided additional useful data.

In addition, the advantages experienced by the author in working intimately with the matters under study in this dissertation in universities in both Canada and the United States have been of invaluable assistance in getting perspective on the issues in question.

E. Organization of the Study

This study moves from general concerns to the more particular. It will open by establishing a global framework for the concerns of Canadian higher education through an analysis and documentation of international development, the directions evident in technical assistance and the challenge of a new world order to the university community, one already grasped to some extent in Great Britain, the Netherlands and the United States.

Chapter III will catalog the Canadian technical assistance program, showing its basis in Canadian foreign policy, its scope and methods and, finally, describing its administration. This chapter will add to the grounds on which universities can build and provide data essential to realistic university behavior internationally.

In chapter IV will be summarized the present international dimension in Canadian universities beginning with an historical precis of university development in Canada and an indication of several significant alterations in the pattern. The chapter will then examine the main components of university technical assistance programs, namely: overseas contracts, Canadian University Service Overseas, overseas student programs and the role of the national lobby for higher education, the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada. Finally, it will treat the international dimension of teaching, research, exchange and other specialized programs.

Problems and difficulties of several kinds face universities as they increase their international activity. Several of the most important of these will be analyzed in chapter V, beginning with the problem of attitude or point of view and moving through organizational and administrative provisions, financial inadequacies, relations with government agencies as well as specialized exchange problems. Foreign or overseas student affairs are to be treated separately, as foreign students constitute a unique problem by virtue of their numbers and special needs.

Finally, in chapter VI, an attempt will be made to draw pertinent conclusions on which can be based operational recommendations and suggested reforms. Such proposals will cover each of the major issues examined.

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CHAPTER II

PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS

A. International Development

The problems of international development are global in size and enormously complex in character. It is only in comparatively recent years, really since World War II, that they have been examined with any real scrutiny. And only now are students of development beginning to draw dependable conclusions from the rather haphazard experience of the past twenty years. The essential inference is a painful one; it is that we know relatively little about the dynamics and complexities of social, economic and political change. We are not certain how most efficiently to apply our slight command of the forces of modernization. Perhaps most discouraging is the apparent fact that the rate of development is grindingly slow and retarded by an alarming number of negative forces, like overpopulation, resistance to innovation, poverty, unemployment, creeping capital formation and inadequate supplies of assistance from the more advanced nations.

Because of the increasing difficulties of the less developed nations during the fifties, the period from 1960 to 1970 was designated by the United Nations as the Development Decade. New techniques, additional resources and a fresh analysis of the degree to which aspirations in less developed countries dovetail

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with actual expectation were to be brought to bear on underdevelopment during this decade. The Secretary-General called for attention to national planning, human resources development, balances of trade and foreign aid, to name only a few of the points of emphasis during the decade.

Early in the Development Decade, Robert Heilbroner wrote a very articulate account of development, a process he called the "Great Ascent", in which he issues five warnings about the problems to be confronted.[1] First, he says, "economic development is not primarily an economic, but a political and social process" by which he means that not capital accumulation per se but the habits and institutions which are the preconditions for wealth, are often missing in less developed countries and should be the first point of attack. Second, the political and social changes required are apt to be revolutionary in nature, even violent, in the tradition of the French or Soviet revolutions in which drastic and painful redistributions of power and wealth occurred. Third, economic development is not likely to breed social contentment but will first have to endure a growing gap between expectations and actual achievements as well as frustration and dissatisfaction. Fourth, he points out that the price of development will probably be political and economic authoritarianism. Strong-man government and dictatorship may be required for purposes of

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[1]Robert L. Heilbroner, The Great Ascent (New York: Harper and Row, 1963), pp. 16-21.

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complete control over policy and to effect change speedily. Finally, Heilbroner warns that there is little assurance that the long climb toward economic development will be successful and, indeed, that for many countries, it may be not merely a slow process but even a failure.

If one then turns to the United Nations appraisal of the progress made in the first half of the Development Decade, one can be justified in sharing the somewhat pessimistic view of Heilbroner.[2] Despite what seemingly has been an increase in available financial resources, technical assistance and indigenous skills, the achievements of the Decade have nearly all fallen substantially short of targets.

The main objectives set by the General Assembly resolution[3] and later embodied in the proposals for action were the attainment of a five per cent growth in national income by the end of the decade; an increased transfer of capital and technical assistance to developing countries totaling one per cent of the combined national incomes of the economically advanced countries; and the development of more equitable trade, marketing and investment arrangements for developing countries.

Today, halfway through the ten-year period the facts seem as harsh as ever. The growth rate of less developed economies

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[2]The United Nations Development Decade at Mid-Point (New York: United Nations, 1965). See also the Thirty-Second Report of the Administrative Committee on Coordination, U.N. Economic and Social Ccuncil, 2 May, 1966 (E/4191).

[3]Resolution 1710 (XVI), 19 December, 1961.

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slowed down from an annual rate of 4.5 per cent in 1955-1960 to only four per cent in 1960-1963. At the same time the advanced economies have enjoyed accelerated growth rates. Moreover, the gap between countries has widened. Between 1960 and 1962, average annual per capita income in the economically advanced countries rose 100 dollars while that in the less developed countries increased by barely five dollars.

With regard to international assistance, the mid-decade finding is that the net flow has virtually stopped increasing since about 1961. This has effectively delayed the attainment of the one per cent goal of resource transfer. Net flow of long-term funds from the advanced to the developing economies and multilateral agencies increased from 0.6 per cent of the advanced economies' combined gross national product in 1956-1959 to 0.7 per cent in 1960-1961. Since 1961, however, that level has barely been maintained. The flow of capital from aid-giving nations has remained at about six billion dollars per year since 1961, despite significant growth in GNP of the advanced nations since that time. Total assistance thus represents a steadily declining percentage of the national income of the advanced countries. The Secretary-General's report continues:

> At the mid-point of the Decade one cannot say that the future of this essential financing is secure. In spite of the increase in the flow of long-term capital since the mid-1950's, the target set by the General Assembly according to which resource transfers to the developing countries are to rise to one per cent of the national incomes of developed countries has not yet been

> attained. In fact, the leveling off in the flow of funds to the developing countries since 1961 has set back progress towards the target.[4]

George Woods, President of the World Bank, voices his alarm regarding the situation like this:

> Between now and 1970 the less developed countries might productively use an additional three to four billion dollars....To achieve that we need to change political climates--in the industrialized countries, to permit a much greater flow of official capital, and in the developing countries, to encourage a much greater flow of private investment from abroad.... If the considerations I have mentioned are taken together and if they are viewed against the background of a certain boredom, at the least, and disillusionment, at the worst, with the subject of development finance in most of the unindustrialized countries, you can see why I am concerned about the prospects for economic development.[5]

The great burden of underdevelopment remains essentially unlifted from the collective backs of the poor nations. The profile of this burden continues to be of alarming proportions and to loom even larger in many respects as the years go on. Underlying many aspects of the situation is an intolerable population growth rate, from two to three per cent per year (and even higher) in Asia, Africa and Latin America. To see how this difficulty is reflected in the persistent pattern of underdevelopment, one can turn again to the mid-decade evaluation of the United Nations:

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[4]The United Nations Development Decade at Mid-Point, pp. 26-27.

[5]Excerpt from address to the Board of Governors of the World Bank, 27 September, 1965, reprinted in Current, No. 65, November, 1965, pp. 56-60.

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1. In advanced nations the mortality rate of children under five years of age varies from 4.5 to 6.3 per 1,000. In Latin America the rates are five to ten times higher and in Africa, higher still. One reason for this contrast is the disparity in health services. Whereas in Western Europe, North America and the Soviet Union there is roughly one physician per 1,000 population, in India there is one per 6,000, in Afghanistan one per 32,000, in Mali one per 39,000 and in Ethiopia approximately one per 96,000. Lack of health services and disease control has led to a visible degeneration in health and sanitation standards in many parts of the world.
2. Dietary deficiencies account, too, for the differences in mortality rates. North Americans and Western Europeans consume an average of 3,000 calories and eighty to ninety grams of protein a day. In Latin America (excepting Argentina), the daily average is 2,400 calories and seventy grams of protein; in Asia it falls to 2,100 calories and fifty grams of protein--level still below pre-World War II standards. African protein consumption is lower yet.
3. These inadequacies in health are compounded by desperate housing standards. About one billion people are forced to live in sub-standard housing, without water, sewers or roads.

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4. Complicating the above factors is increasing urbanization and resulting unemployment, caused by the excess of urban migrants over job openings. India for example, had in 1961 some eight million unemployed. Even if production objectives for the 1966 and 1971 Five Year Plans are achieved, Indian officials estimate a rise in unemployment to twelve million and fourteen million by each target date, respectively. These figures do not account for disguised rural unemployment. Cities around the world grow by about four per cent per year and many even more rapidly, like Rio de Janeiro where 5,000 newcomers arrive weekly. Since most of the migrants are young people, the burden of unemployment falls heavily on their shoulders. In Indonesia, fifty per cent of the unemployed are under twenty-five years of age.

5. Agricultural productivity continues to be severely inadequate. The worldwide growth rate in agriculture is barely three per cent per year and lower in many places. It does not keep pace with population increase. "On present showing", warns the mid-decade appraisal,

"there is simply not in prospect a growth in agricultural production sufficient to accommodate this rising flood of people".[6]

6. By the time of the UN review of development in 1965, a relatively new development problem was making itself felt; that is the growing indebtedness of the less developed countries. This debt volume, amounting to some eighteen billion dollars by 1962, is hampering effective utilization of aid. By 1963, for example, the servicing of the external debt absorbed over thirteen per cent of the export earnings of the developing countries.

These, then, are some of the more threatening aspects of underdevelopment,[7] a condition still essentially undisturbed over the first five years of the current decade, much less on the way to total solution. What can be implied with some certainty from this somewhat distressing conclusion is that:

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[6]The United Nations Development Decade at Mid-Point, p. 8. Unfortunately population control measures do not enjoy unqualified worldwide support. At the June, 1966 meeting of the executive board of UNICEF in Addis Ababa, a bloc of nations (led by the predominantly Roman Catholic countries of Latin America) successfully opposed the family planning recommendations of the UNICEF director general. As a compromise result, action on his recommendations for birth control assistance was deferred. (Reported in Survey of International Development, Vol. III, No. 6, June 15, 1966, pp. 1-4.)

[7]For a more complete analysis of underdevelopment, see Benjamin Higgins, Economic Development (New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1959), particularly chapter one, "The General Nature of the Development Problem", pp. 3-24. For a sociological view of primitive society see Robert Redfield's well known account. "The Folk Society", American Journal of Sociology, Vol. III, January, 1947, pp. 293-308.

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1. The rate at which developing nations are attaining their planned objectives is painfully and demonstrably slow.
2. Compounding the slow rate of social, political and economic development is a series of interlocking difficulties which are sizable obstacles in the way of advancement.
3. The thrust of development is a worldwide phenomenon and is absorbing the energies of about two-thirds of the world's nations--those, in short that can be said to be poor.[8]
4. The advanced countries have not assumed anything like the share of assistance, capital or technical, which is consonant with their resources and skills.

This last point should be examined in more detail in order to complete sketching out the dimensions of the challenge posed to universities.

B. Foreign Aid

It has become customary to distinguish between the two major components of foreign aid as capital assistance and technical assistance. By capital assistance is meant the transfer of financial resources and credits from an advanced to a less

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[8]A widely accepted rule of thumb for designating less developed countries is a per capita income less than one-quarter that of the United States (about $500 or less). This is clearly arbitrary and susceptible to exception.

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advanced country. Technical assistance, put simply, is the term used to encompass the transfer of skills to a less advanced country in order to strengthen and improve its human and institutional resources. Economists often refer to these two segments of aid as physical and human capital respectively, preferring to analyze growth in productivity as the dividends on both physical and human capital investment.[9] For purposes of this study, however, aside from the necessary allusions to finance, technical or human skill assistance to development is the emphasis. But first, some comments on foreign aid in general are in order.

1. Foreign Aid in General

Although the foreign assistance experience of the more advanced nations is dated essentially only from post World War II reconstruction,[10] there have already

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[9]In this connection see the Report on the Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Industrial Investment in Education (Vols. I-V, Washington: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1961). Possibly the best known human resources approach to development is Harbison, F. and Myers, Education, Manpower and Economic Growth (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964).

[10]Ohlin asserts that "the West has been involved in economic development of the rest of the world since the time of the Discoveries". Moreover, he points out, British and French capital exports to underdeveloped regions before World War I exceeded the present capital flow to underdeveloped countries. Ohlin, G., Foreign Aid Policies Reconsidered (Paris: O.E.C.D., 1966, p. 9).

appeared numerous appraisals of foreign aid to date.[11] If one can summarize in outline the consensus of such reviews it would include at least these assertions:

a) The problem of development will not be solved quickly; it is a long run matter. Aid efforts will require, as experience is already demonstrating, a great deal of time. Not only do physical and capital development changes need time to come about but alteration in psychological conditions and attitudes are necessary and consume even more time. Aid-giving countries must confront this fact and learn to tolerate rates of change much less rapid than they themselves have experienced.

b) The wealthier countries must continue to provide assistance to less developed countries. Foreign aid has been recognized as a distinct area of

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[11]For example, G. Ohlin, Foreign Aid Policies Reconsidered, 1966; A. Maddison, Foreign Skills and Technical Assistance in Economic Development, 1965; W. L. Thorp, Development Assistance Efforts and Policies, 1964, all published by the multi-nation Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, Paris. Other recent representative reviews of some stature are Motivation and Methods in Development and Foreign Aid, Proceedings of the Sixth World Conference of the Society for International Development, Washington, 1964 (edited by Theodore Geiger and Leo Solomon); E. R. Black, The Diplomacy of Economic Development (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961); International Development, 1965 (ed. S. H. Robock, L. M. Solomon), (Dobbs Ferry, New York: Oceana Publications, 1966). For a detailed account of a bilateral aid program see S. Chandrasekhar, American Aid and India's Economic Development (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, Inc., 1965).

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public policy in advanced countries and of development planning in the less advanced. Experience and expertise are being accumulated. New national and international agencies for administering assistance have emerged. In proportion, foreign aid amounts to one-quarter to one-third of the capital formation of the less developed nations. The flow of aid is about six billion dollars annually.[12]

c) Total amounts of foreign aid appear to be insufficient for stimulating self-sustained growth in less developed economies. The one per cent of GNP minimum suggested by the United Nations is not being assumed by the wealthy nations.[13]

d) Since 1961-1962, total foreign aid commitments have been leveling off, for a variety of reasons. There have been frustrations over the slow pace of progress, political setbacks in developing countries and instances of wastage and inefficiency. Confusion, hesitancy and mixed motivations on the part of donor nations[14] have stimulated some of them to take stock

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[12]G. Ohlin, op. cit., p. 9.

[13]Total proportion of cumulative GNP for twelve OECD member countries remains around .7 per cent.

[14]"Donor" here merely describes a supplier of aid, whether or not the aid is in the form of gifts or loans.

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of these factors and the forces working against development.[15] However, little in the way of a policy for aid-giving and aid utilization has developed. "Recent history", states Eugene Black, "is full of instances where governments develop a a rationale for what they are doing only after having done it for quite a while first. I suspect that this is the case with economic aid."[16]

e) By far the bulk of development aid is bilateral in nature. However, this term disguises a host of different donor-recipient relationships. The tendency is for bilateral aid to arise from and occasionally perpetuate special cases, such as colonial relationships. Current thinking favors a great proportion of assistance being channeled through multilateral agencies, such as aid consortia, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank), the International Monetary Fund, and the specialized agencies of

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[15]In 1963, the three principal donor nations of the West published evaluations of their aid policies. Britain produced a white paper entitled Aid to Developing Countries, France, The Jeanneney Report (La Politique de Coopération avec les Pays en Voie de Développement) and the United States, the Clay Report (The Scope and Distribution of United States Military and Economic Assistance Programs). Only the British report was an authoritative policy statement.

[16]Black, op. cit., p. 54.

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the United Nations. This kind of coordination increases efficiency, reduces the influence of narrow national interests both of the donors and of recipients and lessens the complications resulting from the various motivations of donor nations.

f) The objectives of foreign aid are bound up in the hope that recipient nations will become self-sustaining after a more or less prolonged boost. The hard fact, however, is that the developing nations are faced with the eventual termination of foreign assistance and must themselves force the necessary capital accumulation, skills and perhaps most difficult, attitude changes. The greatest part of the burden of development must be assumed by the country itself. Says Black, "...no nation can supply another nation with more than a tiny fraction of the resources needed for self-sustaining growth; the road to self-sustaining growth must be built by the poor society itself".[17] Millikan states "...it is accepted that aid can have at best a marginal influence or growth rates and that the critical factors in determining the economic progress of

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[17]Black, p. 29.

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the underdeveloped countries are the efforts they themselves make...".[18]

g) Aid-granting agencies and nations, less than satisfied at the effectiveness of aid utilization by recipient nations, are moving toward the establishment of performance standards which should be met by recipient countries. The criteria of performance have two purposes, namely helping the donor clarify its own assistance policies and increasing the incentive to the recipient to take more effective measures to promote its own advancement.[19]

Whereas the above statements reflect consensus on foreign aid in general, some of them are applicable as well to the technical assistance component of aid. It is to the latter which the writer now wishes to turn in order to focus more precisely on the subject of this study.

2. Technical Assistance

Technical assistance[20] is the term given to describe multilateral or bilateral aid in the form of training for

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[18]Max F. Millikan, "Limitations and Performance Standards", International Development, 1965 (ed. S. H. Robock and L. M. Solomon), (Dobbs Ferry, New York: Oceana Publications, 1966), p. 123.

[19]See Millikan, Ibid.; I. G. Patel, "Rationing Aid" in International Development, 1965 (ed. S. H. Robock and L. M. Solomon), pp. 129-132 and Angus Maddison, op. cit., Chapter V.

[20]Synonymously referred to as "technical cooperation".

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host country nationals at home or in the donor country, the supply of educational or training materials and perhaps most significant, provision of skilled personnel. The several principal types of advisory personnel are: teachers to fill teaching positions; administrators or technicians to occupy temporarily civil service posts; management and survey people, attached largely to capital assistance projects; volunteers. Most or all of such personnel are advisory and are engaged in training, demonstrating and transmitting a variety of skills to local persons who, hopefully, will replace them. By 1963-1964 many donor nations were beginning to announce that an increasing proportion of their total aid commitments would be gradually devoted to technical assistance. For some capital-short and skill-rich economies, like Norway and Denmark, this had always been so. But the 1964 aid review of the Development Assistance Committee[21] of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development clearly indicated the substantially expanding needs for increased technical assistance. As a result of this review and of reassessments of technical assistance carried out by

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[21]Made up of twelve countries of North America and Western Europe plus Japan (Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, United Kingdom, United States and Japan).

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other international agencies and by donor governments, the following assertions are representative of concensus about the present state of technical assistance and the measures needed for improvement:

a) Programs in which technical assistance personnel themselves take operational positions are more costly in manpower and in finances than those in which they train numbers of indigenous people. For example, a request for aid in filling a gap in secondary school teaching through the provision of direct substitutes requires many more assistance personnel than would be needed to educate teachers or teacher-trainers. Both types of aid seem to be needed simultaneously in many countries, but economy and efficiency considerations are favoring the latter type.

b) It is becoming increasingly clear that technical assistance, like capital assistance, must be directed at helping host country institutions to become independent and self-sufficient. It seems desirable, therefore, to integrate technical assistance into established agencies and institutions in the host country. The process of introducing innovation into existing institutions strengthens them to carry on the work of modernization when technical aid is withdrawn. Success in this approach

is largely dependent on the willingness and capacity of the host institutions to modify and adapt to the development point of view.

c) The corollary of the above point is clear; assistance efforts can be nullified by failure on the part of the host country to marshal its own resources and take forceful measures toward modernization. External aid can but supplement and serve as catalyst to domestic initiative.

d) Evaluation of the effects of technical assistance remains difficult. Performance criteria alone overlook a whole series of results. Few advanced nations have assessed with any penetration the use made of and the contributions of their advisory people in developing countries. Immediate costs and returns seem the only substantial evaluation measure. "Given the presence of multipliers in the economy and also of possible alternative rise of resources, any final evaluation ought to be on a level of the total economy. However, at that level, so many forces are at work that even the latest techniques of analysis cannot sort out the impact of particular programmes".[22]

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[22]Thorp, p. 64.

e) While the public in a donor country usually gives moral support to technical assistance, there is a shortage of suitable advisors for overseas service, particularly in categories in relatively short supply at home, such as physicians, nurses and teachers. This difficulty, added to other problems of shifting demands for and supply of advisory experts, is one more stimulant for careful review and planning of external aid, and for coordination of requests from the various ministries within the recipient country. "Technical assistance", says Thorp, "must be treated like a scarce commodity."[23] This calls not only for careful analysis on the part of the donor but, more especially, for a basis for determining aid priorities within the host government. In this connection several donor nations are providing assistance to developing countries to aid in planning for the most efficient use of incoming aid.

f) A rapidly growing form of technical assistance is the volunteer movement which enables volunteer middle level personnel from industrialized countries to gain intimate knowledge of the less developed countries and which exposes rural and village folk in the developing nations to people and attitudes

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[23] Ibid., p. 74.

from the advanced countries. Since 1958, when Britain's Voluntary Service Overseas[24] was initiated, a total of 32 nations have organized or planned volunteer service for overseas or domestic work.[25] Demand on the part of developing countries far exceeds the supply. The primary advantages of this type of aid are that it supplies useful middle level assistance, requires little financing or administrative machinery and provides for a wide range of interpersonal contacts across cultures. In addition, it attracts the energies and service motivations of youthful volunteers.

