

Leveraging Inclusion and Diversity as Canada's Digital Advantage

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by
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The Inclusive Design Research Centre (<http://idrc.ocad.ca>) is a reconstitution and academic expansion of the Adaptive Technology Resource Centre of the University of Toronto at OCAD University. Led by Jutta Treviranus, it is an internationally recognized centre of expertise in the inclusive design of emerging information and communication systems and practices. The centre conducts proactive research and development to ensure that emerging information technologies accommodate the full range of human diversity including culture, language, age, and ability. Through a large number of multi-partner, multi-sector projects, the centre has formed an extensive international network. Experts at the centre have helped to create policy, standards and exemplars in a broad range of domains including education, banking, public Web sites, edemocracy, and cultural exchange.

The Adaptech Research Network (<http://adaptech.dawsoncollege.qc.ca/>) consists of a team of academics, students and consumers. It conducts research on facilitators and barriers to academic success as well as on the use of computer, information, and adaptive technologies by Canadian college and university students with diverse disabilities. Based at Dawson College and affiliated with McGill University, it conducts research bilingually. The goal of the Network is to provide empirically based information to assist in decision making that ensures that new policies, software and hardware reflect the needs and concerns of a variety of individuals. The Adaptech Research Network is co-directed by Jennison Asuncion, M.A., Maria Barile, M.S.W., and Catherine Fichten, Ph.D.

The Martin Prosperity Institute (<http://www.martinprosperity.org/about-the-institute>) is the world's leading think-tank on the role of sub-national factors – location, place and city-regions – in global economic prosperity. Led by Director Richard Florida and Kevin Stolarick, it takes an integrated view of prosperity, looking beyond economic measures to include the importance of quality of place and the development of people's creative potential. The Institute conducts relevant research to shape debate about economic prosperity and to inform private, public and civic decision-making at the highest levels.

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Introduction - The Challenge and the Opportunity

Canada lags behind other nations in many of the factors shown to be necessary to build a strong digital economy. In addition, Canada has not taken the decisive national steps of other nations to ensure that the growing population with disabilities is not excluded from the digital economy. However, due to a confluence of global events and trends, the evolution of the ICT industry, and the recognized failure of conventional approaches to accessibility, Canada may have an unprecedented opportunity to establish and lead a global platform for innovation in digital inclusion that will grow in utility and importance over the coming decades. Capitalizing on the unique characteristics of Canada's business environment, current research strengths and Canada's relationship with other nations, this approach may be pivotal in reversing a vicious cycle of exclusion for a large and growing number of people in Canada and globally. It can also place Canada at the forefront of user experience design innovation – argued to be one of the next leaps the ICT industry must make to achieve greater application and adoption.

ICT Access Not an Option

An increasing number of functions of daily living occur online or through embedded computing. More frequently these are not optional entry points but the only means of accessing or participating in important functions and services.

In a quick survey of representative essential tasks it is clear that in order to participate in education, employment, civic engagement, commerce, health management, recreation and even most forms of socializing, currently requires the ability to interact with computers. An informal audit of common practices reveals the deceptively inexorable increase in our reliance on ICT based transactions. Without access to ICT we could not participate in scheduling events and meetings, we would not have access to essential public information, we would miss out on communicating with our tech-savvy children, we could not register for many postsecondary education programs and we could not apply for many jobs, to name just a few of the many daily examples. A random survey of job postings revealed that even many janitorial jobs require online applications (Monster.com, 2010).

In many cases services that were previously delivered in person are now delivered by computer-based automated systems. Examples include parking tickets, transit tickets, banking services, online purchases, online registration, applications for employment and government documents, among many others. This potentially poses difficulty for individuals with disabilities or anyone requiring some leeway in interacting with a service. Human services provide a great deal of flexibility. The human provider frequently adjusts - the delivery, the language used, the pace, the complexity of instruction, and the amount and kind of assistance provided, - to the needs of the customer.