Certain criticisms have been leveled at the volunteer movements, notably that they are mainly good will agencies with little real contribution to make to the solution of the hard problems of development.[26] While it is true that many volunteers are virtually untrained, it is also the case that a great many useful tasks have been assumed in developing nations

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[24]For the account of the first V.S.O.'s overseas, see Mora Dickson, A World Elsewhere (London: Dennis Dobson, 1964).

[25]For example, at this writing there are 585 volunteers in Tanzania from eight countries (Australia, Canada, Denmark, Germany, Israel, Liechtenstein, Britain and the United States). Bulletin, Canadian University Service Overseas, May, 1966, p. 7.

[26]For example, see William and Paul Paddock, Hungry Nations (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1964), pp. 99-101.

by volunteers. The benefit accruing to volunteers themselves and the consequent likelihood increased knowledge and understanding on the part of a sizable number of returned volunteers is undoubtedly of considerable value in establishing sympathetic and informed public attitudes toward international development issues.

Quite recently there has been developing a move toward greater sophistication in the preparation of volunteers for overseas assignments.[27] It is clear that developing nations require the services not merely of people of good will. Good will needs to be buttressed by skill and ability.

g) By far the major part of technical assistance is comprised of what may broadly be termed education. With the emphasis on the development of human resources as well as of physical resources it is understandable that the development of skills should be of great importance. Not only skills, of course, but also attitudes are affected through educational processes. Basic literacy, while not in and of itself a prerequisite for effective development, is regarded as a precondition for

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[27]Michigan State University's 1965-1968 graduate program for Peace Corps Volunteer teachers in Nigeria is one such effort.

> continuous modernization and political development. This seems particularly true when levels of literacy attain or exceed 30-35 per cent of adult populace of a country.[28]

The interest of developing countries in the development of their educational systems has led to a powerful emphasis on technical assistance to formal education, from primary education through university and adult education. Many influential economists, such as Harbison[29] and Schultz[30] have argued that there is a demonstrable cause and effect relationship between investment in education and economic growth. While this view is open to debate, it may well apply to many of the advanced nations. Without considering historical differences and present economic, political and social conditions, it may appear that the Western experience can be replicated in less advanced societies. Indeed the Addis Ababa Report is one example of a prescription of

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[28]See Bert F. Hoselitz, "Investment in Education and Its Political Impact" in James S. Coleman (ed.) Education and Political Development, (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1965), p. 554.

[29]Frederick Harbison, and Charles A. Myers, Education, Manpower and Economic Growth (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964). See also Harbison, "Education for Development", Scientific American, September, 1963. Harbison's contribution to the Ashby Report (Report of the Commission on Post-school Certificate and Higher Education in Nigeria, Lagos, Federal Ministry of Education, 1960) accounts in part for its orientation and for its appeal.

[30]Theodore Schultz, The Economic Value of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957).

educational planning based on just that assumption.[31] It is not the objective of this study to examine the accuracy or complexity of views of this kind, or to attempt to find an adequate rationale for the role of education in international, economic and social development. The writer clearly recognizes that debates are currently going on regarding the discontinuities of educational transplantation and the precise effects of education in less developed societies. But it must be agreed that, at a minimum, education of both formal and informal varieties is one of the principal ingredients in development and that it has been seized upon as such by both donors and recipients. Moreover, it appears that, despite budgetary and implementation difficulties, the emphasis on human resource development is going to intensify and that the technical assistance allotments to it will grow correspondingly. Education and training remain high and may climb higher in the scales of priorities of the less developed countries.

It is at this juncture that it becomes relevant to examine something of the growing international role of universities in the context of international development and technical assistance and the impact of international involvement on the universities themselves.

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[31] Final Report of the Meeting of Ministers of Education of African Countries Participating in the Implementation of the Addis Ababa Plan (Paris: Unesco, 1962).

C. The Role of Universities

Universities in the Western world have in recent years undergone sweeping changes. While their essential functions remain the extension, transmission and preservation of knowledge, the variety and number of subjects of legitimate study have greatly multiplied. There has been, in addition, a trend among universities toward increased interest in the application of knowledge to the problems of the world. The segments of the university enterprise given over to applied knowledge continue to grow in size and importance, measured by financial support, research grants and student enrollments.

Over the past few years many nations have initiated evaluations of their systems of education. France had its Langevin and de Gaulle plans, the Soviet Union its Khrushchev reforms of 1958,[32] Australia its Murray Commission in 1959. Canada's Bladen and Duff-Berdahl Commissions will be discussed in chapter III. Changing socio-political conditions and growing demands for education everywhere have caused universities to take a fresh look at their role. In most cases the results of the examination and the reforms show up mainly in increased size, additional curricula and similar signs of expansion.

One field into which universities have entered is that under discussion in this study, international development. World affairs

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[32]Which have themselves been revised, beginning in 1964.

have long interested universities and it was only natural that when the rich sector of the world began to recognize the plight of the poor nations the universities should have assumed an important role. This may be accounted for because:

1. The problem of developing countries may be fitted into existing disciplines--economics, politics, anthropology, medicine, education, public administration and so on and represented extensions of subject matter into new, usually non-western settings. In addition, as a result of cross-cultural experience, methods of inquiry have been refined. The social sciences in particular have benefited methodologically, to say nothing of new areas of content. Comparative method has taken on new significance in a great number of academic fields.
2. Universities represented reservoirs of skill and knowledge which could be tapped by donor governments for the benefit of recipients. Universities possessing expertise in agriculture, education, business administration, health sciences or engineering, were in an excellent position to contribute.
3. Domestic development in the typical advanced nation had already been influenced by universities. Not only skilled manpower but also knowledge developed through research were products of universities which contributed to and, in return, benefited from the solution of local problems.

4. Benefits have accrued to universities involved in overseas work. Thrust into advisory positions, professors discovered new research opportunities in unfamiliar settings. Quite apart from broadening the outlooks of faculty members, this new experience reverberated throughout the home campuses of these faculty, to be felt by students in turn exposed to returned teachers and scholars.

Even before these benefits began to be recognized, of course, foreign students had been of benefit to university communities in advanced nations, though not in easily measurable ways. Many a Western student has through university contact with overseas students first glimpsed something of international understanding, whether or not he ever contributes directly to the hard problems of development. The impact of these students and potential consequences in knowledge and understanding cannot be overestimated and in this writer's view deserves more concentrated attention and exploitation.

As with any innovation, the venturing of universities into world affairs has been accompanied by some perils and pitfalls. It has first of all been difficult to break out of the Western orientation of scholarship. Indeed, few institutions have struck anything like a proportionate balance regarding west and non-west studies or overseas research.

Second, inter-university cooperation to make more effective use of rather scarce resources like libraries, lecturers and finances, is still only embryonic.

Third, there are problems of capitalizing on overseas experience. "Feedback" techniques remain somewhat patchy. Too often developing insights coming from overseas advising or research fail to be translated into teaching or publication on the home campus.

Fourth, many universities have been slow to develop efficient devices for administering international curriculum and research additions to their ongoing programs, with their concurrent complexities of staffing, financing, and professional support services.

Fifth, technical assistance and advisory roles for faculty have been criticized as being academically impure, especially when intimately aligned with policies of either home or host governments. The question of the maintenance of academic impartiality and critical objectivity has been raised in this connection.

Despite a rapid transition period with its attendant difficulties, universities and university people in many advanced nations have been developing special skills and techniques as a result of international experience, and more important, perhaps, international viewpoints. In order to illustrate, the relevant experiences of three countries are here recounted briefly.

Great Britain

The impending accession of colonies to independent status shortly after World War II prompted the creation in Britain of the Asquith Commission to study the needs of higher education in the still dependent territorities. The Commission recommended

of the Inter-University Council constituted of one member from each university except London, which has two. The Council advises the British government and requesting overseas universities on matters of policy and assistance in the development of these institutions. It maintains close contact with universities in the developing countries, mainly ex-colonies. The University of London was originally asked to concern itself with the development of institutions in Africa and the West Indies, from which developed the Special Relationship scheme by which students there were awarded London degrees. Only University College in Salisbury, Rhodesia remains under this relationship, the rest having become independent universities, but the Council's influence remains continuous, especially in providing staff and establishing university-to-university relationships. In South Asia and the Middle East the British Council operates in place of the Inter-University Council.

In 1947 the Interdepartmental Commission of Enquiry on Oriental, Slavonic, East European and African Studies (the Scarbrough Commission) scrutinized the international orientation of all educational institutions in Britain, including the civil service. The Commission stressed, so far as universities were concerned, the need for greatly increased emphasis on teaching and research in Oriental, Slavonic and East European fields if the broad educational needs of the country were to be met. It proposed strengthening academic departments in place of relying on the isolated chairs then existing, provision of more adequate

funds and the concentration of international studies in a limited number of universities.[33]

The implementation of the Scarbrough proposals up to 1952 was uneven, and somewhat disappointing. Staffing presented an acute problem and total student enrollments increased rather slowly. From 1952-1960, while some growth was realized, changes in the grants system, national economic crises, the competition from science departments for funds and even the "brain drain" have delayed the growth in international studies envisaged by the Commission in 1947.[34]

In 1960, the Sub-Committee on Oriental, Slavonic, East European and African Studies was established and charged with the duty of ascertaining progress made in the fields in question since the Scarbrough Report and recommending further measures to the universities in view of national and international events since 1947.

The Sub-Committee concluded in its Report that although the political centers of gravity of the world had moved west and east, British Universities had taken little account of it. The Report went on to recommend larger grants, post-graduate awards, intensive language study, travel grants, cooperation in library

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[33]Details may be found in the Report of the Sub-Committee on Oriental, Slavonic, East European and African Studies (London: H.M.S.O., 1961), pp. 7-10.

[34]Ibid., pp. 11-40.

acquisitions and the setting up of area studies centers[35] all in the hope of "bringing the study of the non-western world into the main stream of university life."[36]

The Netherlands

The Netherlands find themselves in a position much different from either Britain or the United States with respect to the international role of their universities. For one thing, Dutch does not enjoy worldwide distribution as a language. More significant, in view of this study's focus on Canada, is the fact that the Netherlands is a middle power with all that implies as to political power and resources.[37]

Early in the fifties the Dutch universities jointly created the Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Cooperation, the primary purpose of which was to organize teaching and research on an inter-university cooperative basis in order to enable foreigners to take part in it, thereby making a contribution to overseas development.

Owing to the language problem, it was decided initially to establish an English-language university. Instead, however, this plan was narrowed to the social sciences and thus the International

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[35]This item resulted from a visit by the Sub-Committee to ten U.S. and two Canadian universities in April, 1960, where area studies centers had already been begun.

[36]Report of the Sub-Committee, op. cit., p. 5.

[37]Though, unlike most of today's middle powers, it possesses an imperial tradition, having once been the center of an empire.

Institute of Social Studies at The Hague came into being.[38] Foreign students are now scattered throughout a number of similar specialized institutes where training is provided mainly at the postgraduate level and chiefly in English. The program of each institute is designed especially for international development. University-to-university assistance is not yet part of the N.U.F.F.I.C. approach, partly for the reasons of pressing staff and financial shortages.

Several internal commissions have been organized by the Foundation in order more clearly to define the role of the Dutch universities. For instance, in 1962 a N.U.F.F I.C. Commission set out to determine by what means universities in the Netherlands could contribute most effectively to development cooperation. The resulting recommendations were that the Dutch institutions should extend the system of specialized postgraduate agencies in the areas in which Dutch experience is strongest. In addition, the secondment of individual faculty to overseas universities was felt to be of less importance than direct university-to university assistance.[39]

The United States

In the United States a good deal of attention has been given to internationalizing the universities, especially since the

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[38]The Role of Universities in Development Assistance (The Hague: Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Cooperation, 1964, p. 9.

[39]Ibid., p. 10.

country has assumed the mantle of world leadership and has had to become more informed about and alert to the cultures of the world. This impetus has been stimulated by Marshall Plan experience and the establishment of a federal government agency charged with administering overseas assistance. Now called the Agency for International Development, this agency has provided large amounts of money for university technical assistance contracts. This money, along with comparatively plentiful research funds available from the great foundations, has financed changes in American universities. The writer has identified, for instance, 265 international institutes, area studies centers and specialized cross-cultural research installations in United States universities as of June, 1966.

So extensive is the role of United States universities in world affairs that the purpose of this study is best served by pointing momentarily to a few of the principal documents which have guided the evolution of international programs to date.

The 1960 report of the Committee on the University and World Affairs,[40] supported by the Department of State and the Ford Foundation, made recommendations essentially similar to those made by Britain's Sub-Committee (see above, page 36), going as well into the part hopefully to be played by the federal government and its specialized agencies in supporting university efforts.

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[40]The University and World Affairs (New York: Education and World Affairs, 1960).

One member of that Committee, John Gardner, president of the Carnegie Corporation, was asked in 1963 by the Agency for International Development to examine the relationships between the universities and the Agency and to make whatever recommendations he saw fit. The resulting report[41] has to a large extent governed subsequent AID-university relationships and has a good deal of influence in the field of technical assistance contracts and personnel selection and training.

Another Carnegie-supported study was that of Edward W. Weidner, The World Role of Universities[42] which studied in greater detail than either of the above matters concerned with study abroad programs, overseas research, participant training and technical assistance.

More recently, Education and World Affairs has produced a detailed analysis of the international affairs programs at six major U.S. universities--Stanford, Michigan State, Tulane, Wisconsin, Cornell and Indiana. This book traces the historical antecedents to present programs and analyzes the extent to which these institutions have been affected by their commitments to world affairs.[43]

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[41]John W. Gardner, AID and the Universities (New York: Education and World Affairs, 1964).

[42]Edward W. Weidner, The World Role of Universities (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962). A useful bibliographical note is appended, pp. 348-354.

[43]The University Looks Abroad (New York: Education and World Affairs, 1965).

The influence of these reports can be implied from the facts that not only have their principal recommendations been implemented but that the major international developments in U.S. universities have blossomed since 1960.

In each of the above cases, universities have mobed rather rapidly from a haphazard and unplanned beginning to greater sophistication in world affairs largely through the following steps:

1. Post-war interest among universities in events in a shrinking and increasingly interdependent world.
2. Government impetus in foreign aid which brought about not only a summons to the universities to assist but also large amounts of funds.
3. Careful studies and evaluations by private agencies and the universities themselves in order to define more clearly the world role of universities and the measures which they ought to implement.

D. Summary

The thrust toward modernization on the part of the developing nations, while of recent origins and occasionally spectacular, has proved thus far to be a painful process and a prolonged one. Numerous obstacles remain in the way, capable of delaying and even thwarting the best efforts of developing nations and their abettors. Objectives agreed on by advanced and less advanced countries continue to exceed actual achievement. Assistance from

the wealthier nations has declined in volume and has been utilized with less than maximum efficiency overseas. A certain disillusionment with aid and its effects has appeared within aid-giving nations. Yet greatly increased capital and technical assistance is required in order for recipient countries to attain anything like self-sustenance.

One of the principal ingredients of foreign aid is technical assistance--the transfer of skills as opposed to the transfer of capital. Much technical assistance is directed at strengthening host country institutions to carry on their own work of development. An essential aspect of technical assistance is comprised of what may broadly be termed education--that is the development of human resources.

Universities, for a number of reasons, have assumed a central role in technical assistance especially in Britain and the United States. This was natural when it is considered how important has been the contribution of universities to the development in their own countries. Their pools of skill and capacity for finding and applying knowledge have made them fit for aiding in the "Great Ascent". In so doing the universities have found that considerable benefits in curriculum breadth, overseas research opportunities, overseas exchanges and the like have accrued. Problems have been encountered in making best use of these opportunities. But where the attitude prevails that universities are to some significant degree responsible to the society that supports them these difficulties have stood a very good chance of being satisfactorily resolved.

CHAPTER III

CANADA'S TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAM

A. Canadian Foreign Policy

No discussion of the nature of Canada's international assistance and its impact on domestic institutions could be at all complete without at least a cursory survey of the foreign policy from which aid policy emanates. Accordingly, before going on to examine assistance policy and its administration, it should be illuminating to trace the main threads in the fabric of Canadian foreign affairs since 1945.

Perhaps the fundamental fact about Canadian foreign policy is that it is not entirely independent. Says Hugh Keenleyside,

> It is Canada's fortune--good or bad--to have come on the international stage at a time when anything like complete autonomy in foreign policies is a rapidly vanishing concept and an even more rapidly disappearing reality.[1]

In the case of Canada several factors account for this. For one thing Canada's recent origins as a constitutional entity and assumption of the management of its own affairs have militated against the formation of a thoughtful, mature and independent line in external affairs. As of this writing, Canada is less

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[1]Duke University Commonwealth Studies Center, The Growth of Canadian Policies in External Affairs (Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1960), p. 6.

than one hundred years old. To illustrate this telescoping of time in a different way, Lester Pearson, now Canada's Prime Minister, was among the first to take the examinations for entry into the foreign service. Vincent Massey, Canada's recent Governor-General, now retired, was Canada's first diplomat to serve abroad.[2]

A second fact is that Canada, the senior Commonwealth partner, has an historic connection with Britain. This imperial connection (though never imperialistic) is reflected not only in the often-heard colloquial expression, "the Old Country" but also in Canada's stance toward the world. Previously a spokesman for the British, Canada now finds herself evolving a quite different position. Still the senior white Commonwealth nation and a principal Commonwealth supporter, Canada is more often than not cast in the role of advocate of the newer, non-white Commonwealth countries. This development has important implications for both foreign policy-making and assistance policy. Despite this trend, however, the ties with Britain remain strong. Put another way, the imperial traditions which governed Canadian action in the Boer War and in the 1914-1918 War have expanded to encompass the whole Commonwealth. British ties are secure but the expanded Commonwealth attachments are much different from those obtaining in the bygone days of the British Empire.

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[2] Ibid., p. 4.

Third, Canada has become an outward looking nation. It is true that much insularity resists this change but an alteration in national outlook certainly has come about, occasioned by two world wars; massive immigration from overseas with its social consequences; the growing dependency on world markets for Canadian exports; and perhaps most important, by the omnipresent fact of the United States. For Canada as much as for any other nation, the modern world is a rapidly shrinking world. This has served to thrust Canada more thoroughly than before into the orbit of the United States. Since World War II, two major power foci have developed in the world and Canada has found itself inevitably pulled into the Western alliance, which itself has been quite thoroughly dominated by the United States. It is this kind of position, often one of anxiety for Canadians, which has led Underhill to state, "Our American century is going to be a much tougher experience for us than our British century was."[3]

Clearly, one of the most difficult chores for Canadian policy-makers has been and continues to be that of finding what can be called an independent or unique foreign policy in the face of the

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[3]F. H. Underhill, "Canada and the North Atlantic Triangle" in In Search of Canadian Liberalism (Toronto: MacMillan, 1960), p. 257. This was originally a speech delivered at Michigan State University in 1957 and printed in The Centennial Review, Fall, 1957.

influences just mentioned.[4] It has been easier for Canada to hew an independent line within the Commonwealth, certainly, than to find an autonomous position in relation to the United States. Canada's voting record in the United Nations on the question of the admission of continental China is evidence of this. Only on November 29, 1966, did Canada differ in its voting pattern after sixteen years of following the lead of the United States, or, more precisely, after sixteen years of being careful not to alienate the United States. It is similar reasoning (together with a relative historic indifference to Latin America) which keeps Canada at arm's length from the Organization of American States, an association which Canada might be able to influence as a distinctly independent North American member.

Canada enjoys the advantages and suffers the disadvantages of being a Middle Power. Doubtless, the former outnumber the latter in most areas except those in which the leverage of sheer power is desirable. The advantages have appeared throughout Canada's experience in the United Nations, a body in which a nation without colonial interest or the power of the big stick seems to be able

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[4]Three speeches given in 1966 to influential audiences to help to provide understanding of the intensification of efforts to define such policy; viz., Paul Martin, Secretary of State for External Affairs, "An Independent Foreign Policy", to the Canadian Club, Toronto, January 31, 1966; Mitchell Sharp, Minister of Finance, "Strengthening Canada's Independence", to The Association of Canadian Advertisers, Toronto, May 4, 1966; Prime Minister L. B. Pearson, "The Identity of Canada in North America", to the American Society of Newspaper Editors, Montreal, May 19, 1966 (from Statements and Speeches, Nos. 66/3, 66/20, 66/22, Information Division, Department of External Affairs, Ottawa).

to function most effectively in a situation designed for continuous diplomacy. When these qualities are coupled with the appeal of an advanced technology and the steady hand of a usually acceptable diplomacy, the influence of such a nation can be felt irrespective of size, wealth or power. Such has been Canadian experience in the United Nations.[5]

In order to round out this brief account of the principal directions of Canadian external policies, some indication of apparent trends should be made. The Commonwealth connections promise to remain strong and Canada's voice in it is growing increasingly audible and influential. It is not without significance that a Canadian career diplomat has been chosen the first Commonwealth Secretary-General. In the United Nations, the Canadian commitment is likely to expand as Canada takes a seat in the Security Council and continues to stress and exploit its middle power position. Regarding relations with its most important neighbor and trading partner, the United States, Canadian policy is threatening to take a slightly more divergent line, particularly in view of the growing Canadian distaste for the war in Viet Nam. Beyond this, the traditional distrust of the United States has not entirely dissipated and Canadian nationalism, though impossible to assess accurately, is likely to press for an

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[5]For a fuller analysis of the development and significance of Canada's middle power role, see Edgar McInnis, "A Middle Power in the Cold War" in The Growth of Canadian Policies in External Affairs, op. cit.

increasing stake by Canadians in Canada--inevitably at some expense to United States interests.

These three factors--Commonwealth connections, relations with the United States[6] and the United Nations commitment--all in the context of a rapidly changing world and complicated by growing affinities with the French-speaking countries are of great importance in the formulation of assistance policy, in the nature and content of that assistance and in the reaction that can be expected from Canadian institutions.[7]

B. Canada's Philosophy of External Aid

"Like most other lands, Canada finds her policies conditioned by her structure and her history."[8] This statement could, perhaps, be regarded as self-evident. But for a country with the

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[6]Until recently, Canadian affairs were dealt with by the European Desk in the U. S. State Department.

[7]Some standard and widely accepted works on Canadian external relations are G. P. de T. Glazebrook, A History of Canadian External Relations (Toronto: Canadian Institute of International Affairs, 1950); Canada in World Affairs (Toronto: Oxford University Press, 11 volumes, beginning 1940); Frank H. Underhill, The British Commonwealth (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1956); Edgar McInnis, The Unguarded Frontier: A History of Canadian-American Relations (Toronto: Doubleday, 1942); Hugh L. Keenleyside and G. S. Brown, Canada and the United States: Aspects of Their Historical Relations (New York: Knopf, 1952). A paper which explicates differing points of view in Canada regarding Canada's world role is David Gauthier, "Alignment for Peace" in Abraham Rotstein (ed.), The Prospect of Change: Proposals for Canada's Future (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), pp. 344-361.

[8]Edgar McInnis, The Unguarded Frontier, p. 142.

peculiarities of Canada, especially as regards history and internal development, the point is worth emphasizing. The main developments in policy toward the outside world have already been suggested. Now specific aid policy should be examined.

"Canadians generally agree about the primary objectives of their foreign policy: so much so, in fact, that statements about them tend to be drearily platitudinous."[9] This sentiment can be applied with nearly complete congruence to aid policy per se. In general, since aid policy is an outgrowth of foreign policy, the same set of generalized objectives appears to be valid for both. They are "peace, freedom, national independence and material well-being".[10]

Philosophically, Canadian behavior in any field may be described as pragmatic. Rather than consistently developing a theoretical and logical basis for action, Canadians often seem to prefer to do what is practicable and direct their energies to whatever brings useful results. Whatever the weaknesses of this approach, (and however questionable the results) it has the advantages of getting programs and policies off to fairly ready implementation and of being more assured of success (on a relative scale) than if projects were chosen on a less selective basis. If Canadian foreign policy takes on the coloration of pragmatism, no less so does Canadian aid policy and practice.

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[9]Peyton V. Lyon, The Policy Question (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1963), p. 41.

[10]Ibid., p. 41.

The "foundation for lasting peace and stability"[11] is the main factor in Canadian aid rationale. This, of course, has direct implications for the other factors dependent on it. International peace and stability mean, for one thing, a favorable trade environment and the Canadian economy is an export-dependent one. For another, peace abroad means lack of military threats at home and the possibility of reducing the deployment of Canadian forces overseas. A further special implication for Canadians is that a stable world is the only fit setting in which Canada can fashion and correct, where necessary, the structure of its own independence and internal development.

The moral imperative, has been equally prominent in the formulation of international assistance policy and practice. Stability, peace, freedom and higher levels of living in the less developed nations are goals worthy of Canada's assistance, it is felt, not only because Canada itself benefits. There is near unanimity in Canada that a rich nation has no less than an obligation to assist the nations which are poor.

> We should remind ourselves that the Family of Man is three billion strong and that we, in our white affluent society, fall short of mirroring its make-up. For its predominant colour is not white; and far from being affluent, most of the members of the Family of Man today are more deeply engulfed than ever before in the search for survival against hunger and destitution and disease.

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[11] Paul Martin, "Aid Policies and Programs", speech delivered to the Development Assistance Committee, Washington, July 20, 1966. Statements and Speeches, No. 66/32, Information Division, Department of External Affairs, Ottawa, 1966.

> Those who are striving today to be free, or remain free, not illogically crave also to be fed.[12]

It is difficult to separate the lements of this subtle mix of motives. They are thoroughly interwoven. Self-interest and altruism are two sides of the same coin. There may be a hierarchy of motivations in the rationale of a donor nation's philosophy, but such a hierarchy is rarely explicit. In Canada's case, the moral motivations are most explicitly put forward. But self-interest is undoubtedly there, with no attempt made to deny or conceal it. When, for instance, Prime Minister Diefenbaker proposed, in 1958, the creation of a food bank, a proposal which laid the basis for "Food for Peace", he had not only the needy nations in mind, but also the threat to Canadian wheat farmers inherent in the surplus disposal policies of other major world wheat producers.[13]

No precise and unwavering hierarchy of aid motives can be satisfactorily established in the Canadian setting. "Political motives are dominant with respect to Government decisions and actions; economic ones predominate in the minds of businessmen, while the general public seems more influenced by humanitarian

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[12]L. B. Pearson, "World Brotherhood", acceptance address to the Award Dinner of the Society for the Family of Man, New York, November 17, 1965, Statements and Speeches, No. 65/29, Information Division, Department of External Affairs, Ottawa.

[13]Richard Preston, Canada in World Affairs (Vol. XI, 1959-1961, Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1965), pp. 221-222.

arguments."[14] Paul Martin, speaking to the Memorial Assembly at McGill University on February 9, 1965, stated his point of view like this:

> For my own part, I have no hesitation in saying that I regard humanitarian considerations to be foremost in the minds of those who have supported and sustained the principle of Canadian aid to the developing countries. The humanitarian approach to foreign aid is itself compounded of a number of factors which defy separate analysis. In essence I would say it rests upon the recognition that, as flagrant disparities in human wealth and human welfare are no longer morally acceptable within a single community, whether it be local or national, the same principle is applicable to the larger world community.[15]

From this statement, he proceeds to list benefits which accrue to Canada in economic, political and domestic terms. Here Martin (and by implication, the Government of Canada) seem to be in agreement with Barbara Ward who, in the Massey Lectures of 1962 said: "I would say that generosity is the best policy and that expansion of opportunity sought for the sake of others by bringing well-being and expansion to oneself....Our morals and our

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[14]A. A. Fatouros and R. N. Kelson, Canada's Overseas Aid (Toronto: Canadian Institute of International Affairs, 1964), p. 30. See in this connection, Claude Lemelin and Jean-Claude Marion, Le Canada francais et le Tiers-Monde (Ottawa: 1963). This 1962 survey of 550 French-speaking Quebec residents indicated that 82 per cent approved of Canadian aid. Motives most often given for supporting aid were: "Christian charity" (21 per cent); "Strengthening peace" (15 per cent); "Human solidarity" (12 per cent); "Anti-Communism" (8 per cent).

[15]"Principles and Purposes of Foreign Aid", Statements and Speeches, No. 65/2, Information Division, Department of External Affairs, Ottawa. Since 1958, "every party in the House of Commons has stressed its moral commitment to larger overseas aid." Keith Spicer, p. 10. Spicer's is the most complete and competent analysis to date of Canada's external aid, particularly as it relates to foreign policy.

interest--seen in true perspective--do not pull apart."[16] The pragmatic Canadian view on this issue has also been expressed thus:

> It seems both reasonable and realistic to hold that the reasons and motives which have led to the initiation and continuation of foreign aid are multiple and follow no definite order of importance. Their relative order of importance is not well-settled and immutable. It varies depending on the external and internal situation at any particular moment and on the position and interests of governmental decision-makers and those who influence them.[17]

The foregoing assertions represent as neat a summary of Canadian aid philosophy as exists. The next section of this account will review the scope and methods which to date have been used to implement this philosophy.

C. Distribution and Methods of Canadian Technical Assistance

1. Distribution

In January, 1950, seven diplomats representing Australia, Great Britain, Canada, Ceylon, India, New Zealand and Pakistan met in Colombo, Ceylon to discuss problems confronting the less developed countries of the Commonwealth. Their proposals, known as the Colombo Plan, soon expanded from a Commonwealth focus to include most of the countries of South and Southeast

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[16]Barbara Ward, The Rich Nations and the Poor Nations (New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1962), p. 150.

[17]Fatouros and Kelson, p. 32.

Asia and the original donors (Australia, Great Britain, Canada and New Zealand) were joined by the United States and Japan. Though Canadians had long been engaged in overseas missions and in post-World War II reconstruction, mainly through United Nations agencies, the Colombo Plan marked the beginning of Canadian international assistance as an organized and conscious aspect of Canadian government policy.

An analysis of Canada's participation in the Colombo Plan shows the emergence of a pattern of emphasis on four main fields: power, transportation, natural resources development and education.[18]

"The practices of at least the decade following the Colombo Plan Conference of 1950 have shaped indelibly the outlook and methods of today's administrators."[19] One of these practices has been what Spicer calls "a form of consultative bilateralism, a loose and pragmatic sharing of ideas and information by nations giving and receiving aid in a series of district, two-sided relationships".[20] This casual liaison of bilateral and multilateral approaches, identifiable first in the

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[18]An early evaluation of the Colombo Plan can be found in Frederic Benham, The Colombo Plan and Other Essays (London: Oxford University Press, 1956).

[19]Spicer, p. 93.

[20]Ibid., p. 71.

Colombo Plan, is revealed in subsequent aid arrangements. It is not altogether surprising, therefore, that the great bulk of Canadian aid is bilaterally distributed, mainly through the Colombo Plan, an arrangement which suits the pragmatic preferences of both donors like Canada and recipients. In this fashion, bilateral arrangements are worked out in the setting of group consultations.

It is quite true, at the same time, that Canada has supported the United Nations programs of assistance from their inception. The the world organization and its specialized agencies Canada contributed 129.01 million dollars (Canadian) in the period 1945-1965. If to that figure were added IBRD (World Bank), IDA and other loans, this amount becomes 261.67 million dollars.[21] Over the same period, however, bilateral grants and loans have amounted to a total of 922.44 million dollars. A detailed breakdown of figures for the period 1950-1964 looks like this:

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[21] Ibid., pp. 252-253.

TABLE 1[22]

CANADA'S EXTERNAL AID 1950-1964[23]
(Millions in Canadian Dollars)

	Total to March 31, 1964
1. Economic Aid Programs	
a. Bilateral	
Colombo Plan	464.67
Canada-West Indies Aid Program	9.45
Commonwealth Technical Assistance Plan	0.54
Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan	2.89
Special Commonwealth Africa Aid Program	7.14
French Speaking African Educational Assistance	0.54
Total	485.24
b. Multilateral	
UN Technical Assistance (EPTA)	21.73
UN Children's Fund (UNICEF)	8.60
UN Special Fund	11.37
Miscellaneious Grants[24]	0.51
Total	42.21
Total Economic Aid	527.45

[22]From Peter C. Briant, Canada's External Aid Program (Montreal: Private Planning Association of Canada, 1965), pp. 24-25.

[23]Table 1 includes NATO Mutual Aid; advances to the International Monetary Fund; Canada's assessed share of costs of international programs, operations and budgets.

[24]Of which (in rounded figures): Operative program of the International Atomic Agency (IAEA) $176,000 (1959-1963); gift of uranium to IAEA $62,000 (1959); Malaria Eradication Program of WHO $100,000 (1960); U.N. Technical Assistance Training Centre in B.C. $30,000 (1959-1961); and Freedom from Hunger Campaign of FAO $23,000 (1960).

TABLE 1--Continued

2.	Special Aid Programs	
	a. Refugees	
	Hungarian Refugees	4.32
	IRO, UNREF, and UNHCR	15.35
	Palestine Refugees (UNRWA)	0.45
	Far East Refugees	16.22
	Tubercular Refugee Program	0.51
	Total	36.85
	b. Other	
	UN Korean Reconstruction Agency	7.75
	Wheat/Flour to India, Pakistan and Ceylon	34.96
	Miscellaneous Relief in Kind)[25]	16.52
	UN Fund for the Congo	0.99
	World Food Program	2.75
	Total	62.97
	Total Special Aid Programs	99.82
3.	Loans and Advances	
	Colombo Plan Countries for Purchase of Canadian Wheat and Flour	34.97
	UN for Suez Canal Clearance (Special Aid)	1.00
	International Finance Corporation (Economic Aid)	3.52
	International Bank for Economic Reconstruction and Development (Economic Aid)	9.79
	International Development Association (Economic Aid)	32.80
	Total Loans and Advances	82.08
	Total	709.35

The Colombo Plan has figured prominently in Canada's aid program. Up to 1964, 85 per cent of the total Canadian allotment had been directed to India and Pakistan. To illustrate the range of aid included the following table is presented:

[25]Mostly dry skimmed milk, canned pork, wheat and flour.

TABLE 2[26]

CANADA'S COLOMBO PLAN AID TO PAKISTAN
1951-1961

Year	Project	Allocation
1951-1957	Cement Plant, Daudkhel	$ 6,541,547
1951-1952	Railway Ties	2,770,490
1951-1952	Aerial Resources Survey	2,000,000
1951-1952	Thal Experimental Farm	196,745
1952-1953	Wheat	5,000,000
1957-1958	Wheat	2,000,000
1958-1959	Wheat	4,000,000
1959-1960	Wheat	3,650,000
1960-1961	Wheat	3,650,000
1952-1953	Three Beaver Aircraft for Pest Control	176,807
1954-1955	Biological Control Station--Rawalpindi	55,383
1954-1955	Hatching Eggs and Incubator . . .	3,106
1955-1956	Two Mobile Dispensaries	11,795
1955-1956	Equipment for Tractor Training School, East Pakistan	18,000
1956-1957	Trucks for Locust Control	80,414
1957-1958	Tarnab Farm Workshop Equipment . .	2,400
1954-1955	Ganges-Kobadak Project	1,306,343
1953-1958	Aerial Resources Survey	1,292,095
1954-1955	Commodities	1,000,000
1958-1959	Commodities--Copper, Aluminum, Steel and Tin Plate	2,801,000
1958-1959	Woodpulp for Khulna Newsprint Mill	650,000
1958-1959	Pesticide Spraying Equipment . . .	120,000
1958-1959	Three Beaver Aircraft	200,000
1958-1959	Sukkur Thermal Plant	3,629,000
1959-1960	Pre-stressed Concrete Factory . .	60,000
1952-1959	Warsak Hydro-Electric and Irrigation Project	37,121,762
1953-1954	Shadiwal Hydro-Electric Power Development	3,507,095
1954-1958	Dacca Chittagong Karnafuli Transmission Line	6,706,343
1955-1956	Goalpara Thermal Station (Khulna)	2,000,000

[26]Source: Ibid., pp. 27-28.

TABLE 2--Continued

Year	Project	Allocation
1957-1958	Bheramara-Kushtia Transmission Lines (Khulna)	$ 1,000,000
1959-1961	Metals	4,870,000
1960-1961	Woodpulp	1,300,000
1959-1961	Fertilizer	5,010,000
1960-1961	Aerial Survey and Forestry Inventory	500,000
1959-1960	Books on Cost Accounting for Pakistan Institute of Industrial Accountants	15,000

Most bilateral aid outside the terms of the Colombo Plan has been oriented to the Commonwealth. In 1958, the Caribbean Assistance Program began. Since then have developed the Commonwealth Technical Assistance Plan (for countries not included in other programs); the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan and the Special Commonwealth Africa Aid Plan (SCAAP).

In more recent years Canadian assistance has been requested by and provided to a number of non-Commonwealth nations and the exclusive nature of the Commonwealth club has been dissipated to some degree. The Colombo Plan took account of non-Commonwealth nations fairly early in both donor and recipient membership. Beginning as early as 1953, Canada provided aid to Viet Nam. The Mekong River Basin Project extended Canadian attention to include Laos, Cambodia and Thailand. In addition Canadian assistance has been given Afghanistan, Burma Philippines, Indonesia, Korea and Nepal, usually under the terms of reference of the Colombo Plan.

In 1961, a program of assistance, mainly educational, was initiated for 21 francophone countries of Africa. The bilingual and bicultural makeup of Canada make this especially appropriate as a focus of attention for francophone Canadians and their institutions.

Only in 1964 did Latin America officially enter the domain of Canadian external aid policy. Experience with the World Bank suggested the advisability of establishing a working relationship with the Inter-American Development Bank. Since 1964-1965 Canada has set aside 30 million dollars from its special development loan fund for exclusive use of Latin American countries.[27] During the same period, Canada became a charter member of the new Asian Development Bank. The trend continues to favor bilateral aid as these figures show.[28]

	1964-1965	1965-1966
Bilateral Aid	$132.6 million	$140.6 million
Multilateral Aid	$ 17.5 million	$ 24.6 million
Total[29]	$150.1 million	$165.2 million

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[27] International Development (Ottawa: External Aid Office, October, 1966).

[28] External Aid Programs (Ottawa: External Aid Office, 1965-1966), p. 2.

[29] Excludes export loans and credits.

Mention should be made of the not inconsiderable assistance rendered by voluntary organizations in Canada, an amount estimated to be almost 26 million dollars annually.[30] In 1965-1966, for instance, 500,000 dollars were raised on behalf of CUSO (Canadian Universities Service Overseas) to help that organization field a number of overseas volunteers.[31]

2. Methods

Assistance methods may be subsumed under capital assistance, technical assistance and emergency assistance. Emergency aid follows wars, displacements of refugees, famine or natural disaster as a rule and can absorb large amounts of capital and technical resources in itself, as several donor nations have experienced in Palestine, Cyprus, Korea and, at this writing, in India as famine again threatens.

With regard, however, to technical assistance, the chief concern of this study, Canadian attention and effort have gradually intensified. In Africa, for example, where Canada's experience is more recent than its Asian experience, 60 per cent of all aid effort has been

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[30] External Aid Programs 1965-1966, p. 2 and more particularly, Non-Governmental Agencies in International Aid and Development, (Ottawa: External Aid Office, 1966).

[31] A fuller account of this organization is to be found in chapter IV.

technical assistance. This is reflected particularly in Special Commonwealth Africa Aid Program (SCAAP) and in the aid program for francophone Africa.[32]

Donors, "wishing their capital aid to bear lasting fruit are obliged to supply suitable instruction as a matter of first priority. This instruction may include gifts of equipment for research or demonstration; but essentially it is given by mingling the donor's and the recipient's professional elites".[33] In Canadian terms, technical assistance means sending Canadian teachers, advisors and professors abroad and bringing overseas students and trainees to Canada for training.[34]

Between 1960 and 1965, responding to the increasing demands of new African and Commonwealth programs Canadian technical assistance has taken on expanded proportions, its participants both ways having multiplied by more than four.