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Unfortunately many automated systems do not provide the same flexibility, understanding, or human judgment. One major downfall is the capacity to adequately and iteratively explain, assess and confirm understanding (Carmien, Dawe, et. al., 2005). Another is the ability to assess the amount of physical assistance required. This means that there are major physical, sensory and cognitive access issues with many essential services delivered online or through automated systems (United Nations, 2010).

However, computer-mediated service delivery continues to grow in prevalence and functionality and a growing number of consumers chose online services over in-person services if given a choice (PRWeb, 2010). This is in part because customers recognize that online delivery offers around-the-clock service from anywhere, without the need to wait your turn. Also, while it does not provide the desirable human attributes it also does not bring the less positive human attributes such as emotionally-based biases, discrimination, inconsistency, fatigue or impatience (unless they are designed into the system).

To reverse this new barrier for individuals with disabilities and individuals with inadequate e-literacy, computer mediated systems must offer the same responsive flexibility and adaptations as their human counterparts, or surpass them. Much user experience design work is needed to reach the ideal of usability – sufficient intuitiveness, flexibility and trustworthiness, so that the interface becomes transparent and habituated, enabling the user to focus on the task at hand – for the full diversity of users.

Increase in Incidence of Disabilities

The incidence of disabilities is steadily increasing globally. In the northern hemisphere this is largely due to aging. Seniors will surpass children aged 14 or under for the first time ever sometime between 2015 and 2021. The incidence of disability increases dramatically as we age, 37% of persons age 65 to 74 and 60% of persons age 75 and over experience a disability compared to 15% of the general population.

A second factor is improved survival rates from injury, illness or problems in pregnancy or birth. This is largely due to an improved health system globally. This is compounded by natural and manmade disasters, violence or conflict. A current instance is Haiti, which saw a sudden unexpected rise in people with disabilities.

It can be predicted with some confidence that we will not stop aging and that health care will continue to improve. It is unlikely that we will find a way to avert either natural or manmade disasters. If prognosticators are to be believed, these will only increase in the coming decades.

Current Digital Inclusion Strategies

Many people with disabilities face barriers when attempting to access standard user interfaces and ICT applications (PALS, 2006). Many age-related disabilities impede access to ICT (Oveida, 2010). Clearly, given the critical role ICT access plays in today's economy and society, this poses a growing threat to prosperity and social wellbeing. There are, however, a number of strategies and services that attempt to address digital inclusion for persons with disabilities. These are i) assistive technologies (also called alternative access systems), ii) special services to help choose, fund and train individuals with disabilities in the use of assistive technologies, and iii) legislation and policies to compel developers and producers to create accessible content and applications. Unfortunately, for various reasons, these strategies are not meeting their goals.

Assistive Technology and the Technology Gap

At the same time as there is an increase in the incidence of disabilities, there is a growing "technology gap" for individuals who have difficulty using or who cannot use standard computer systems (United Nations, 2010). Access for individuals with physical, cognitive and sensory disabilities is currently dependent on specialized technologies called assistive technologies. These assistive technologies are relied upon to fill the gap between the user interface alternatives provided by the standard software and hardware and the alternative access needs of individuals with disabilities. Legislation and policy is constructed in such a way that the responsibility of the developer of standard ICT to provide equal access ends at the point where assistive technologies begin. The assistive technologies are the financial responsibility of the user with a disability or their support system and in many cases the public purse.

Challenge of AT industry

The assistive technology industry, that bridges the gap to enable computer access, is a very tenuous and crisis-ridden industry without a viable business model. Most AT developers are small to medium enterprise companies. By virtue of their products, their customer base is limited. Given the heterogeneity of the needs of people with disabilities, the better the developer is at serving the needs of their customers the more limited this customer base becomes. At the same time they have an extremely challenging and unpredictable technical task. The products they create must interoperate with all software and hardware a computer user may wish to use. If this is not the case then individuals with disabilities will be limited to specific software applications e.g., able to only use a specific spreadsheet application.