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[32]Canada 1965-1966 (Ottawa: Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1965), p. 50.

[33]Spicer, p. 213.

[34]Technical assistance figures usually include not only the contributor's staff but also equipment. As a result comparative figures do not consistently take complete account of Canada's full technical assistance allotments.

TABLE 3[35]

	1960	1965
Students and Trainees in Canada	711	2538
Advisors and Teachers abroad	83	874

Since 1960, there has developed a shift in emphasis in Canadian technical assistance from practical assistance in science, technology and medicine to much broader educational assistance, occasioned largely by the need for education and training at all levels on the part of countries that became independent around 1960, especially Africa. The nature of this new direction can be seen by looking at four aspects of educational assistance--the teacher, professor, advisor and training programs.

a) The Teacher Program

The year 1960 marked the beginning of the current plan of providing at host country request not only teachers (usually for senior positions) but more significantly teacher training personnel at both primary and secondary school levels. It was felt that by supplying mainly training level teaching staff the maximum contribution could be made within existing educational systems abroad.

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[35]Source: A Report on Canada's External Aid Programs (Ottawa: External Aid Office, fiscal year 1965-1966), pp. 26-27. These figures account only for official government aid contributions and not voluntary agencies' contributions.

The priorities, requests and eventual assignments are entirely in the hands of the recipient government. Contracts are for an initial period of two years and may be extended to five. Administration of this program rests with the External Aid Office.

An indication of the growing importance of this aid approach is seen in the figures. In 1960, 16 teachers were serving abroad whereas in 1965-1966 there were 460 teachers as well as 39 educational administrators and 31 educational advisors on External Aid assignments overseas. Of these, about half were undertaking duties as teachers of teachers and a substantial number of others were participating in courses of in-service training and up-grading and, by virtue of their experience and seniority, contributing to curriculum and methodology development.[36] By request, most teachers and educational advisors were working in the fields of mathematics, science, technical subjects and, of course, French and English.

b) The University Program

The provision of university personnel overseas has grown from five professors in 1961 to 110 for

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[36] Ibid., p. 4.

the 1966-1967 academic year.[37] Representing most academic fields[38] these faculty personnel go abroad for a minimum period of one year, usually to senior university posts where they assist in the establishment of new faculties and courses. Thus, the aid program in higher education parallels the Teacher Program in function.

A growing proportion of the university staff abroad are French-speaking. In 1966-1967, for example, 40 French Canadian faculty are abroad, 38 of them in francophone Africa, 2 in Southeast Asia.

Some professors are sent abroad on individual contracts or on the basis of secondment from their universities. Others are provided by their universities as members of a team under contract between the university and the External Aid Office. The matter of contracts will, along with other relevant university concerns, be taken up in more detail in chapter IV.

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[37] International Development (Ottawa: External Aid Office, September, 1966), p. 1.

[38] But most often in medicine, agriculture, engineering and related fields.

c) The Advisor Program

Canada provides technical advisors in most fields of economic and social development. Their duties are in most instances either directly or indirectly educational in nature. "In many instances the assignments involve a degree of counterpart training, though, in some cases, advisors are assigned to operational positions so that vital services or surveys can be carried out while local personnel receive training abroad."[39]

Though financial arrangements made for technical advisors are similar to those for teachers and university personnel, the administrative aspects of their assignments differ somewhat, owing to the individualized nature of requests, recruitment and briefing.

Growth in this area of technical assistance, too, can be understood by looking at statistics. From not more than a score in 1960, the number of advisors has grown to about 300 in 1966-1967. Main fields of assistance continue to be those in which Canadians have become experienced during Canada's own development, such as agriculture and extension,

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[39] Canadian Technical and Educational Assistance (Ottawa: Department of External Affairs Reference Paper No. 118, 1965), p. 6.

forestry, fisheries, and other resources development and management, community development and cooperatives, transportation and communication, medicine and nursing, management training and the like.

d) Training Programs

"Almost as striking as the increase in Canadians serving abroad has been the growth of programmes for training visitors in Canada."[40] The number of trainees studying in Canada under government auspices rose from 323 in 1960 to 1,242 in early 1965.[41] The number of government programs increased from 700 in 1960 to about 2,100 in 1965. Overseas students in Canadian universities constitute six per cent of total enrollment. In 1965-1966 there were about 11,500.[42]

Visiting trainees sponsored in Canada by the External Aid Office have programs especially arranged for them either by the Office or by public or private agencies. In either case the response comes following a request from an overseas government.

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[40]Spicer, p. 229.

[41]This figure excludes those trainees and students in Canada sponsored by the U.N. and other agencies including universities.

[42]E. F. Sheffield, Enrolment in Canadian Universities and Colleges, to 1966-1967 (Ottawa: Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1966), p. 14.

Selection and assignments in Canada are administered and financed by EAO but considerable use is made of advisory committees drawn from industries and universities.

Scholarships and awards provide for undergraduate, graduate and post-doctoral studies, subprofessional trades and technical training, practical attachments to industry and government departments--all at post-secondary levels. Since most trainees are preparing for an instructional role upon their return home, a year of teacher training is frequently offered in Canada following the training program.

As a donor nation whose educational resources and domestic staff are limited, Canada has found the group training approach attractive. It has the advantages of concentrating efforts, permitting specially tailored courses to be devised, and of being cheaper and easier to administer. At least seven such group training programs are now available on a continuing basis in such fields as social leadership (an outgrowth of Nova Scotia's Antigonish Movement), cooperative development, public administration, labor leadership, steel production, business management and primary school teacher training. Several of these programs are bilingual programs.

Only two per cent of the trainees fail successfully to complete their programs.

The quite recent Commonwealth Scholarship Plan, also under the aegis of EAO, provided university scholarships in the 1965-1966 academic year for 222 Commonwealth Scholars, 80 per cent of them from developing nations.

Before leaving this description of Canadian technical assistance a word should be added about a scheme designed to unite all these elements, the composite project. By this term is meant the effort to blend the capital, advisory, counterpart and training aspects of a single project. In such a project Canada will provide feasibility studies, construction and equipment, initial staff and the training of their replacements in Canada and in situ. The Accra Technical Training Centre in Ghana is a recent example[43] of this approach. Designed for mid-level training its cost (1,155,000 dollars), construction and staffing have been provided by the Canadian government. Currently 20 local staff are in Canada training to replace the Canadian staff. The EAO has used the services of the Saskatchewan Department of Education throughout.

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[43]It opened in 1966.

D. Administration: The External Aid Office

During the years immediately following World War II no central agency existed for processing and administering assistance. Aid was channeled through the United Nations. Grants were handled by the Department of Finance in conjunction with the Department of External Affairs, while the United Nations specialized agencies dealt directly with the pertinent government departments--FAO with the Department of Agriculture, WHO with the Department of National Health and Welfare and so on.

The creation in 1949 of the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance (EPTA) and, within a few months, of the Colombo Plan gave double indication of the need to establish government machinery for coordinating the growing variety of aid efforts. Consequently in December, 1950 an Interdepartmental Group on Technical Assistance (IGTA) was formed to consider Canadian resources, policies and procedures in technical assistance. Chaired by a senior official of the Department of External Affairs, the Group consisted of some 20 members from such Departments as Trade and Commerce, Finance, Agriculture, Mines and Technical Surveys, Health and Welfare and the Bank of Canada. It was soon decided by this body that a new agency was needed to direct both technical and capital aid. Its precise location was, however, in doubt since External Affairs wanted control of aid policy but not day-to-day administration. The Department of Trade and Commerce agreed to take charge of administration and so in 1951 the new agency, called the International

Economic and Technical Cooperation Division (IETCD) began work, still an interdepartmental group, and with a few modifications operated for nine years during which time it largely set the pattern for both Canada's bilateral aid program[44] and its administration.

Failure to work out a more comprehensive and systematic scheme can in some measure be accounted for by the widely held view at that time that foreign aid was to be little more than a temporary measure. This "deliberate short-term view of aid led to a nearly disastrous failure--far from overcome today--to attract competent career aid administrators".[45]

By 1960 it had become painfully clear that the increasing size and complexity of the aid program required a tightening and strengthening of administration. Difficulties in recruiting and retaining high quality staff, diffuse responsibility and similar problems had made the execution of aid policy less and less effective even as the extent of aid grew. The resulting instability led the Prime Minister to establish an External Aid Office directly under the Secretary of State for External Affairs, who would be responsible for it to Parliament. Policy was to be reviewed and considered by a five-man External Aid Board constituted by the deputy ministers (or alternates) of the Department of External Affairs, Finance and Trade and

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[44]Multilateral aid remained in the Department of Finance.

[45]Spicer, p. 95.

Commerce; a representative of the Bank of Canada; and the Director-General of the Office, who would also act as chairman.

This move indicated the government's growing concern not only with aid per se but also its desire to organize more effective machinery for its administration. The establishment of the External Aid Office preceded but was paralleled by the organization of both the Agency for International Development in the United States and the Development Assistance Committee of OECD.[46] The political significance, too, of consolidating assistance programs was unmistakable. "By raising aid to a semiautonomous footing under the immediate direction of the Secretary of State for External Affairs, the cabinet recognized aid as a momentous activity of long-range Canadian diplomacy. . . . At last aid appeared to command the coherent ministerial supervision and rational management demanded by an alert, effectual foreign policy."[47] The following chart shows administrative organization of EAO.

Since 1960, then, unified political control has brought a badly needed and somewhat unaccustomed sense of direction and purpose to Canada's assistance program. Problems remain, however, particularly as regards the recruitment and retention of well qualified staff. Unfortunately there is no career external aid service in government. Staff are seconded from other government

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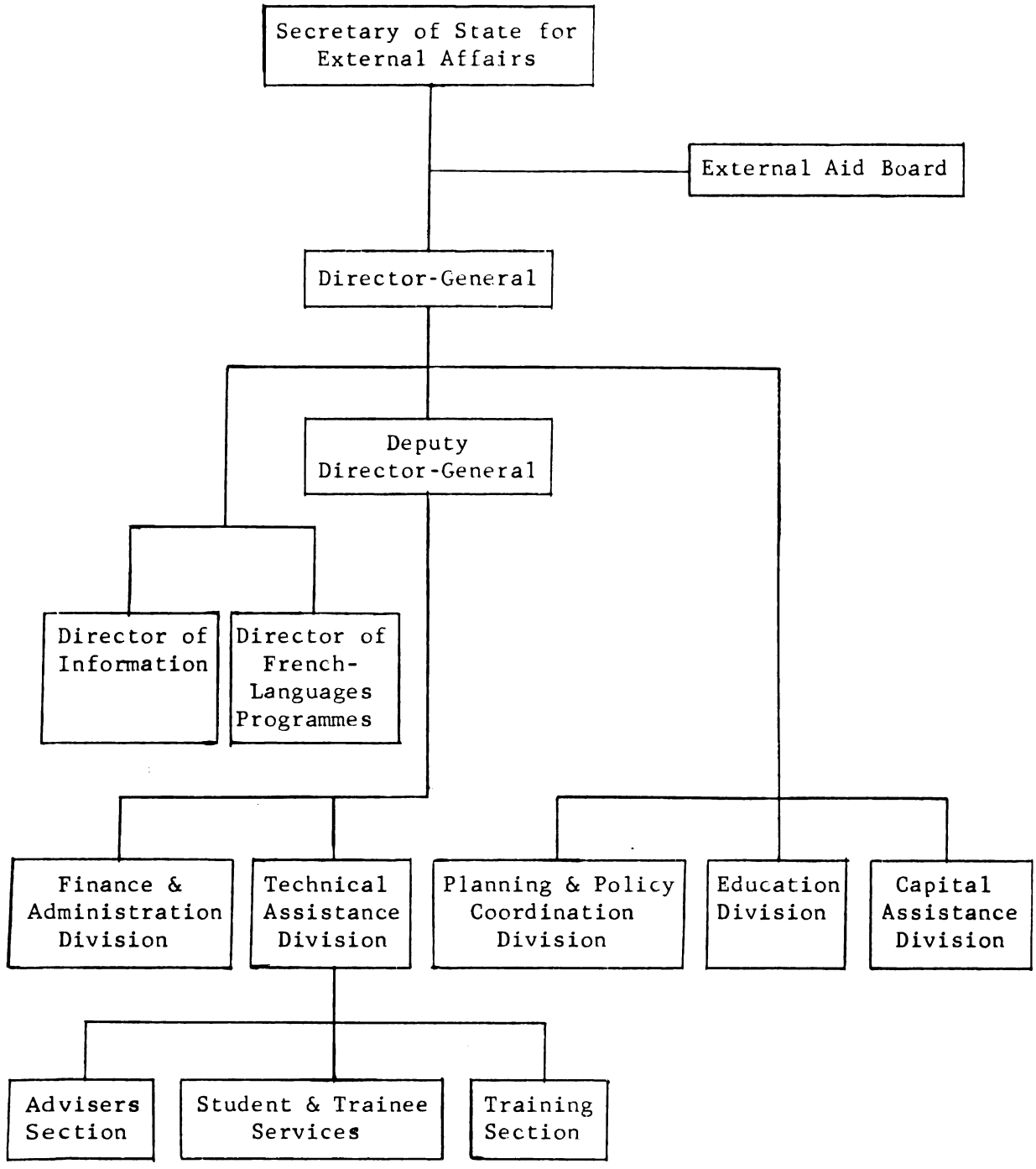
[46]Preston, pp. 232-233.

[47]Spicer, p. 107.

Figure 1. Administrative Organization of the External Aid Office[48]



[48]Source: EAO Finance and Administration Division.

agencies and departments and the resulting transient nature of EAO people makes for a series of administrative inadequacies. In addition, a peculiar immobility has characterized the staff of EAO. Most are not merely desk officers but apparently desk-bound.

Underlying aid operations since 1960 has been a kind of malaise which has commonly, though of course informally, been attributed to the leadership of the Director-General. As his is the central and pivotal role in EAO and since he enjoys a good deal of autonomy as well as the status of deputy minister, what happens or fails to happen in the Office can be largely regarded as the fruits of his energy, vision and management. As of the preparation of this account, the first Director-General has been replaced. A status-quo point of view is widely held to have prevailed during the six years of his administration.

In this connection it is more than relevant to understand the qualities of the new appointment and the atmosphere within which he has assumed office. One reason that this study can claim to be timely is, in the writer's opinion, that the impact of the new administration of EAO is beginning to be felt as this account is being written. The impact of the change cannot fail to have incalculable significance for developments in the university community. Suffice it at this stage merely to indicate there is eager anticipation that the new Director-General, who took office only in October, 1966, will play the role of the new broom and that he will sweep away the cobwebs and replace them with a new look consistent with his record as a successful and

talented businessman. Though, it is early to know with certainty, the indications are that such anticipation is not unwarranted. In chapters IV and V the evidence of these indications will be viewed in more detail.

E. Summary

The Canadian contribution to global development emanates, as does that of any donor nation, directly from its foreign policy motives and commitments. For Canada, these motives have become conditioned by factors of time--its mid-twentieth century rise to relatively mature nationhood--and place--its location in the Atlantic community and as neighbor to the United States. In addition, historic connections to Great Britain and France have been reflected clearly in Canada's diplomatic connections with the Commonwealth and, increasingly, with the French-speaking nations. Canada has enjoyed advantages of being a middle power in the world, particularly in the United Nations and in relations with developing countries. Lacking an imperialist tradition but possessing modern technology[49] Canada has found fairly ready acceptance through both diplomats and foreign aid channels in many of these disadvantaged nations.

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[49]Prime Minister Pearson expressed it "American plumbing without American power" in a speech to the Canadian Club of Ottawa, February 10, 1965, (Statements and Speeches No. 65/3, Information Division, Department of External Affairs, Ottawa, 1965).

It is clear that Canada's Commonwealth and United Nations involvements loom large in its aid policy, added to which is the more recent expansion of diplomatic and assistance relationships into non-Commonwealth Colombo Plan countries and recently independent French-speaking countries. These pragmatic relationships rather than theoretical or visionary considerations have underlain Canadian aid motivations, though an unmistakable moral conviction must be said to be present. To assist in rendering the world a peaceful and prosperous atmosphere for national development and mutually beneficial trading relations has been the Canadian commitment, within which is clearly implied the obligation of the rich to the poor nations.

What is persistently clear, also, about the Canadian commitment is that it has been inadequate in relation to the needs and objectives of international development. There are reasons for this, such as the perennial domestic shortage of qualified people for internal development[50] and the view prevailing in the fifties that overseas aid would be merely a temporary affair, hence the failure to take it seriously enough. Canada has never attained the one per cent Gross National Product goal, modest as that goal is. Neither comparative and absolute figures tell the tale completely but 0.6 per cent is about the best Canada has achieved so far. It is the announced policy of the present Liberal Government in Ottawa, however, to raise this level to one per

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[50]Canadians often speak of Canada as a developing country which, of course, it is, according to a number of indices.

cent and it is some consolation that over the past two or three years Canadian aid amounts have risen more rapidly than those of almost all other donor nations.

Canadian capital and technical assistance finds its way mainly to the Commonwealth and is largely bilateral in nature. Recent subscriptions to the Asian Development Bank and the International Monetary Fund[51] and increases in United Nations support give some indication of growing support for the multilateral approach.[52] Also significant is the soft loan policy of Canada, now the easiest borrowing terms available to capital-hungry nations. Most loans are interest free with a ten-year grace period and repayment to be made over a subsequent 40 years. Outright grants, however, continue to predominate over loans. In addition there has been a relaxation of "tying", allowing more to be spent on local materials.[53]

Technical assistance, the setting for the main concern of this study, is increasing in proportion within the overall aid program, though it is beset by domestic competition for skilled people at every level and by a conservative administrative body at the Federal government level. Aid allocations do not

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[51]Canada increased its IMF quota from 550 million dollars to 740 million dollars in 1966 (Survey of International Development, Vol. III, No. 7, July, 1966), p. 2.

[52]This was stated in the Second Committee of the United Nations General Assembly on October 7, 1966, by D. S. MacDonald, Canadian Delegate to the United Nations.

[53]Bulletin, Overseas Institute of Canada, July, 1966, p. 7.

graphically show this growing emphasis on technical assistance as it is inexpensive relative to capital projects. The emphasis is on senior university, senior secondary school staff and technical advisors going abroad, with larger and larger numbers of trainees and students coming to Canada for training and education. Many projects are comprehensive, combining capital construction and Canadian staffing while local replacements are trained either on site or in Canada. A large contribution to technical assistance is made by non-government agencies as well, following similar guidelines. Canadians have encountered problems like those facing developing nations and domestic experience, still being accumulated, has been found useful abroad.

The prevailing criteria for technical assistance continue to be that they make maximum contribution to host country development and self-support or in other words that they meet host country needs. What can be said at this point with some conviction, is that technical assistance is on the increase and, though limited by personnel and resources which can be released by Canada from her own ongoing development, promises under the leadership of the newly appointed Director-General to grow in scope, skill and relevance in the immediate future.

CHAPTER IV

THE INTERNATIONAL DIMENSION OF CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES

A. The Nature of Canadian Universities

1. History and Development

As a consequence of being a bicultural nation, Canada has developed two somewhat distinct and separate systems of higher education. One was originally designed on the pre-Revolution French pattern, with Roman Catholic ecclesiastical orders in charge of most institutions. The other system was patterned largely on English, Scottish and American practice, with institutions under the control of a variety of bodies including churches, governments and private agencies.

Since Canada was until 1763 a French colony, it is understandable that the first university-level instruction should have been offered at the Collège des Jesuites, founded in Quebec City in 1635, one year before the establishment of Harvard University in the United States and about a century after the establishment of universities in Mexico and Peru. The Collège offered arts courses at first and later added theology. At about the same time, the Séminaire de Québec was organized by the clergy. In 1852, the Séminaire was instrumental in establishing Université Laval in Quebec City. A branch of Laval opened in 1878 in Montreal and was chartered as the Université de Montreal in 1920. Montreal and its affiliated colleges now enroll the largest

number of students of any Canadian university, about 30,000.[1]

Soon after French control of Canada ended, English-speaking institutions of higher education began to appear. Amongst the first were three King's Colleges, at Windsor (then later at Halifax), Nova Scotia (1790), Fredericton (1829) and Toronto (1843). They were associated with and dominated by the Anglican Church. Attempts by the church to restrict enrollment to Anglican adherents drew both religious and political criticism and resulted in two of these colleges becoming provincially controlled--the University of Toronto (1850) and the University of New Brunswick (1859).

Most universities in Ontario and the Maritime provinces were denominational in origin, owing to the desire of various church bodies to educate their youth in the atmosphere of their faiths. Such were Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario (Presbyterian, founded 1841); Acadia University, Wolfville, Nova Scotia (Roman Catholic, founded 1853) and Mount Allison University, Sackville, New Brunswick (Methodist--now United Church of Canada--founded 1858). Queen's is now entirely non-denominational though the others mentioned retain varying degrees of denominational interest. Essentially the pattern has been the gradual entry into the public domain, as it were, of most universities outside Quebec, largely for reasons of financial burden; churches have had to go to

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[1]This includes enrollment at affiliated collèges classiques. Canadian Universities and Colleges, 1966 (Ottawa: Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1966), p. 142.

government for financing and one result has been the secularization of the universities.

Early exceptions to this pattern were McGill University, which was founded in Montreal in 1821 and Dalhousie University in Halifax. McGill was the country's first non-denominational university. Dalhousie, founded in 1818 (though it did not begin teaching until 1838) was established in protest against the Anglican exclusiveness of King's College, Windsor.[2]

After Confederation in 1867, efforts were made to establish provincial universities and, as early as 1878, this was achieved in the University of Halifax in Nova Scotia. Modeled on the University of London, the University was to encompass the existing Nova Scotia institutions as constituent colleges. The experiment did not catch on and was dropped in 1881.

The pattern developed at the University of Toronto, in which the conflicting interests of church and state were reconciled by affiliating sectarian arts colleges to a non-sectarian university, formed the basis for the subsequent development of the western Canadian universities. The University of Manitoba, for example, founded in 1877 on the University of London pattern, early became the sole degree-granting institution in the province, although three sectarian colleges were already in existence. Only now is the pattern being threatened, as Brandon College approaches

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[2]Ralph D. Mitchener, Canadian Universities and Colleges (Ottawa: Information Division, Department of External Affairs, 1964), p. 2.

university status. Virtually the same pattern has applied in the newer provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta, though two new universities have recently been established in Alberta. Saskatchewan's Regina campus may become a separate university. A similar pattern, with variations, applied in British Columbia, the main variation being that, prior to the University of British Columbia, charter in 1915, university-level instruction had been given in that province by institutions connected with McGill and the University of Toronto.

Until the mid-nineteenth century, Canadian higher education consisted of little more than instruction in arts and theology. Gradually scientific and professional studies were added. Large, multi-faculty universities are comparatively recent and graduate studies have had a slow growth in Canadian universities until very recently. Doctoral studies, in particular, were not regarded as important until 1920, as Canadian universities had previously been more attuned to British practice than to that of the United States in which the doctoral degree enjoyed wider currency. Full-time graduate enrollments have grown from just over 3,000 in 1951-1952 to more than 17,000 in 1965-1966.[3]

It should be remembered that, constitutionally, responsibility for education at all levels (apart from specialized educational functions of the federal government) rests with the provincial governments. There is no federal ministry or office of education,

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[3]E. F. Sheffield, p. 13.

although the federal government contributes to the costs of higher education in the provinces. "Canada is almost alone among the nations of the world in not having a national ministry or federal office of education."[4] National policy and planning for higher education, therefore, are non-existent aside from the annual financing agreements which are worked out among federal and provincial finance ministers. In addition, the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (A.U.C.C.) acts as a lobby and clearing house on behalf of higher education and maintains an office and research staff in Ottawa.[5]

Provincial legislatures enact the legislation governing the creation of new universities or changes in existing ones. Control of a university is then given to a Board of Governors (sometimes called Board of Regents or Board of Trustees), the composition of which varies according to the type of institution it is. If church-related, the clergy will be represented; if a provincial university, government is represented. Nearly all have representatives from business. Occasionally faculty are represented and

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[4]T. L. Reller and E. L. Morphet, Comparative Educational Administration (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962), p. 135.

[5]For a summary of the structure and division of responsibilities in Canadian education, see J. F. Cramer and G. S. Browne, Contemporary Education (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1965), chapters 7 and 15. A much more detailed source of information about all aspects of education in Canada is The Organization and Administration of Public Schools in Canada (Ottawa: Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1966, Third Edition).

attempts are now being made to increase the number of faculty on boards of governors.

The Board has ultimate control of the university, including financial powers and the power to appoint a president and approve faculty appointments. From the Board of Governors, authority passes to the President or Principal, who usually carries the additional title of Vice-Chancellor (Rector in French language universities). The Senate, sometimes called the Faculty Council or University Council, is made up mainly of faculty members, although it may contain alumni, student and non-academic representatives. Senates are delegated responsibility over academic matters such as curriculum, admissions, discipline and the awarding of degrees. Other administrative officers in Canadian universities include: the registrar, who acts as secretary to various committees and boards and whose office keeps records and admits students, the business officer (comptroller or bursar), deans and heads of academic departments. Some universities, particularly larger ones, have the post of vice-president.

In Canada, an institution of higher education is usually defined as one that offers courses of instruction beyond the highest high school grade in the province. Not all of the institutions thus defined offer degrees, however; such is true of polytechnics, technical colleges and community colleges.[6]

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[6]See L. S. Grant, "Canada's Evolving Two-Year Colleges", Junior College Journal, February, 1967.

In numerical terms, in 1960, the pattern was that of 354 institutions of higher learning, 59 granted degrees in one or more fields, 51 offered fewer years than required for baccalaureate degrees and 244 (most of them in Quebec) were affiliated colleges giving baccalaureate or teacher certification courses, degrees being awarded by the parent university.

Most students obtain the bachelor's degree after three or four years of full-time university study. General degrees are awarded after three years in provinces having a "senior matriculation" secondary school year, which is equivalent to the first year of a four-year university program. For the honors degree an additional year in university is required. Masters' degrees normally require one or two years after the honors B.A. or B.Sc. In French Canada most French-speaking students enter university with a B.A. obtained in a collège classique and continue toward the licence or maitrise ès arts which they earn in one year. For a baccalauréat in science, engineering or commerce, candidates are admitted directly from secondary schools as well as from the collège classique. The trend is toward entering the university from public secondary schools, particularly as changes in the organization and financing of education in Quebec accelerate.[7]

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[7]These changes result from the work of the Parent Commission in Quebec (The Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education 1961-1965) and began in May, 1964 with the formation of a Department of Education. Publication of individual Commission reports continues.

University enrollment figures give perhaps the most graphic index to the size of higher education in Canada. In 1930, there were 33,000 full-time students in Canadian universities. By 1959-1960, there were about 102,000; by 1963-1964, 158,000. The 1966 full-time enrollment (206,000) was double the 1960 figure. If current growth continues, enrollments are expected to double again in the next six years and reach 553,000 in 1976-1977.[8] Part-time enrollments are consistently about one-third of full-time enrollment. This will mean in 1976-1977 a part-time student body almost as large as the total full-time enrollment for 1965-1966. The proportion of women (32 per cent in 1965-1966) is increasing and is expected to reach 42 per cent by 1976-1977. Graduate enrollment is growing more rapidly than undergraduate enrollment. By 1971-1972 it should be ten per cent of the full-time figure.

It is expected that the 18-24 age group in Canada will grow 50 per cent, from two to three million, over the period from 1966-1976. In 1965-1966 about eleven per cent of this population group were enrolled full-time in Canadian universities.[9] An extension of the growth rates of the past years yields a 1976-1977

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[8]E. F. Sheffield, p. 6. It is worth noting that almost all recent enrollment projections have underestimated actual enrollments in Canadian universities.

[9]This figure represents 6.5 per cent of the females and 14.3 per cent of the males in the 18-24 age bracket. Also it accounts for students enrolled for degrees and thus excludes students enrolled in teachers colleges, polytechnics, summer schools, community colleges and university correspondence courses.

figure of about 25 per cent. Sheffield predicts, however, a leveling off by 1976-1977 to about 18.6 per cent (consisting of 21 per cent of the males and 16 per cent of the females of the 18-24 population at that time). From these percentage predictions, expected enrollment numbers have been calculated. Full-time and part-time students together in 1976-1977, then, could number 750,000.

By the end of 1966 there were 59 degree granting universities in Canada. Including enrollment at affiliated or federated institutions, eight of these universities had over 10,000 full-time students in 1966. The University of Montreal was largest, with 29,323, followed by the University of Toronto (17,810), Universite Laval (17,006), the University of British Columbia (15,916), the University of Alberta (14,444), McGill University (11,696), the University of Manitoba (10,786) and the University of Saskatchewan (10,583). In each of the ten provinces there is at least one degree-granting institution. Only Newfoundland has but a single degree-granting university. More than 300 additional institutions offer courses at university level but do not confer degrees.[10]

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[10]A convenient handbook giving data on higher education in Canada, including the offerings of individual universities, is Canadian Universities and Colleges (Ottawa: The Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, published annually).

2. Recent Trends

In addition to rapid growth in university enrollments, both in absolute and proportional terms, and aside from the increased number of universities,[11] several other pertinent developments are making themselves felt. They are changes in university government, shifts in means of financing and the impulse toward inter-university cooperation.

In 1965, a two-man commission appointed by the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (A.U.C.C.) and the Canadian Association of University Teachers visited 35 universities throughout Canada for the purpose of examining and evaluating university government. The Commissioners, one British the other American, brought forward a number of recommendations[12] for improving the governance of universities which have already had some impact on the administration of higher education in Canada. The substance of the recommendations is to broaden the faculty representation on Boards of Governors and Senates, as well as in other areas of decision-making; to give students a greater voice in university affairs; and to strengthen university-community and university-government relations by means of the creation of joint groups on

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[11]"New universities are going up at the rate of two a year", asserted Time (April 23, 1965), with a characteristic dash of hyperbole.

[12]University Government in Canada, Toronto, Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada and the Canadian Association of University Teachers, University of Toronto Press, 1966. A summary of the Report is J. Percy Smith, "The Duff/Berdahl Report on University Government", University Affairs, Vol. 7 No. 4, April, 1966, pp. 1-3.

which academic people are well represented. This study has strengthened the hand of academic reformers and, as a result, faculty and student interests are beginning to be more fully expressed on Boards and Senates.

The financing of universities in Canada has undergone marked change since 1965. Beginning in 1951-1952, the federal government provided annual grants to universities and colleges for operating purposes based on the population of each province. In 1962-1963 the amount was raised to $2 per capita or $297 per full-time student. The remaining 1962-1963 finances originated from provincial governments (38.9 per cent); endowment income (3.5 per cent); student fees (26.6 per cent); other sources (11.7 per cent). The federal share was 19.3 per cent.[13] (Parenthetically, something over five per cent of Canada's Gross National Product was spent on education in 1961; 2.3 per cent of federal expenditures went to education.)[14]

In the early sixties, faced with burgeoning enrollments and aware of the magnitude of the financial implications of university growth, the universities pressed the federal government for greatly increased funds. In 1964, an independent commission

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[13]R. D. Mitchener, p. 11.

[14]R. E. Whitworth, The Canadian System of Education (Ottawa: Department of External Affairs Reference Paper No. 45, March, 1965), p. 13.

(the usual Canadian response to crisis)[15] was appointed by what is now the A.U.C.C. to make an estimate of the financial needs of Canadian universities and to recommend means of supplying the needs.

The Bladen Commission (inevitably named after its Chairman, Dean V. W. Bladen of the University of Toronto) recommended sharply increased federal grants based on a per capita base of five dollars for 1965-1966, to be increased by one dollar each year thereafter. To the provinces, the Commission recommended the continuation of student fees, at least for the next decade, and that they adopt a means of determining operating and capital grants in a way that would allow the universities to plan ahead for periods of at least three years. The most important recommendation to the provinces, however, was that formula-financing be introduced, the formula to be related to the number of students in various curricula, weighted according to the cost per student in each category.[16] This recommendation was fated to become centrally important because in its 1967 tax-sharing agreements with the provinces, the federal government placed

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[15]At least a dozen education commissions in at least seven provinces across Canada have completed studies since 1962, to say nothing at all of other Provincial and Royal Commissions. The most massive Royal Commission in Canadian history, the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, will have significant impact on education at all levels.

[16]Financing Higher Education in Canada (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1965). A summary of the Report is V. W. Bladen, "The Bladen Report Recommends...", University Affairs, Vol. 7, No. 1, October, 1965, pp. 1-3.

the burden of university financing on the provinces and is no longer making direct grants to higher education.

Cooperation among various universities was urged by both the Duff/Berdahl Commission and the Bladen Commission. There had been some degree of voluntary inter-university cooperation prior to these Commissions, most often in the forms of Councils of Presidents, as in Quebec, Ontario and the Prairie Provinces. The Maritime Provinces have the Association of Atlantic Universities which is probably the most effective such body in the country. Both Duff-Berdahl and Bladen proposed that each province establish a master plan for higher education. Bladen sees formula-financing as one incentive to cooperation, as it would discourage costly duplication, especially in graduate studies.

Implicit in the recommendation that provinces create systems of higher education rather than perpetuating isolated and entirely independent universities is the problem of differentiation of function and degree of specialization. For example, in 1966 the Committee of Presidents of the Universities of Ontario set up a commission to investigate graduate study and research in the fourteen provincially-supported universities in Ontario.[17] The Spinks Commission discovered costly duplications in graduate work,

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[17]The Spinks Commission (named as is the custom, after its Chairman, Dr. John Spinks, President of the University of Saskatchewan).

insufficient coordination among universities and financial inadequacies, particularly in library acquisition.[18]

The Commission recommended, therefore, additional financial assistance for research, most of which should be administered by an Ontario Universities Research Council which would insure that adequate research facilities be established and that the needs of the province be met by rational cooperation among universities. The recommendations went on to suggest that academic as well as fiscal coordination be effected, primarily through creation of the University of Ontario which would be a center of excellence for the province and into which would fit the existing provincially-supported universities in a coordinated fashion.[19]

The university presidents unanimously rejected the prospect of a University of Ontario and with it the London and California models, though they admitted their lassitude in bringing about coordinated planning.[20] It is likely that the Spinks Report will accelerate incipient efforts at coordination.

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[18]See "Ontario Graduate Commission Report", University Affairs, Vol. 8, No. 3, February, 1967, pp. 1-2; also J. W. T. Spinks, "The Spinks Report", Canadian University, March-April, 1967, pp. 51-52.

[19]It is significant that of the four commissioners, three were from the University of Saskatchewan, the University of California and the University of London. The fourth was from the Ontario Department of University Affairs.

[20]Dr. J. A. Corry, Chairman of the Committee of Presidents, replied on behalf of the committee in an article "The Spinks Report", The Globe and Mail, Toronto, December 30, 1966, p. 7 (reprinted in University Affairs, Ibid., pp. 3-4).

These three factors--university government, finance and cooperation--are important to this study, not only because they are timely but because they represent changes which may well affect the degree to which the recommendations to be found in chapter VI, below, are susceptible to implementation. In sum, the changes imminent in university government should mean a stronger role for faculty personnel (and even students) and Boards and Senates which will hopefully be more responsive to the needs of society. Formula-financing means that education is thrust more firmly than ever into the arms of the provinces, at least fiscally. The push for coordination opens the door even wider on the possibility of joint international work and library acquisitions among universities. Though it is far too early to predict with certainty precisely what influence these trends will exert, there seem to be at least these possibilities.

B. The Universities and Technical Assistance

1. University Contracts

For many years there have been in Canada close working relations between universities and the Department of External Affairs. "Some of our most distinguished Canadians, men like O. D. Skelton, R. A. MacKay, George Glazebrook, Norman Robertson, Marcel Cadieux and many others, have been and are equally at home

in either milieu."[21] Yet in that specialized aspect of external affairs known as technical assistance, the experience of Canadian universities is comparatively recent. As noted above, assistance to developing nations was once thought to be a temporary matter and not until 1960 did the Canadian government establish an office for its administration. This apparent absence of challenge and lack of adequate administrative machinery merely served to confirm the traditional provincial attitudes of Canadian universities. With the advent of the EAO and radically increased emphasis on technical assistance, however, the university community began, albeit slowly, to respond to requests for educational assistance.

The first team contract for overseas educational assistance was signed in 1961 and provided for the University of British Columbia to assist the University of Malaya and the University of Singapore over a five-year period to establish courses in accounting and business administration.

Subsequently, university-External Aid Office contracts have been implemented in such fields and with such contractors as these:

Social Work (University of the West Indies)	University of Toronto
Medicine (University of Madras)	McGill University

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[21]Paul Martin, "The University and International Affairs", speech delivered to the National Conference of Canadian Universities and Colleges, Ottawa, April 20, 1964. Statements and Speeches, No. 64/8, Information Division, Department of External Affairs, Ottawa, 1964.

Anaesthesia (University of Lagos	University of Toronto
Social Work (University of Dacca)	McGill University
Engineering (Karnataka Regional Engineering College, India)	University of Toronto
Institute of Community Planning (Ghana)	University of British Columbia
Adult Education (University of Rajasthan)	University of British Columbia
Business Management (Multi-national through EAO)	Waterloo Lutheran University
Secondary Education (Ministry of Education, Thailand)	University of Alberta
Agriculture, Engineering (University of the North East, Thailand)	University of Manitoba
Law (Haile Sellassie University, Ethiopia)	University of Montreal in cooperation with McGill University

University contracts, like other technical assistance projects, are responsive to official requests. They are designed to be developed in cooperation with local authorities in fields which are felt by the hosts to demand priority. The Director of the Education Division of EAO states: "We have only attempted to meet those requests which are based on realistic priorities of development, where there are reasonable staff-student ratios, and where there is some assurance that the local authorities will,

out of their own resources, ultimately be able to sustain the faculty or institution involved."[22]

The terms of External Aid Office contracts are similar to those of United States Agency for International Development contracts. The host nation usually provides living and transportation allowances. The university provides the advisory faculty and the project leadership. The EAO finances transportation, overhead costs to the Canadian institution and the funds for operating and equipping the project. Contract periods have run from two to five years, and some like Toronto's effort to assist in the establishment of a Regional Engineering College in Mangalore, India, have been terminated prior to completion.[23]

In addition to advisory personnel and administrative services, the Canadian university customarily provides training for counterparts on site and for trainees on the home campus. As well, research and evaluation provisions are often written into the contract. Teaching duties are important but a good deal of the advisor's time is given to assistance in academic planning. A number of senior Canadian faculty have acted as administrators, especially in new or recently created departments, faculties and even of whole universities.

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[22]Harry J. Hodder, "Canadian Aid to Developing Countries", J. E. Hodgetts (ed.), Higher Education in a Changing Canada (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1966), p. 31.

[23]In this case for lack of sufficient cooperation on the part of the host country authorities.

Evaluations of contracts are made at mid-contract and upon completion by the contracting university, the EAO and the Canadian mission in the host nation. Almost all contracts fall within Canadian technical assistance agreements with countries of the Colombo Plan, Commonwealth and Francophone Africa.

Much the greatest part of the experience of Canadian universities abroad had been in what has come to be termed institution-building. Canadian advisors have been mostly senior university faculty who assist in the establishment and development of new departments and faculties. Such is the case in each of the contracts listed above. In each case it is intended by all three parties to the agreement that Canadian assistance be phased out as the host country institution develops the capacity to become self-sustaining in both personnel and finances.

The team approach has so far been difficult, or at least slow, to develop in universities in Canada, owing largely to the pressing domestic need for faculty and the rapid growth of universities. Most university participation continues to be the assignment by the EAO directly of individual faculty members to institutions abroad. In such cases the faculty members take leave from their campus for one or two years and EAO pays their costs in addition to an amount for overhead to their university. Their advisory tasks are essentially the same as those of a team except that briefing, administration and policy are managed entirely by EAO. The size of this program has grown from five professors in 1961 to 110 for the 1966-1967 academic year.

A combination of the individual and team approaches can be seen in the program in which 35 French-speaking academics have assisted in the establishment of the National University of Rwanda under the auspices of the EAO and the host government.

2. The Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada[24]

As Canada's only agency acting in the interests of the academic community at the national level, the A.U.C.C. figures strongly in shaping the response of the universities to international work on a number of fronts.

Constitutionally the A.U.C.C. was created by Act of Parliament (1965) to succeed and expand on its predecessor, the Canadian Universities Foundation. It brings together on a voluntary basis 59 institutions of higher education in Canada. The functions of the organizations include "the study of current problems of higher education; the systematic collection of information about academic programmes and administrative practices of universities; the administration of programmes of student aid and international cooperation; and the making of representations to governments on behalf of the membership as a whole."[25]

The Secretariat of the A.U.C.C., located in Ottawa, has a Domestic Programmes Division, Awards Division, a Research and Information Service and an International Programmes Division.

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[24]Hereafter called A.U.C.C.

[25]Canadian Universities and Colleges 1966, p. 1.