The AT must accurately and reliably interpret the output of the computer so that the individual with a sensory or cognitive disability can perceive and understand it, and interpret the available voluntary actions of individuals with motor disabilities to accurately control and provide input to the functions of the computer (Treviranus, Petty, 2001). This requires a level of communication with the hardware and software that is frequently not built into the standard products. Many software and hardware systems are proprietary and their developers closely guard information

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needed by the AT. This means that the AT developer must create work-around solutions or “hacks” that are frequently very brittle.

This situation is exacerbated by a number of ICT industry characteristics that are likely to become more prevalent. Every time a software application (whether a desktop or Web application) is upgraded the AT must also be upgraded. For even a moderate set of applications this can mean several upgrades a month. Another exacerbating factor is the growing trend toward application “mashups”, increasingly the development of a given application cannot be attributed to a single developer but is put together and dynamically updated from multiple sources. In attempting to trace the provenance of a given application one can find that well over 30 companies have had a hand in developing components (Digna, 2007).

Even previously gained ground in AT interoperability has eroded recently. HTML (Hypertext Markup Language), the primary language of the Web, by virtue of its structure, standard markup conventions and the inherent independence of the content and structure from the presentation or rendering was very AT “friendly.” With the emergence and increased prevalence of rich internet applications which have resulted in a proliferation of non-standard interface conventions and markup, the domain of the Web and the many Web applications have also become a domain fraught with major barriers (WAI-ARIA, 2010).

Similarly as computing moves to mobile devices, means of interfacing, such as available ports for connecting alternative keyboards or displays are frequently reduced. The more disjointed the market and non-standard the system architecture or communication protocols the more difficult it is for AT developers.

All these factors contribute to a troubling trend for assistive technologies. While we can take for granted that standard ICT will continue to decrease in price, and increase in functionality, reliability and availability, the opposite is true for AT. Assistive technology is increasing in price and decreasing in functionality, reliability and availability.

This makes participation in the digital economy a difficult prospect for many Canadians. If you happen to lose your sight and you are required to use a computer for work or education, in addition to the cost of the standard software and hardware, you must also purchase assistive technology that ranges from 1,500 dollars to 13,000 and must be upgraded at least once a year (unlike many standard upgrades, these are not free). You can count on at least twice as many crashes and bugs. You can also predict that there will be many software functions that are simply not available to you and functions you have come to rely upon may disappear with the next upgrade. This is added to the other barriers you must overcome on a daily basis.

This is if you live in a country that is in North America, Western Europe, Japan, Australia or New Zealand. If you live anywhere else, assistive technology will not be

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available in your country, will not be maintained or serviced in your country or if it is, it will likely cost more than 50% of your annual income (G3ICT, 2010). Consequently if the standard technology is not accessible to you then you will be excluded from all computer-mediated tasks. Given that most computer technology is designed for the market that has access to AT, standard computer technology will not be accessible to you.

One potential means of addressing this technology gap is to shift the responsibility for addressing the needs of all end users to the standard technology developers. This will compel these developers to include alternative access features in their standard software and hardware (e.g., Apple has included screen reader functionality as a standard feature of its iPad, iPhone and iPod Touch technology making it directly accessible to individuals who are blind), or to engage assistive technology developers in filling the gap. This will potentially address both technical and business issues faced by the AT industry in that they will no longer rely on one of the poorest constituencies for revenue but on the ICT industry. It will also ensure that standard ICT developers will share information needed to create interoperable AT. AT development will be integrated into the standard ICT work processes.

The necessary legislative or policy reforms to effect this shift in responsibility is unlikely to occur given the powerful and organized lobbying capacity of the ICT industry combined with fear by the AT industry that they will be made redundant by alternative access features in standard technologies.