The International Programmes Division attempts a number of roles, namely:

a) the administration of the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan;

b) the facilitation of the movement of students from developing countries to Canadian universities;

c) the discovery of faculty for universities in developing countries;

d) the publication of information materials for foreign students coming to Canada;

e) the evaluation of transcripts of secondary, university and professional education from overseas;

f) the undertaking of a continuing study of the performance of foreign students in Canada;

g) the encouragement of institution-to-institution relationships between Canadian universities and universities in developing countries; and

h) the commissioning and publishing of special studies such as the Hamlin-Lalande study: International Studies in Canadian Universities, 1964.

The Division works closely with government and private agencies interested in international affairs and, in general, acts as a continuing liaison between those agencies and the universities wherever matters arise which have to do with international cooperation in higher education.

3. Canadian University Service Overseas[26]

Symptomatic of the apparently growing social and political involvement of young people and the drive for international development has been the international voluntary movement of the past ten years.

The objectives of voluntary service are to do charitable and useful work in developing areas at low cost. Equally important are the objectives of fostering better relations between countries and of providing an educational experience for the volunteers themselves.

The volunteer movement, now worldwide with about 160 organizations sending out some 17,000 volunteers,[27] began in Australia and New Zealand in a modest way in the early fifties. In 1958 the British Voluntary Service Overseas was established on a larger scale and in 1961, the United States Peace Corps came into being, making the voluntary movement a growing source of mid-level manpower for technical assistance.

CUSO evolved organizationally from a clutch of groups on Canadian campuses about 1960, several of which sent their own

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[26]Hereafter called CUSO.

[27]Adrian Moyes, Volunteers in Development (London: Overseas Development Institute, 1966), p. 10. An account of the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service written by its Secretary-General is William A. Delano, "Volunteers and Development", International Development Review, September, 1966, pp. 2-7.

volunteers overseas.[28] In 1961 these diverse elements coalesced as CUSO and the first CUSO volunteer reached Bombay on September 4, 1961, three days after the first Peace Corps group arrived in Ghana. Not until 1962, however, was the program consolidated. That year fifty volunteers were placed. The program has since grown to 570 volunteers in 1966-1967 serving in 35 countries of the developing world. The number of volunteers anticipated for the fall of 1967 is 1,000. This makes the Canadian program approximately fourth in size after those of the United States, Great Britain and West Germany.

CUSO emerged from a campus setting and has since been careful to maintain its identity as a private, university-based organization. It does receive government support, however, in the amount of about eighty per cent of its budget. This amalgam of government financing and private control is characteristic, in addition to CUSO, of the Belgian, Dutch, British and Danish voluntary services as contrasted with those operated by government agencies such as the United States Peace Corps and the German Development Service. This has meant for CUSO a felicitous combination of operational flexibility, non-political flavor and yet sufficient resources upon which to base an expanding program. To insure the university connection, CUSO is directed by an Executive Committee

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[28]The origins, development and program of CUSO are dealt with in detail in G. S. M. Woolcombe, Canadian University Service Overseas: A Case Study of an Overseas Volunteer Program (Unpublished M.A. thesis, Pennsylvania State University, 1965).

of ten persons almost all of whom have been or are associated with university life and two of whom must be students. Funds are solicited from a number of business and private organizations to supplement government grants. The university connection is further observable in the recruitment, selection and training of CUSO volunteers. Local CUSO committees have been established at each university in Canada. These committees are composed of faculty, students (often returned volunteers) and community representatives and they provide for publicity, recruitment and the preliminary screening of potential volunteers. Then the local committee forwards its recommendations to the National Selection Committee for final selection. The extent to which this local selection method is valid may be gauged from the fact that in 1966, of the 493 prospective volunteers interviewed and recommended by local university committees, 473 were chosen by the National Selection Committee.[29]

Orientation, too, is held on university campuses across the country with university faculty responsible for the content, method and administration of the training in consultation with the national CUSO office. Up to 1966, about 80 per cent of all volunteers were university graduates.

Volunteers go overseas in answer to requests from host governments and on arrival become employees of, and thus responsible to, the local agency. Local rates of remuneration

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[29]CUSO Bulletin, August, 1966, p. 6.

apply to CUSO volunteers and in fact the recipient government is expected to meet a large amount of the costs of the program from its own resources. CUSO volunteers do not come free. Up to fifty or sixty per cent of the salary, food and accommodation costs of CUSO volunteers is met by the recipient government.[30] This works out to be one-third of the total costs of CUSO's program.

4. Overseas Students

In many ways the most significant fact about foreign students in Canada is their numbers. From this fact flow the related items which become of concern to a university.

The number of international students represents roughly six per cent of the total Canadian university enrollment. Of these, approximately one-third are students from the United States; the rest come from some 150 nations. In Ontario students from outside Canada constituted 8.3 per cent of the total enrollment in 1965-1966.[31] This total, some 11,284 in 1965-1966, is made up of two main groups, namely; the more than 8,000 non-sponsored students accepted annually by Canadian universities and some 1,000 brought

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[30]Moyes, p. 66. The cost to CUSO of placing one volunteer overseas for two years is about $2,500. This compares with about $16,500 for United States Peace Corps or $12,600 for the German Volunteer Service (Ibid., p. 67).

[31]University Affairs in Ontario 1966, a statement by William G. Davis, Minister of Education, to the Ontario Legislature, June 16, 1966, p. 6.

to Canada under the terms of various aid agreements.[32] Universities tend to regard the education provided for non-sponsored international students as a considerable contribution to international development since only one-third of the costs of a university education is met by tuition.

It is significant that the proportion of non-Canadian students in the full-time university enrollment in Canada has remained consistently (about six per cent) in view of the fact that full-time enrollments have doubled since 1960.

The universities, mainly through the clearinghouse offices of the A.U.C.C., are consulted regarding the disposition of scholarships and fellowships for international students, particularly through the provisions of the Colombo Plan, the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan, the Special Commonwealth African Plan and the Commonwealth Caribbean Assistance Plan. Other efforts in the foreign student field which are to some degree coordinated have been assistance to the African Students Foundation and to an organization called the Canadian Service for Overseas Students and Trainees (C.S.O.S.T.). For the African Students Foundation the universities have found tuition-free places for a number of African students and, in the same connection, have assisted in selection procedures. As for CSOST, which serves the welfare of overseas students in Canada, universities took an important

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[32]G. C. Andrew, "External Aid or International Cooperation", in J. E. Hodgetts (ed.), p. 43.

initiative not only in its foundation but also in its financing. Approximately $2,500 a year are contributed by the AUCC for the support of CSOST. J. A. Corry, then President of the National Conferences of Canadian Universities and Colleges, estimated that the cost to "individual university budgets for both tuition and welfare services to foreign students in Canadian universities would be well in excess of $10,000,000 a year.[33]

Several studies are complete or in progress which give detailed information on foreign student origins, academic progress and related items.[34]

C. International Studies

One result of the international involvement of Canadian universities has been the growth in recent years of what broadly is termed international studies. In some cases, as at Toronto, McGill and British Columbia, international studies have long been part of university activity but on the whole developments in international studies (by which is meant the international elements in teaching and research programs) have occurred alongside Canada's aid program. Professorial assignments abroad and the presence of foreign students, coupled with and related to Canadian

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[33]From a letter to Paul Martin, Secretary of State for External Affairs, April 3, 1965, p. 2.

[34]See, for instance, University Student Expenditure and Income in Canada 1961-62: Part I--Non-Canadian Students (Ottawa: Dominion of Bureau of Statistics, 1963).

foreign policy since World War II, have been important catalysts in the process.

Several components of international studies merit attention here:

1. Teaching and Research

Only one large-scale study of the place of international studies in the universities of Canada has been done up to this writing.[35] In it Hamlin and Lalande review the state of Russian and East European studies, Asian studies, African studies and Latin American studies in Canada. Programs dealing with Western Europe, the white Commonwealth and the United States of America were left out of their survey as it was felt that these areas have been included in conventional curricula.

For the sake of perspective and to bring up to date some of the Hamlin-Lalande observations, the following summary of international studies programs, offered or being planned, is proffered, by institution and field.[36]

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[35]The study, though in one volume, appears in two parts: D. L. B. Hamlin, International Studies in Canadian Universities, and Gilles Lalande, L'étude des relations internationales et de certaines civilisations étrangères au Canada (Ottawa: Canadian Universities Foundation, 1964).

[36]A variety of sources have yielded this information, such as: university calendars; the Hamlin-Lalande study; personal correspondence; the Canadian National Commission for UNESCO and the A.U.C.C. The data are current as of September, 1966. Items marked with an asterisk are those expected to be initiated imminently.

University	Program
Acadia	West Indian Studies (graduate and undergraduate)
Alberta	Centre of International Affairs (graduate study and research) (interdisciplinary) *Slavonic Studies Africa (7 courses); Asia (10 courses); Middle East (2 courses)
British Columbia	Far Eastern Studies South Asian Studies (in cooperation with Simon Fraser University) Slavonic Studies Asia (15 courses); Middle East (3 courses)
Brock	Africa (1 course); Asia (2 courses)
Calgary	Latin American Studies (second subject for honors degree) Africa (2 courses); Asia (2 courses)
Carleton	Soviet and East European Studies (honors degree) School of International Affairs (M.A. degree) Public Administration Diploma
Dalhousie	Africa (2 courses); Asia (1 course)
Guelph	Centre for International Programs (coordination for teaching, research, technical assistance and exchange) Africa (3 courses); Asia (8 courses)
King's College (Halifax)	Latin American Institute
Lakehead	Asia (2 courses)
Laval	*International Centre on Bilingualism (research) Institute of Geography (international research interests) International Relations (M.A. degree) Africa (3 courses); Asia (3 courses); Middle East (3 courses)

Loyola	African Studies (undergraduate) Middle East (2 courses)
Manitoba	International Relations (M.A. degree) Slavonic Studies (M.A. degree) Asia (1 course)
Memorial	South Asian Studies (M.A. degree)
McGill	Centre for Developing Area Studies (graduate study and research) Institute of Islamic Studies (graduate study and research) Air and Space Law Institute Africa (3 courses); Asia (10 courses--mainly on India)
McMaster	Comparative Studies (Political Science) Africa (3 courses); Asia (5 courses)
Moncton	International Law (1 course)
Montreal	International Relations (M.A. degree) *Comparative Legal Studies African Studies Diploma (1 year past B.A.) (32 courses offered) Africa (11 courses); Asia (3 courses)
New Brunswick	North American Studies the major emphasis Africa (2 courses); Asia (2 courses)
Ottawa	*Centre of International Cooperation Diploma in International Public Administration West Indies Studies (graduate and undergraduate)
Queen's	*Institute of International Studies *International Relations *International Law Africa (2 courses); Asia (4 courses)
St. Francis Xavier	Coady International Institute (Cooperatives and Community Development Training)
St. Mary's	International Studies (Political Science) (undergraduate)

Saskatchewan (Saskatoon)	Slavic Studies and Far Eastern Studies (undergraduate) Middle East (2 courses) Graduate Courses in International Law, Politics and Economics
Simon Fraser	South and South East Asia (Anthropology-Sociology) Africa (2 courses); Asia (9 courses)
Sir George Williams	Africa (3 courses); Asia (6 courses); Middle East (1 course)
Toronto	International Studies Programme (coordinates area studies) Centre for Russian and East European Studies Centre for International Relations Near Eastern Studies East Asian Studies Islamic Studies
Victoria	Asia (7 courses)
Western Ontario	Africa (1 course); Asia (3 courses); Middle East (1 course) Latin American Research and Library Development
Windsor	*East Asian Studies International Relations (interdisciplinary honors degree)
York	Africa (1 course); Asia (2 courses)

The curricular offerings characteristic of these programs are concentrated in the social sciences and, to a lesser extent, the humanities. Professional schools have largely eschewed the international emphasis in teaching and research, with exceptions of agriculture, law, and faculties of education offering comparative education. The University of Montreal's African Studies Diploma offers courses in tropical medicine and hygiene on a non-degree

basis. Most schools of medicine, engineering, business administration, architecture, forestry, social work and so on do little in this connection.

The above list, however, represents measurable expansion in very recent years, especially in courses on Asia and Africa. The first meeting of the Committee on African Studies was held only in 1962. One 1963 sample of university course offerings on Africa, Asia and the Middle East showed 54 courses. The same sample in 1966 indicated that the number had risen to 100.[37] Another indication of growth is in the number of scholars working in Asian, African, Slavic, West Indian and Latin American Studies. One register of scholars contributing to studies of Asia and Africa compiled in 1964 lists 52.[38] The UNESCO survey identified 147 scholars working in Asian Studies alone.

2. Exchange and Special Programs

Student and faculty exchange schemes have contributed to the growth in international awareness on Canadian campuses. In addition to large numbers of overseas students coming to Canada, increasing numbers of Canadian students are studying abroad. To be sure, most of this study is in Europe but under the terms of the Commonwealth

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[37]Survey compiled by the Canadian National Commission for UNESCO, September, 1966 (unpublished).

[38]W. A. C. H. Dobson (ed.), The Contribution of Canadian Universities to an Understanding of Asia and Africa (Ottawa: Canadian National Commission for UNESCO, 1964).

Scholarship and Fellowship Plan, Canadian students beginning to choose to study in non-western countries of the Commonwealth. The doctorate at McGill's Centre for Developing Area Studies requires at least one year of living overseas. The A.U.C.C. administers a number of awards for study abroad outside the Commonwealth. The University of Toronto's Centre for Russian and East European Studies conducts a student exchange program with the University of Moscow. Toronto is also working out a program of faculty exchange among Duke University, the University of Toronto, the University of London and the University of East Africa. Alberta operates a similar exchange with Schevchenko Kieve State University in the Soviet Union.

Faculty exchanges are more numerous in view of the habit of "twinning" between Canadian and overseas universities. In its fullest expression, "twinning" gives opportunities for student and faculty exchanges, (for both degree studies and research) and technical assistance if the partner university is in a developing country. Worthy of note is the exchange between McGill University Medical School and the Chinese Medical University, Peking. In 1966 this meant two Chinese professors coming to Canada.

Two recent reports have indicated means for facilitating exchange. One, submitted to the A.U.C.C. by the Director of its International Programmes Division, grows out of the increasing mutual interest in each other of Quebec and France.[39] The other,

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[39]June 18, 1966 (mimeo).

longer and more specialized, suggests for the first time a systematic approach to collaboration between Canadian and Latin American universities.[40]

A number of special study programs should be noted here since they are outside the usual curricular and research patterns. The University of Windsor has a non-credit program in English language for students from Sophia University, Tokyo. Thirty-five Japanese students took the course in the summer of 1966. The University of Toronto introduced in 1963 a two-year diploma course in Economic Development, primarily, though not exclusively, for students from developing countries. St. Francis Xavier University in Antigonish attracts students (non-degree) from some 30 countries each year for an eight-month diploma program in social leadership, cooperatives management and rural development. Carleton University has held an eight-month diploma program in public administration for students from developing nations, an optional part of which was the opportunity of spending four months in a government department in Ottawa on completion of the course. Mention has already been made of the similar course being offered at the University of Ottawa which is mainly for French-speaking civil servants from overseas.

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[40]Gerard Dion, Suitability, Possibility and Means of Inter-University Collaboration between Canada and Latin American Countries in the Field of the Social Sciences (Ottawa: A.U.C.C., 1966).

There are other international resources in Canadian universities which are almost always ignored, both in discussions of this sort and by universities themselves. The first of these is the large number of faculty who come from countries other than Canada. Owing largely to the failure of Canada's graduate schools to provide sufficient graduates to staff the universities during the current period of unprecedented growth, Canada has had to rely on the "brain drain" from other countries for over one-third of all new faculty appointments since 1960. In 1962, for example, 49 per cent of all new faculty members were recruited outside Canada.[41] The University of Guelph, to cite only one example, engaged faculty in 1966 from 21 countries. Coupled to this is the attempt to repatriate Canadian graduate students from the United States, Britain and Europe, all of whom have at least been exposed to the advantages provided by study abroad.[42]

The second of these virtually untapped resources is returned CUSO volunteers. Abroad for two years, these volunteers are trickling back to Canada in growing numbers and it is significant that 20 or 30 per cent of them are known to be going on for further study. One sample of 193 returnees showed that 43 were enrolled in university, 37 of them in graduate schools.[43] Another

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[41]J. A. Corry, p. 10.

[42]The writer has had personal experience with this approach to repatriation.

[43]CUSO Bulletin, February, 1966, p. 8.

indicated that of a group of 101 returned volunteers in late 1965, 34 were continuing their studies, exclusive of a number who were training to become teachers.[44]

D. Summary

Canadian universities have evolved over time, a variety of approaches to curriculum, staffing, financing and organization. In this century the work of the universities has been greatly broadened until now a large number of professional and applied studies are undertaken. Post-graduate studies are enjoying unprecedented expansion as is university enrollment at all levels. This rapid growth in enrollment and in the absolute number of universities and other institutions of post-secondary education has meant a good deal of rethinking under strain of members. Financing arrangements between the federal and provincial governments have been revised, placing more securely than ever the responsibility for higher education under provincial control. A broadened base of university government is developing to take account of faculty and student demands for a larger voice in higher education. A number of study commissions have made sweeping recommendations for changes, many of which have already been adopted.

It is in this setting of change and uncertainty that the universities have been finding their way into international

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[44]Woolcombe, p. 131.

activities of various kinds. Technical assistance contracts, overseas research and exchange arrangements, efforts to deal with larger and larger numbers of foreign students, CUSO recruitment and training--all of these have been developing side by side. The national universities secretariat, the A.U.C.C., has provided coordination for some of these activities.

Virtually all of this activity has taken shape since 1960 and has become most pronounced since 1963. This factor of time and other considerations give rise to a range of problems and challenges confronting the universities in international activity. It is these issues which the next chapter will attempt to analyze.

CHAPTER V

PROBLEMS CONFRONTING THE UNIVERSITIES IN INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITY

A mixture of optimism and disappointment dogs the attempts of anyone to evaluate international activity in Canadian universities--optimism because so much seems to have been achieved in a short time, disappointment in that much more could have been done. The purpose of this chapter of the study is briefly to describe some of the principal difficulties presently facing universities in order more precisely to prescribe in the final chapter possible means by which the universities might play a more effective part.

A. Attitude

Though elusive of documentation, it is nevertheless fair to say that a certain smugness attends much of the planning and policy-making in Canadian universities. This is a smugness born of a confidence in being adequate, if not superior, as measured by some intuitive assessment of higher education around the world. Historically, this satisfaction grows out of experience somewhere between European (especially British) and American universities. A feeling for tradition and a distrust of rapid innovation consolidate this stance. One of its major effects has been a provincialism in higher education not only vis à vis the world community but even among the provinces. Only recently has this

begun to break down but strong evidence of provincialism remains. For example, speaking of the place of the university in the Canadian community, Principal Corry of Queen's University, then President of the A.U.C.C., said in his President's Address:

> There is a world-wide community of scholars in which we want to affirm our membership and enlarge our part. Of course, the Canadian university has a concern for humanity that goes beyond national boundaries but if it cannot come to effective terms with the society from which it must draw its energy and vitality, it cannot do much for humanity at large or cut much of a figure on the world stage. At this particular moment of time, our first attention must be fixed on the place of the university in the Canadian community. This is a big enough subject for me today.[1]

The result of this reluctance to cultivate an international point of view has been a half-hearted and casual attempt to seize the chances clearly available to universities in research, teaching and related enterprises.

It can be pointed out, of course, that the demands of Canadian higher education preclude more resources of money and faculty being freed for international activity. This again is the manifestation of a parochial attitude which holds that such activity is marginal to a university's real and immediate concerns. Such a premise is not hard to identify in the thinking of university people in Canada today. As a result, much of the growth in international activity is somewhat superficial and is paid as much lip service as concrete

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[1]Proceedings: Annual Meeting, Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1965 (Ottawa: Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1965), p. 40.

attention. Deep commitment is rarely apparent, though the seeds of change are beginning to be visible, as shown in chapter III. What cannot be gainsaid, however, is the evident fact that such international activity as is undertaken by Canadian universities is by no means commensurate with their capabilities and available resources. The attitudes necessary for grasping the significant possibilities for universities in international work have failed to keep up the sweep of international events, or indeed, to Canada's changing role in the world community. Consequently, international work in Canada's universities "has not yet achieved maturity or international significance".[2] Or, as put to the author by an official of the External Aid Office, the response of the universities to technical assistance varies "from enthusiasm to complete ignorance". The world, as opposed to the province and nation, has not yet become the frame of reference for higher education in Canada. Lalande has put it even more severely: "The degree to which international studies as a whole are being neglected in most of our universities is to my mind an unmistakable sign of the general Canadian indifference towards foreign lands".[3]

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[2]Norman MacKenzie in his Foreward to Hamlin and Lalande, p. v.