Special Service Delivery

A variety of special services exist that attempt to address the barriers to ICT access faced by people with disabilities. These may be part of more general special services (e.g., employment equity programs, special education programs, etc.) or specific to ICT access. These services assist in selecting and funding assistive technologies. In all sectors it is clear that these segregated services are neither adequate nor sustainable.

As special services these tend to be at greatest risk of budget cuts especially when other priorities come to the fore. In some cases a separate, segregated version of a mainstream service is offered (e.g., an accessible computer lab at colleges and universities). These tend to offer redundant services of less quality than the mainstream equivalent (Ascuncion, Fichten, et. al., 2010).

The weaknesses and vulnerabilities of segregated service delivery to address the technology gap can be illustrated with the example of the Ontario Assistive Devices Program. Many provinces do not have an equivalent program and the ADP program is seen as an enviable exemplar. The stated objective of the ADP program (2010) "is to provide consumer centered support and funding to Ontario residents who have long-term physical disabilities and to provide access to personalized assistive devices appropriate for the individual's basic needs." A great deal of administrative procedure, time and effort is spent ensuring that only qualified individuals receive

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funding. Only specific diagnostic categories qualify and these must be verified by a physician. A qualified authorizer assesses and prescribes equipment from a list of authorized devices. A product is added to the list of authorized devices through a formal review process. Only special purpose devices classified as assistive technologies qualify for funding even if there are mainstream consumer-based products that address the needs far better (these also tend to be less expensive). A prescription can be renewed only every 5 years unless there is a significant change in the individual's condition. As ADP is under the jurisdiction of Health, equipment will not be funded by ADP if it is to be used primarily for work, school or sports. Most AT companies market and distribute almost exclusively to ADP authorizers in Ontario and not the general public. Most AT is highly specialized and requires complex specialized set-up. It is not designed to be bought "off-the-shelf" by consumers and primarily allied health professionals receive training on how to setup the technologies even if the functions are less complex than consumer-based technologies.

In an attempt to contain costs the diagnostic categories that qualify for ADP assistance are quite restrictive, and there are frequently calls to "tighten the definitions". This means that individuals find themselves squeezed out of the qualifying groups and this in turn results in pressure from excluded groups to add diagnostic categories e.g., autism, Asperger's Syndrome, ADHD (Ruby, 2007).

The amount of money spent on cost containment and the measures to insure that only qualified individuals receive only qualified services can be said to exceed the costs of the funding provided.

We know that access to online services is no longer an option. However, if you are an individual born with cerebral palsy, for example (and lucky enough to be a permanent resident of Ontario) and you cannot use a standard computer keyboard or pointing device but require a costly alternative keyboard; to access any of the online services you must:

- visit a doctor to verify your diagnosis and functional limitations (thereby further taxing our medical system for issues that do not concern health),
- find and book an appointment with an authorizer (these are scarce and usually only in large centres),
- wait on a waiting list until your turn comes for an assessment and then travel significant distances to attend an appointment,
- undergo an assessment that determines that you meet the qualifying characteristics (e.g., a specific level of literacy for a writing aid), will use the equipment for only the authorized activities and determines what equipment from the list of eligible devices best meets your needs ,
- await approval of your prescription,
- purchase the equipment from an authorized vendor, and
- receive training from an authorized vendor.

Because of the lengthy nature of the equipment authorization process, the eligible devices are usually not the latest model. This usually means that they are not

compatible with the latest browsers, computer hardware or software applications. Because an AT prescription can only be renewed every 5 years, unless you have a significant change in diagnosis, your AT will be outdated, if not useless and obsolete, for the majority of every 5 year period. Your equipment is likely to break down or malfunction much more frequently than standard products and because you often don't have a direct relationship with the AT dealer, repair is a complex and lengthy process. Consequently many prescribed AT devices are abandoned and sit in closets as guilty reminders of time and energy wasted, adding emotional barriers to access on top of physical or sensory barriers. AT abandonment rates have been found to be as high as 75 to 80% (Simpson, Koester, LoPresti, 1999).