[3]Gilles Lalande, "Canadian Aid to French Developing Countries", in J. E. Hodgetts (ed.), p. 37.

B. Organization

From the underlying question of attitude spring the other principal barriers to university involvement in international work of various kinds. One is organizational arrangements.

The administration of international activities has developed, in short, on an ad hoc basis with few exceptions. The universities have taken on technical assistance projects, area studies, exchange programs and foreign students in a patchwork, each quite unrelated to the other. Individual faculty have gone abroad with little support from the home campus. Team projects have come to life, then subsided without any impact whatever on campus life. The Malaysian project of the University of British Columbia, for instance, engaged the services of only three or four U.B.C. faculty, none of whom, it was intimated to the author, has had occasion to alter appreciably his teaching or research since returning. Moreover, among these faculty members there is little intention to take subsequent overseas assignments, in Malaysia or elsewhere. The coordinator of the project worked abroad for a time, leaving no one on the home campus for supporting administration. Admittedly, this was the first technical assistance effort by a Canadian university. But, writing several years later about McGill University's well known Institute of Islamic Studies, Norman MacKenzie, chairman of the committee which sponsored the Hamlin-Lalande report, said: "I was disappointed in the impression I received that this excellent work had very

little influence or effect upon the general McGill University community. Apart from the director, Dr. Wilfred Smith, who unfortunately for Canada is taking up a post in the United States, there seemed to be very few Canadians attached to the Institute, either as staff or students, and little evidence that the Institute had done much to introduce any of the McGill undergraduates to this most important and interesting field of international studies."[4]

Such fragmentation of approach has been characteristic. Most efforts have been centered on graduate study and research[5] with undergraduate studies being given rather short shrift and foreign student programs almost no special attention at all. Professional schools have, on the whole, scarcely entered the field of international teaching and research, preferring to release personnel occasionally through the External Aid Office. As indicated in chapter IV, only a few courses in comparative law and education alter this profile.

Most centres, like McGill University's Centre for Developing Area Studies, Institute of Islamic Studies and the University of Toronto's International Studies Program remain removed from undergraduate education, which by all odds accounts for the

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[4]Hamlin and Lalande, p. xi.

[5]Though Lalande asserts: "There is not yet...throughout the whole of Canada, a single, well-equipped research centre for dealing with underdeveloped or developing countries". (Ibid., p. 37.)

greatest part of the work of Canadian universities. The only institution in Canada giving attention to a balanced and coordinated approach to international activity on all fronts is the University of Guelph, whose Senate has adopted a comprehensive international program.

Within universities, the interdisciplinary method of studying problems in international perspective has been slow to catch on. Part of the reason for this, as for most of the shortcomings cited here, is the pressing need for faculty in expanding academic departments. But, as Hamlin points out, "inter-departmental cooperation is essential"[6] and so long as it fails to develop, cross-cultural studies will continue to lag.

Among universities, the same reluctance to cooperate remain evident, though it is beginning to break down as noted in chapter IV. No consortium of universities has yet appeared to coordinate faculty exchanges, library growth and similar costly items related to international activity.

C. Finance

Again, for reasons of domestic needs and in the shift in methods of university financing little in the way of reliable financial arrangements has been worked out for international activity. Technical assistance contracts have been funded by

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[6]Ibid., p. 87.

the External Aid Office, but few such contracts have provided for items beyond expenses plus overhead, such as research. Other aspects of international work have been financed on a catch-as-catch-can footing. This has persisted partly because no university in Canada has yet confronted EAO with a scheme needing funds beyond the requirements of a contract period. Interviews suggest that EAO would willingly entertain a longer-range approach on the part of universities.

In the meantime universities finance their budding international activities from various sources. Philanthropic foundations in the United States are some of the most generous of these. The Hamlin-Lalande study was supported by the Carnegie Corporation; Laval University's new Centre on Bilingualism is Ford Foundation financed, as in part has been McGill's Centre for Developing Area Studies. Many visiting professorships, exchanges, library grants and fellowships are provided by U.S. foundations. Toronto's International Studies Program was supported initially by a 100,000 dollar bequest. The Laidlaw Foundation assists the University of Toronto's Centre for Russian and East European Studies. Scholarly grants emanate from the Canada Council and the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Councils.

Beyond this assortment of financing, universities dig into operating budgets for expanded departmental teaching and research needs. They do so somewhat reluctantly especially in institutions (and this covers the vast majority) which regard international studies, technical assistance and similar affairs as marginal.

A certain embarrassment is expressed occasionally about the willingness of American foundations to support international work in Canadian universities while Canadian sources of wealth remain comparatively stingy. Without EAO provisions, and these are always related to aid policy, academic work in international fields would depend largely on American funding agencies. Speaking of the Carnegie, Rockefeller and Ford Foundations, Hamlin says: "Without the grants which they have made Canada would not have those facilities which exist today in Russian and East European Studies and Asian Studies".[7] T. L. Hills of McGill's Centre for Developing Area Studies estimates that over 50 per cent of international research by Canadians is financed by U.S. sources.[8] It is beyond question that great cost is involved in expanding along the lines suggested in this study and in such other proposals as those of Hamlin and Lalande. Travel grants, library collections, scholarships and language facilities require amounts of some magnitude especially during the early years of a program. Hamlin estimates the financial requirements to be 100,000 to 200,000 dollars per year for five to ten years for a university planning on "comprehensive facilities for undergraduates and graduate study and research in one field".[9] Such a scale of need does not provide

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[7] Ibid., p. 83.

[8] T. L. Hills, "Canada and Research Relevant to the Developing Countries", Ottawa, Overseas Institute of Canada, November, 1965 (mimeo) p. 5.

[9] Ibid., p. 85. McGill's Institute for Islamic Studies and Toronto's Centre for Russian and East European Studies now plan for periods of five years.

grounds for unbridled optimism when the current availability of finances in Canada is considered.

D. Relations with Government

> Unfortunately, there is at present no machinery designed to relate the total involvement of the university community in international co-operation to the involvement of the Government, with the result that in specific fields like university teacher recruitment, there is no way at present by which we can set agreed upon targets representing what Canada can reasonably be expected to produce over and above producing the increased numbers required for her own purposes. The production of university and college teachers takes a long time and we should be planning ahead jointly if this would seem to be an important segment of the Canadian programme of international co-operation.
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> In addition to setting target figures, of course, it is desirable to try to establish relatively uniform procedures throughout the academic community with regard to the granting of leave for fairly extended periods, the provision of pension continuity, and the host of other technical matters, having to do with salary equivalents, insurance coverage, etc.[10]

Here Dr. J. A. Corry points up one of the barriers to effective university participation in international cooperation. University-EAO relations originated on an individual basis and have remained so. Neither the universities nor the Office had established procedures for continuing liaison nor, indeed, for expediting even individual contracts. The writer interviewed one university desk officer in the EAO who had not visited a

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[10]Letter from J. A. Corry, President, National Conference of Canadian Universities and Colleges, to Paul Martin, Secretary of State for External Affairs, June 8, 1965.

single university in the course of his work on overseas contracts. In negotiations with both individual faculty members or teams, the EAO has been painfully slow in concluding arrangements with the result that projects are delayed in starting longer than should be the case. The reasons given by the EAO for such delay are that selection procedures are rigorous and that the speed of host country approval is beyond EAO control. In addition, the EAO is desperately short of qualified staff, such has been the growth of the Office's work in the past half-dozen years.

University contractors interviewed indicate for their part, that despite delays, their relations with government are positive and satisfactory. The tendency is to negotiate on a safe basis, however, in that delays seem to be compounded whenever an element of innovation is introduced into the contractual terms. One university administrator indicated that to get his unorthodox program underway he had to insist vehemently on special provisions. These were met and relations have remained satisfactory. But the ad hoc nature of arrangements, particularly for individual contracts, have made for ponderous administration by both parties and have had the effect of discouraging some promising projects.

The question of university autonomy in relation to government has not been fully aired but is likely to be of greater impact in the near future.[11] EAO officials insist that they give direction

[11]For comparative purposes, a recent American report is of interest in this connection: J. M. Richardson, Jr., An Analysis of AID-University Relations 1950-1965 (Minneapolis: Centre for Comparative Political Analysis, University of Minnesota, Preliminary Report for Project Use, 1967), especially Chapter 8.

to university technical assistance work since policy is a government function, though their intent is to offer this direction in a purely advisory fashion so as not to infringe on university autonomy. Universities have no influence on policy in cases of individual faculty released to the EAO.

This issue is coming to the fore as the A.U.C.C. increases its interest in international cooperation. On behalf of the universities, this body is giving more and more attention to international activity. There is some apprehensiveness in EAO that the A.U.C.C. will want to move into the area of the EAO's authority for administration and implementation of university contracts. A.U.C.C. is thus seen as interposing itself between the EAO and the individual universities. Moreover, the EAO sees the A.U.C.C. as an official body speaking for university presidents whereas the EAO, as was intimated in one interview, wishes not to crystallize its relationships with administrations only but is interested in communicating with other levels within the university community.

For its part, the A.U.C.C. has never felt that the EAO has shown sufficient interest and confidence in Canadian institutions of higher education. Never, up to the time of this writer's interview with officials of its secretariat, had the A.U.C.C. been approached by government on the creation of policy for staffing or recruitment. Nor had individual universities been canvassed on this or related matters. One official stated that this was because the government was afraid of becoming committed

to finance the recruiting and programing which, if it were free to, the A.U.C.C. might assume. In the absence of what the Director of the A.U.C.C. termed a "national clarion call" to universities by government to maximize their resources for the benefit of international assistance, the A.U.C.C. seems willing to assume additional responsibility. Being, in addition, research-minded, A.U.C.C. people see the need for research to accompany international assistance projects, foreign student programs and the like. The EAO has no research divisions and, though one is planned, during the hiatus the A.U.C.C. may fill the vacuum to some degree, further aggravating the less than ideal relations between these two agencies.

Within the university community itself, there is no planning machinery by which institutions may determine the kind and amount of their international activity. Accordingly the universities respond spontaneously rather than from a basis of rational policy and planning to the requests made to them by government.

E. Overseas Students

This study has already given some idea of the numbers of overseas students in Canada and expected to arrive over the next few years. Assuming uncritically, as the universities appear to be doing, that such an influx is desirable, little thought seems to be given to the best means of providing them with the education they want or need after they arrive in Canada.

The problems and programs of EAO-sponsored students have been discussed by Spicer[12] and Hodder.[13] Though by no means ideally arranged for, these students are the responsibility of EAO in collaboration with universities.

The majority of overseas students are privately sponsored or are scholarship holders. It is tacitly assumed that they want a Canadian education and in general this is what they get with little thought given to appropriateness of this education to the student who presumably will return to his homeland. A Canadian degree program helps to "Canadianize" the student and one result is that numbers of Canadian-trained graduates stay in Canada. Ironically universities often gain by the brain drain since some faculty are attracted to university posts from among the pool of foreign graduates. But development objectives are damaged if skilled people fail to return home. And so many who do return are quite out of step with the temper of their countries and unable quickly to adapt Canadian degree studies to local conditions. Only a fraction of one per cent of EAO-sponsored students have failed to return home. The percentage among privately sponsored students is much higher, though no complete figures have yet been published. At this writing the first major study of foreign students in Canada is being prepared by A.U.C.C. in cooperation with EAO.

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[12]K. Spicer, pp. 229-239.

[13]H. J. Hodder, "Canadian Aid to Developing Countries" in J. E. Hodgetts (ed.).

The universities have accommodated to the growing numbers of foreign students in a hodge-podge of ways, ranging from sophisticated international houses with qualified full-time advisors and staff to almost complete indifference. Few have, however, shown any imagination in adapting curricula to the needs to foreign students. The exceptions have been noted in chapter IV, above.

Without detailing further each interlocking aspect of the foreign student problem in Canada, it should be sufficient to note that the following needs demand attention in a coordinated and consistent way in most Canadian universities: admissions policy, curriculum adaptation, briefing and counseling by qualified full-time personnel, English language training, coordinated reception by local communities,[14] family arrangements for married foreign students, determination of emphasis as between graduate and undergraduate students, housing policies, specialized programs for both degree and non-degree students, overseas advising and selection assistance, financing, research and follow-up to determine effectiveness of programs. Some institutions, such as the University of British Columbia, have made rapid headway in recognizing that these needs are deserving of attention. Most have settled for casual attention to one or two of these items. Meanwhile, the problem literally multiplies.

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[14]See Reception of Short-Term Visitors in Canada (Toronto: Canadian Association for Adult Education, 1963) and the publications of the Canadian Service for Overseas Students and Trainees (C.S.O.S.T.).

F. Exchange

Faculty and student exchange programs have been minimal although the recent developments noted in chapter IV give promise of continued growth. Although exchange arrangements with China, at best difficult to bring about, have been made more awkward by recent internal problems in China, exchanges proceed with the Soviet Union and Europe. The terms of the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan make for fruitful exchanges with a number of Commonwealth countries.

But these exchanges, for graduate study, teaching, research and visiting, have not assumed proportions commensurate with the possibilities. They are essentially the preserve of senior scholars and scientists with less emphasis on graduate students and almost none on undergraduates. Aside from the Commonwealth Scholarships, few sources of support are available for other than established scholars. Junior university faculty and graduate students make do with such support as they can muster.

Exchange relationships with developing countries are even fewer than with Europe, the Soviet Union, the United States and Australia. The intention of Canadian university "twinning" with overseas institutions as a result of an initial technical assistance program has not always resulted, again because of the "donor" attitude, an unwillingness to benefit from a "backward" culture and the persistent need for teaching faculty at home.

CUSO offers a specialized case within this category. Relations with the universities, the writer was assured by the first CUSO

Executive-Secretary are "deep, continuous and good". But the oft-stated intention of CUSO to remain a non-governmental, university-related organization clearly places on both CUSO and the universities the responsibility to clarify the form and depth of that relationship and the extent to which it should continue. Universities have to date assumed responsibility for publicity, initial selection and, to a lesser extent, orientation of trainees, as usual in an informal and voluntary manner without spelling out how this process fits into a university's ongoing concerns. The relationship ceases the moment the trainees leave the campus after orientation. Since a few campuses take care of orientation programs the responsibility of most universities ceases at the moment of initial selection. The campus representatives are interested faculty or administrators who act voluntarily for CUSO and who suffer from inadequate communication with Ottawa. The result is often inadequate publicity, casual recruitment of volunteers and a continuing lack of clear policy. "On many campuses, particularly some of the smaller ones more remote from Ottawa, the Representative does virtually nothing beyond receiving applications and arranging for the candidates' interviews".[15]

The exchange aspect of CUSO has been totally ignored. If universities opt for a larger share of CUSO planning and programing, they may take advantage of the resource represented by the between 25 to 34 per cent of volunteers who return to university after their

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[15]Woolcombe, pp. 105-106.

two years abroad. The potential inherent in such a group of returned volunteers has implications for university instructional, language and research programs which remain almost totally unexplored. So far the universities seem content to select and train volunteers, then admit, quite incidentally, large numbers of them two or three years later in a way which takes no account of their overseas experience.

G. Summary

This brief analysis of selected factors standing between the universities and their more effective role in international activity underscores the basic issue of lingering insular attitudes in the Canadian university community, from which all the other factors mentioned seem to follow. Despite the real pinch on domestic resources, it is these attitudes which prevent Canadian universities from seizing initiatives which might lead to a broadening of their horizons in research, teaching exchange, technical assistance and foreign student programs. So long as the commitment is shallow, international activity will be to continue to be thought of as peripheral and exotic instead of becoming regarded legitimate concerns of higher education in Canada.

Strengthening this conservative stance is the failure to have devised comprehensive administrative procedures to facilitate and expediate the valuable beginnings which have been made. Ad hoc assumption of responsibility has led to ad hoc and casual

administration of technical assistance contracts, overseas student programs and exchange arrangements as well as to rather casual evaluations of the programs during and after their existence.

When it is realized that government agencies have usually been in the van of universities in international activity and that government policies and procedures have been haphazard in their own right, it can be understood why university response to official programs have themselves often been indifferently organized. Failures to agree on the divisions of responsibility between EAO and the universities have further clouded the policies and prerogatives. Hence, little in the way of rationale has been developed by universities into which, singly or together, they may fit curricular developments, foreign student and CUSO programs, research and exchange or by which they can attract the finances necessary to achieve excellence.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusions

1. Resumè of Findings

"Canadian universities have only made a small beginning toward the breakdown of parochialism; they dearly need the open windows and the vistas that international participation can give."[1] This statement succinctly summarizes the findings of this study.

In order, however, to rehearse the grounds upon which recommendations below are based, the following presentation of the major conclusions is offered:

a) The process of economic, political and social advance among the poorer nations of the world has been not only slow but in some cases, even retrogressive.

b) Assistance has been offered the developing nations in various amounts and kinds by the more advanced nations. Despite good intentions, however, the amounts have proved insufficient and the kinds often inappropriate.

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[1]Claude Bissell, "Report of the President to the Governors and Senate of the University of Toronto", reprinted in Varsity Graduate, March, 1966, p. 12.

c) One of the principal aid forms, technical assistance, has meant emphasis on the transfer of skills in the effort to develop human resources.

d) Universities in the more developed countries have been one source of technical assistance. Many have found that benefits have accrued to the university community as a result of international participation.

e) Canada's international position as a middle power and its foreign policy commitments have permitted it to pursue a wide-ranging aid policy. Though far from being commensurate with Canadian capacities and despite certain inadequacies of both policy and execution, this aid is growing more rapidly in proportion than that of other donor nations, and is expected to reach one per cent of Canada's Gross National Product in the early seventies.

f) Canadian higher education has been, roughly since 1960, undergoing rapid growth and change, particularly with respect to enrollment figures, staffing, financing and internal governance. Simultaneously, many universities have been entering the field of international work either as a result of long interest in non-Western studies or in response to government technical assistance faculty assignments. The rise of CUSO and the visibly growing presence of overseas students have given emphasis to the rather recent awareness by universities of the challenge of international activity.

g) Emanating from a lingering legacy of insularity in Canadian universities is a series of obstacles to more effective university participation in international activity. Adequate financing for research and exchange has not appeared and a large proportion of such funds as have been available have been of U.S. origin. Most universities, either individually or as a collectivity, have not devised either policies or administrative arrangements which would permit them to capitalize on the advantages of international work.

h) The spectacular expansion of higher education in Canada has placed strains on faculty and resources at home. This is one principal reason for the delay in expanding upon traditional curricula and in releasing faculty for overseas assignments.

i) Foreign or overseas students in Canada constitute a special problem owing to their numbers, distribution, the cost of their education and their often unrealized potential for assisting the progress of their own countries. Though a large study of this issue is underway at this writing, little attention has been given by the majority of universities to the special needs of this group.

j) The potential for contributing both to international development and international understanding, together with the opportunities for their own gain from

international activity have as yet failed to be grasped by most Canadian universities.

2. A Point of View

Canadian higher education has responded with tolerable style to the internal needs of Canada; it must now accept the challenge of the shrinking world which Canadians inhabit. No longer can Canadian universities be secure islands in a raging and uncertain sea. The vast enterprise of education is part of a global network. To ignore or turn aside from this simple fact is to embrace anti-intellectualism of deep dye. "A university is, by nature, international."[2] It is obliged, in this writer's view, to universalize its horizons and broaden its world-view. In the declining decades of the twentieth century there is no other option. This is the essential philosophic stance necessary if universities are to remain viable and relevant in the years ahead. In this connection, what has been said of American universities is equally appropriate to Canadian higher education.

> The innovators and educators; the originators, modifiers, and transmitters of idea systems; the researchers and teachers; these are characteristically found in or about educational institutions. Insofar as cultures condition folkways, the role of centres of learning is pivotal--as contributions to or distributors of cultural forms and directions. The academic estate has for centuries engaged more than most other elements of society in international communication of scholarship and ideas. It would be strange indeed if the colleges and universities had not been enlisted to play and did not themselves seek a leading role in adjusting the

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[2]Hamlin, p. 94.

> American sense of mission to the needs of a world become so small that its peoples must live together, if they live at all, peaceably and with mutual cooperation.[3]

The central functions of a university are to collect, preserve, disseminate and extend knowledge. The boundaries around knowledge have stretched and even shattered under the impact of world events since 1945. To be satisfied with functioning within now--ancient bounds is to sustain a mere counterfeit of the university role. International involvement on several fronts is an inescapable concomitant of being a university.