As stated earlier, ADP is an envied exemplar. The same weaknesses and restrictions exist for most specialized programs designed to bridge the technology gap. The US Department of Education has identified a group of students called doubly marginalized learners (Treviranus, 2010). This is a growing group of students whose needs are not met by standard education delivery but who do not qualify or do not have the administrative support to qualify for special service. It can be said that there is a similar group of doubly marginalized computer users that is growing at an alarming rate.

Legislation, Policy and Compliance

The issue of digital exclusion is also being addressed globally by a variety of legislative and policy instruments. Many of these are grounded on human rights legislation. A significant current legal instrument is the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (United Nations, 2006). The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and its Optional Protocol was adopted in December 2006 at the United Nations Headquarters in New York, and was opened for signature in March 2007. There were 82 signatories to the Convention, 44 signatories to the Optional Protocol, and 1 ratification of the Convention. This is the highest number of signatories in history to a UN Convention on its opening day. The Convention entered into force on May 3, 2008. At least 19 of the 50 Articles of the Convention refer to ICT accessibility. Canada is a signatory to the convention and ratified the Convention in March of 2010.

Canadian Human Rights legislation (Department of Justice Canada, 1985) has been used to legally compel organizations to ensure that ICT is accessible to people with disabilities. A recent example is a Supreme Court ruling ordering the Government of Canada to make its Web sites accessible to individuals with vision impairments (AODA Alliance, 2010). Ontario has a draft standard as part of the Accessibility for Ontarians with Disabilities Act (Ministry of Community and Social Services, 2005) that provides regulations regarding the accessibility of information and communication systems, including Web sites, mobile devices and kiosks. The Common Look and Feel (Treasury Board of Canada, 2007) which governs web sites of the Canadian government includes a section on accessibility.

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All of Canada's major trading partners have legislation or policy that requires that ICT be accessible. In the United States there are at least three levels of legislation: the Americans with Disabilities Act (US Department of Justice, 1990), Section 508 of the Rehab Act (US Department of Justice, 1998), Section 255 of the Telecommunications Act and State Legislation (US Federal Communications Commission, 1996). Section 508 requires that all products and services purchased by the US government or its agencies must be accessible. The US recently enacted the "Twenty-first Century Communications and Video Accessibility Act" (GovTrack, 2010). This new regulation updates the Communications Act and establishes new safeguards for disability access to ensure that people with disabilities are not left behind as technology changes and the United States migrates to the next generation of Internet-based and digital communication technologies. The EU has recently enacted a European Disability Strategy for 2010-2011 (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, 2010) to address the 80 million Europeans identified as having a disability.

A document that is either referenced or restated in most legislation and policy regarding accessible ICT is the Web Content Accessibility Guidelines (WCAG) of the Web Accessibility Initiative (WAI) of the World Wide Web Consortium (W3C). This is a single set of criteria that is applied to each Web page to address the needs of the full range of people with disabilities (although it is acknowledged that cognitive access is not adequately addressed). Web pages and Web sites can claim to be WCAG compliant at one of three levels (A, AA or AAA). Legislation in many jurisdictions globally requires that public Web sites be compliant to level AA. In Italy it is possible for a middle manager to serve a jail term if a Website is not accessible under the Stanca law (Gazette of the Italian Republic, 2004).

Despite the prevalence of strong and specific legislation, numerous studies by both governments and organizations, such as the United Nations, show that most Web sites are not accessible (United Nations, 2006). This is attributed to a number of factors. The guidelines are said to be too complex and hard to understand, there are inadequate monitoring mechanisms, the guidelines and regulations do not keep up with technical development, there are inadequate supports for creating accessible Web pages and other priorities frequently take precedence.