Unfortunately, the top levels of academic leadership have been less than vocal and active in their support of this point of view, with a very few exceptions. Evidently they have not internalized what has been pointed out before now,[4] that university involvement in international concerns is of advantage to the university rather than being sheer charity. Assistance in this context becomes mutual assistance, a true exchange of ideas and cultural points of view worth of a university's mission. This conceptualization of international activity in a university provides a reference point for whatever international work it chooses to initiate. There are advantages and mutual benefits to be gained by a university as a consequence of thoughtful attention to technical assistance in fields best handled by

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[3]E. W. Weidner, p. 2.

[4]By for example, G. C. Andrew, "External Aid or International Cooperation", in J. E. Hodgetts (ed.), and in the "Report on the International Role of Canadian Universities from the External Aid Office", 19 September, 1963, p. 5.

universities, international research, the introduction, even as obligatory degree requirements, of non-Western course materials and related sensitive exploitation of international involvements, if the university adopts this unifying principle.

Such a modification is not, of course, entirely painless or without costs. But until it is understood that world affairs and international involvement are in fact an integral part of the concern of the Canadian university and not at all peripheral and remote, then Canadian institutions of higher education risk being somewhat removed from the world network of higher education, with all that implies for the relevance of both Canadian education and its possible contributions to the world.

B. Recommendations

The considerations described in the foregoing chapters of this study and the point of view taken in part A of this chapter lead to the following interrelated recommendations.[5] They are aimed frankly at the planning and policy-making cadres of higher education in Canada.

The temptation to urge reforms and improvements in Canadian assistance policy in general and on the administration of its technical assistance in particular is resisted. These have

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[5]This cannot hope to be and does not pretend to approach an exhaustive or complete list. It is a selective choice based largely on the main concerns of this study.

been treated in good form by Spicer, Escott Reid and others. Instead, specific suggestions at the level of general operating policy are herewith offered, with a boldness and yet confidence appropriate to this Centennial Year.

1. Organization

In order not only to counteract prevailing piecemeal approaches to international activity but also for reasons of financing, as well as to be prepared for possible conflicts of interest between government and themselves, universities must develop rationales for their international involvements. Efficient approaches would include at least one of the following:

a) Each university should set up machinery, appropriate to its own structure, to examine its potential (or if already active in some form of international effort, its effectiveness) in international activity. It should then take steps to express its intentions in an integrated fashion under the direction of personnel responsible to the highest levels of university administration.

b) Through A.U.C.C., the universities jointly should establish a standing committee on international programs consisting of university faculty from across the country to provide on a continuous footing, communication among universities themselves and liaison with government and private agencies, as well as direction in international work for the university community as a whole.

c) New demands on educational institutions coupled with a desire to avoid duplication of costly facilities and programs are pushing universities into cooperative relationships. International activity can be strengthened by institutional cooperation among Canadian universities. Regional associations along the lines of the embryonic consortium developing among nine universities in southern Ontario should be expanded. Pairs of universities (McGill-Montreal, Dalhousie-King's, British Columbia-Simon Fraser) have begun collaboration in course offerings, as indicated in chapter V. The French-language universities are members of AUPELF (l'Association des Universitiés Partiellement ou Entièrement de Langue Francaise).[6] Developments of library collections, course offerings, special courses, extension activities, exchange and twinning, graduate student and research specialties and other international activity could thereby be coordinated and small efforts merged into meaningful contributions.

In the face of the power of provincial and federal governments universities should take immediate steps to establish consortia for international activity in order to safeguard their autonomy, pool their resources,

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[6]Not considered here is the special cooperation envisioned by the Dion Report.

influence policy and claim their share of financing international work.

d) University machinery must be viewed as a means rather than as an end in itself. Objectives worthy of university effort should be identified and kept clearly in view so that universities do not attempt to do what they cannot or should not do (in relation to capabilities and the mission of the university), especially overseas. This calls not for casual procedures but for rigorously wrought and administered policy.

e) It is in the interest of Canadian universities to press for the establishment of a federal bureau or office of education which, as one of its functions, could coordinate at a national level the relationships between Canadian higher education and international agencies with an interest in higher education, like OECD, UNESCO, ILO, IBRD, and the International Institute of Educational Planning. It could provide liaison, too, with ministries of education in countries figuring in Canada's foreign relations--all for the purpose of better communication on matters like educational planning, technical needs, exchange, research, participant training and the like.

2. Relations with Government

a) It must not be forgotten that is "the congresses and parliaments in the West whose decisions determine what the actual expenditures will be. And congresses and

parliaments are not in the habit of supporting vague theories or statistical studies with revenue. They support specific programs and institutions."[7] For the financial support needed to mount creditable international programs, Canadian universities alone or in company must appeal to government. This requires not only organized programing by universities but the maintenance of strong links with government agencies.

Government influence in higher education will increase on both federal and provincial levels, as public legislators demand that higher education become more responsive to national needs. This includes international affairs and "in deciding the role of the universities in meeting our international commitments, the Government of Canada must be involved."[8] It is advisable therefore for universities, individually and collectively through A.U.C.C. to create procedures such as the establishment of advisory committees to the Minister for External Affairs[9] by which continuing consultation with government departments and agencies might be carried on not only for financial purposes

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[7]Eugene R. Black, p. 56.

[8]J. A. Corry, "Higher Education: Trends and Prospects", J. E. Hodgetts (ed.), p. 7.

[9]A step suggested by the A.U.C.C. in 1965 (in a letter from J. A. Corry to Paul Martin, op. cit.).

but also in order to clarify policy, define authority and expedite the heretofore unwieldy implementation of decisions.

b) The university community faces a task of persuasion since the funds it seeks are limited. Accordingly, A.U.C.C. will have to be sensitive to government prerogatives in international policy-making while at the same time being forceful and confident in presenting the case of the universities. Initially the degree to which A.U.C.C. can be permitted to speak for higher education will have to be decided. Individual institutions or consortia must have unmediated access to funding and foreign policy agencies when it seems desirable to them.

c) Government agencies and departments, for their part, must be ready to give prompt and thoughtful hearing to the initiatives of universities, find means to elucidate their plans for the benefits of university planners and must give sufficient freedom to universities. This will mean a loosening of the mystique of "quiet diplomacy" at home for the benefit of programs abroad. And it will mean proving whether or not EAO means to favor the team approach in technical assistance contracts.

d) Universities must tolerate the fact that policy in agencies like EAO is administered by career civil servants and not qualified professionals. Better still,

the universities might lend, on a rotating advisory basis, trained international development experts to EAO until EAO can manage to solve its staffing difficulties.

3. Finance

a) There is no Canadian funding source presently in sight to support international activity in universities on sufficient scale other than the government. EAO, of course, will have to finance all technical assistance effort by universities. U.S. foundations will no doubt continue to give valuable support, but more support must be provided by government and private Canadian sources.

b) There should be no delusions on the part of universities about the cost of "internationalizing". They cannot expect government to provide funds for programs they are not willing to find some finance for themselves.

c) Formula-financing means that endowments and private sources of funds are now ignored by government, as it views the financial need of a university as based entirely on enrollments. This means that for the first time all grants, gifts and bequests which the university can acquire are not required for operating expenditures. Universities should actively seek private

funding in Canada for international activity, not excluding such charitable foundations as now exist.[10]

d) Neither governments nor private sources should be expected to support vague programs. Solid budgetary projections and program plans should be part of all requests for support. In dealing with EAO, for instance, which plans for five-year periods, universities should prepare schemes for similar periods. Formula-financing makes this possible more accurately than ever before whenever enrollment projections are a useful indication. This would permit more adequate planning for research, training and staffing by universities.

e) Several specialized agencies supporting research should be canvassed by universities for support of international activity. These include the Humanities Research Council, the Social Sciences Research Council and the Canada Council. They have not yet been confronted by an organized university scheme and have limited support largely to individual scholars or, on occasion, departments. The National Research Council "states categorically that it is not one of their functions to support

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[10]A recent study of the contributions of Canadian business to higher education reveals much about the attitudes of business to giving and its potential. See Herbert Byleveld, Corporate Aid to Higher Education in Canada (Montreal: National Industrial Conference Board, 1966).

the research of Canadians in the developing areas."[11] Such is the absolute need and the scale of need for increased finances in Canada[12] that the academic community should attempt to influence changes in the terms of reference of such a body, one which deals in enormous expenditures annually.

f) If such modifications cannot be effected, the university community in Canada should call for the establishment of a quasi-governmental or governmental research organization to sponsor needed study. This may indeed become one of the functions of the Centennial International Development Program which has been slow in getting started. It began in early 1967 with a $200,000 grant from the Centennial Commission in order to influence public opinion in Canada to be more outward-looking during the country's centennial. There is a chance that a permanent organization will persist after the centennial year. Universities should make representations to insure that such a development does not occur and that it be expanded into an international development foundation to stimulate and finance research and international sensitivities of all kinds in Canada. The A.U.C.C. could play a useful liaison role between the universities and the new foundation.

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[11]T. L. Hills, p. 6.

[12]See chapter V, p. 8, above.

4. Research and Planning

a) Aside from financial concerns, academic planning in Canada must take account of the international dimension of research needs and opportunities. Canadians, it has been said,[13] are more doers than analysts. But while doing is desirable, Canadian action in both international development and domestic educational planning has been too little concerned with analysis.

There is an obvious need for more research in Canada on, among other things, social change, foreign policy problems, the development process and on the diffusion of technology and attitudes. Universities should, in determining their international roles, settle on some attractive research schemes and give them concentrated effort.[14]

b) It has been suggested[15] that centers for research be distributed across the country in universities in which the beginnings have already been established, especially

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[13]By, for one, Julia Henderson of the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs, in "The Challenge of Worldwide Social Conditions", Canada's Participation in Social Development Abroad (Ottawa: National Committee on Canada's Participation in Social Welfare Abroad, 1963), p. 28.

[14]A useful systematic view of research is Ralph Smuckler, "University Responsibilities and International Development Research", paper presented to the American Council on Education, May 12-13, 1965 (mimeo).

[15]Hamlin, pp. 88-91 and Guilbeaut, p. 10.

in the larger universities. However newer and smaller universities should organize within their own capacities for sound research programs to accompany their growth in other areas of international work.

c) Universities should insist on research provisions in technical assistance contracts with adequate funding and should conduct such research not only at home but on the overseas site.

d) In many cases, the researchers should include graduate students of both donor and recipient country, the latter preferably meeting the research requirement of Canadian graduate degrees (or their own) through investigations carried out in their own country.

e) Ironically, the so-called advanced countries have urged the planning approach on the less advanced ones while the former have had virtually no experience in planning their own economic or educational systems. This had led advanced countries to prescribe the transfer of their own institutions to nations quite different from themselves. It is now clear that holu-bolus institutional transplantation is invalid.[16] Cooperation with foreign universities, until now the greatest part of Canadian

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[16]See, in this connection, Sir Eric Ashby, African Universities and Western Tradition (London: Oxford University Press, 1964); T. L. Hills, p. 5, D. L. B. Hamlin, p. 101.

international work in higher education, has tended to strengthen the status quo. Research and planning devoted to the question of the forms of technical assistance itself, particularly in view of EAO's failures in this connection, should be of higher priority and should antedate much of the research and programing based upon its findings.

5. Technical Assistance

a) "In Europe," asserts Sir Eric Ashby, "universities have stood for continuity and conservation; in Africa universities are powerful instruments for change."[17] Canadian universities, if they choose the role of fostering change, can help less fortunate countries in their efforts to advance. If they choose not to, but instead support the status quo, they should stay entirely out of technical assistance.

b) Aid or mutual cooperation in higher education should take account the degree to which prevailing educational models in the recipient nation are dysfunctional and the means by which desirable change can be effected by the efforts of Canadian academics. An indispensable ingredient of such cooperative undertakings ought to be a willingness of the recipient to release staff and

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[17]Sir Eric Ashby, p. 98.

funds for the program as well as to perpetuate the institution. Without this and other evidence of self-motivation, payoffs are unlikely and Canadian efforts may be wasted. This approach means hard choices for Canadian as well as for overseas universities, determined by head as much as by heart. Random projects are not good use of Canadian academic talents. Responses to requests should take stock of the educational provisions of national development plans on the one hand and the capacities of the recipient institution to be effective on the other.

c) Assistance may well be provided by Canadian institutions in educational planning of various kinds well before detailed technical assistance needs are defined by the recipient nation.

d) Canadian universities should stress their strengths abroad. Put another way, a university should not attempt to do overseas what it does not do at home. Resources development, communications, engineering, agriculture, forestry, education, power, transportation and health services are prime examples of fields well served by Canadian universities. It is to such areas as these that Canadian academics can apply their basic and applied knowledge abroad.

e) University technical assistance projects should be staffed, where possible, by the institution's own

faculty. This implies the limitation of projects to a university's capabilities. Each university serious about technical assistance, however, should provide capable administrative personnel and sensitive campus support, two elements essential for effective overseas work.

f) Universities will have to get accustomed to asking more questions prior to (as well as after) undertaking technical assistance projects--questions relating to development planning; government requirements at home and abroad; whether the most desirable relationship would be department-to-department, institution-to-institution, institution-to-regional center or institution-to-ministry; overstaffing; permanence of relationships and a host of related matters. Again, this requires careful preliminary study.

g) University technical assistance planners should become fully conversant with the conditions now thought to be requisite to effective and successful overseas projects. Various aspects of personnel selection, briefing, overseas role definition and reentry into campus life are crucial elements of a project.[18]

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[18]A vast literature exists in technical assistance administration by universities. One digest of technical assistance criteria useful for some Canadian universities may be found in Policy Guidelines for International Programs at the University of Guelph, University of Guelph Senate Committee on International Studies, 1967, pp. 25-28.

6. Curriculum

a) The Hayter Commission study of Oriental, Slavonic, East European and African studies in Great Britain emphatically made the point that "the political center of gravity of the world, which up to the time of the Second World War was in western Europe, has moved outwards, east, west and south. But the British educational system has taken little account of these developments."[19] The report goes on to stress the need for the inclusion of non-Western studies in university curricula. For the Canadian situation precisely the same observation and suggestion are applicable.

b) The greatest need in quantitative and numerical terms is, and will continue to be, undergraduate studies. It is probably not possible in our time to be liberally educated without some exposure to non-Western ideas. Steps should be taken to assume greater opportunity for exposure to non-Western studies not only in the social sciences which are disposed by nature to include them but also in the humanities, language studies and professional schools.

c) Curriculum development can be stimulated if faculty with overseas experience are positively and systematically encouraged to assimilate into their teaching, as well as into their research, material relevant to that

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[19]P. 41.

experience. Commenting obliquely on this, Spicer states "The education in world politics that aid can confer is needed by few countries more than Canada."[20]

d) Implied in the suggested expansion of course offerings is a shift in emphasis which would place much more importance than previously on non-Western (as opposed to Western European and older Commonwealth) studies.

e) Library collections will be directly affected by all of these recommendations. They should be expanded as efficiently, selectively and rapidly as possible to accommodate student and faculty interests.

f) Canadian experience and scholarship provide a useful starting point for more emphasis on modern Chinese studies.[21] In this, as in all suggestions for expanded and reformed curricula, undergraduate students[22] should be provided an increased share of the opportunities for study.

g) Even if many universities opt to stay out of comprehensive international programs, they can scarcely deny

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[20]Spicer, p. 52.

[21]See Escott Reid's recent proposals for Chinese studies in "Canadian Foreign Policy, 1967-77: A Second Golden Decade". International Journal, Vol. XXII, No. 2, Spring, 1967.

[22]Two reasonable views of this question can be found in W. L. Anderson, "World View for Undergraduates", Saturday Review, August 20, 1966, and J. B. Howard, "University Involvement in International Education--Present and Prospective", The University and World Affairs, East Lansing, Michigan State University, Memorandum Series 1001, 1961.

their obligation to provide meaningful course programs for Canadian students. There is no rational alternative but to internationalize curricula. Says Hamlin, "It is not an exaggeration to say that if Canadian universities would remain part of the university they cannot neglect these fields."[23]

7. Overseas Students

a) This subject has prompted a good deal of discussion in university circles but little in the way of action has been taken to remedy the weaknesses which are now well detailed. Canadian universities simply must face the need to take action, however, because next to the need to reform their curricula for Canadian students, universities cannot hope to escape the presence of at least some foreign students. However "merely including foreign nationals in the student body does not relieve the admitting institution of further responsibility. The presence of foreign students on campus should be the result of a carefully thought out rationale, and their academic program should be an integral part of the institution's educational strategy."[24]

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[23]Hamlin, p. 92.

[24]The University Looks Abroad, p. 275.

b) Every university having a substantial number of foreign students should appoint a director of foreign student affairs who can give full-time attention to the services and guidance needed by overseas students, including orientation and close liaison with community hospitality groups.

c) Attention should be given to selection and admissions procedures, using the transcript evaluating services of A.U.C.C. Criteria should be applied which make more rational choices as between graduate and undergraduate students, and as to some set of development needs and priorities in the students' homelands.

d) The content of curricula for foreign students should be modified so as to be more suitable to their needs. Canadian degree work is not always appropriate to students who return home. More should be done in the way of specialized programs and short courses for foreign students leading to degrees or diplomas, especially in applied fields to which internships could be added.[25]

e) Evaluation of the effectiveness of overseas student programs, though beset by difficulties, should be pursued, especially through follow-up studies.

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[25]See, for example, Training Programmes in Economic Development (Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1962).

f) Controls rigid enough to staunch the "brain drain" should be exerted on overseas student programs. Students in Canada for courses of more than two years in duration however, should be accompanied by their families.

g) More Canadian universities should shift some of their foreign student programs to the host countries of students, possibly in cooperation with institutions there with whom "twinning" relationships exist. This would have the effect of improving selection and screening, making more relevant degree (or other) programs and of minimizing social, cultural, emotional and intellectual dislocations.

h) Universities in Canada could make good educational use of overseas students in Canada not only as resources for inter-cultural studies and research but for purposes of improving international understanding. No study yet published in Canada has examined these two potential contributions of overseas students.

8. Exchange (Including CUSO)

a) No thoroughgoing analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of travel and exchange programs as an integral part of degree studies has ever been done in Canada. The universities should undertake such a study, possibly through A.U.C.C., in order to investigate the degree to which study abroad for graduates and undergraduates, exchange professorships, financing and related aspects

of international exchange arrangements are or can be a desirable part of university international activity. It seems fairly evident that the information yielded by such an examination is a prerequisite for deciding what, if any, exchange arrangements should be pursued.

b) This study has viewed CUSO as a program which can be regarded as a specialized kind of exchange. Universities can, by adopting this view, utilize the many CUSO volunteers who return to study as educational resources in various areas of their overall international efforts, such as language training, area studies and foreign student programs.

c) Universities can make their contribution to CUSO more efficient and increase their benefit from that contribution if they will view publicity, recruitment, selection, orientation, field evaluation and support, readmission and subsequent degree studies as an integrated flow. A university that will go so far as to program such a flow from start to finish will break new ground in Canada. Several U.S. universities have turned to this alternative after finding the fragmented approach unsatisfactory.[26] Memorial University and Dalhousie University now follow a policy of granting exemption of tuition fees for returning CUSO volunteers.[27]

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[26]See W. A. Delano, pp. 6-7.

[27]University Affairs, February, 1967, p. 6.

d) Such an approach to CUSO would be easily manageable given the number to be dealt with over the next few years. CUSO administration in Ottawa would probably be willing to finance the strengthened university mechanism required, such as full-time CUSO representatives, research budgets, staffing and related needs.

So long as CUSO grows and maintains close identification with higher education, universities will be faced with the need to clarify, in this way or in others, their relationships with CUSO.[28]

No university in Canada today can ignore with impunity the academic imperatives to life in a shrunken world. Those which choose the more rewarding, though more costly and difficult part, can scarcely, in turn, avoid dealing with those issues raised in this study. For the universities as much as for the country as a whole the following words resound clearly:

> But nothing will be so demanding of Canada perhaps in the long run as the option we choose or refuse in our relations with the non-white, underdeveloped worlds of poverty, of disease, of illiteracy. We have yet to cross the immense psychological chasm which would have us divert our intelligence, our treasure and our markets in increasing amounts to make viable the new relations of the affluent minority of white peoples to the rest of mankind. It is one option where history will give us no choice.[29]

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[28]More detailed suggestions for CUSO can be found in G. S. M. Woolcombe, chapters III and IV.

[29]Maxwell Cohen, "The Issues and Options Facing Canada in 1967", Toronto Globe and Mail, December 28, 1966, p. 7.

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