As articulated in the recent Canadian Supreme Court ruling (AODA Alliance, 2010), the Common Look and Feel (Treasury Board of Canada, 2007) used a version of WCAG that was developed in 1998. This version prohibited the use of rich Internet applications (as ATs were not able to handle these technologies at the time the guidelines were developed). The government also instituted a program to move government services online. This cannot be practically achieved without using the interactive capabilities of rich Internet applications. Web developers in the Canadian government could choose between getting services online or adhering to accessibility requirements, but not both. Many sought exemptions from accessibility requirements resulting in inaccessible Government Web sites. While the Common Look and Feel 2.0 (Treasury Board of Canada, 2007) continued to refer to WCAG 1.0,

there was technical guidance and an updated standard that provided guidelines on making Rich Internet Applications accessible (Accessibility for Rich Internet Applications and WCAG 2.0). It is likely these kinds of dilemmas that lead to the unfortunate belief that accessibility is counter to innovation and creativity.

Authoring Tools

Accompanying WCAG in the arsenal of Web Accessibility Guidelines of the W3C are the Authoring Tool Accessibility Guidelines and the User Agent Accessibility Guidelines. The User Agent Accessibility Guidelines (World Wide Web Consortium, 2002) prescribe how to create accessible browsers and players. The Authoring Tool Accessibility Guidelines (World Wide Web Consortium, 2000) provide two forms of guidance for authoring tool developers: guidance in how to make sure that authors with disabilities can use authoring tools and in how to support authors in creating accessible content using authoring tools. Much hope is being placed in improving compliance to WCAG by using ATAG. The likelihood that all Web authors will be aware of, will understand and will implement a set of technical guidelines is very remote. However most authors use authoring tools. If authoring tool developers are compelled to make their authoring tools compliant to ATAG, then even authors who are neither aware of nor motivated to create accessible Web sites will be prompted, guided and supported in making accessible Web sites. This is likely to result in much greater compliance. Unfortunately there are very few authoring tools at the moment that are compliant to ATAG.

Obtaining Digital Skills

The “Consultation Paper on a Digital Economy Strategy for Canada” stresses the need for all Canadians to gain digital skills. For individuals with disabilities, access to training in digital skills is not readily available and if available is a complex and difficult matter, despite the fact that ICT can enable a large number of previously inaccessible activities. When asked, college and university students with disabilities across Canada have expressed concerns over the availability of computers with adaptive hardware/software in their school’s specialized computer laboratories, training on ICTs both on and off campus, as well as funding for ICTs for personal use (Fichten, Asuncion, Nguyen, Budd, & Amsel, 2010). Part of the complexity of digital skills training with persons with disabilities lies not only in the need to learn to use mainstream ICTs such as PowerPoint and SPSS, but often times these individuals require specialized computer technology to be able to use these technologies. For example, students with visual impairments need to use software that reads what is on the screen, for which they also need training. In earlier work, students have expressed concern over the cost of adaptive technologies and a lack in awareness of what is out there for them (Asuncion, Fichten, Fossey, & Barile, 2002). Moreover, the regulations concerning financial support for students with disabilities, including their specialized ICTs, is confusing and eligibility criteria and regulations differ from province to province (Human Resources and Skills Development Canada, 2010). Any one of these factors in isolation or taken together could act as an inhibitor(s) for

these students to gain access to computers in general, and by extension, to being able to gain digital literacy skills.

Potential of ICT to address a variety of access barriers

It has often been said that the move to a digital reality and the emergence of ICT represents a double-edged sword for individuals with disabilities. On the one hand it potentially introduces new barriers, however, it is broadly recognized that there is far greater potential for ICT, if designed right, to make the world a much more accessible and inclusive place (G3ICT, 2010). Unlike buildings and standard manufactured products, digital content and tools are highly plastic and mutable. Software and digital content can be easily reconfigured in response to user needs. Computers can accept a variety of inputs and produce a variety of outputs. This can be used to both translate information from a sense that is inaccessible to a sense that is accessible (e.g., text to speech for someone that is blind) and translate an action that the user can produce into an action that the application requires (e.g., an eyebrow raise to drive a cursor to press a key) (Treviranus, Petty, 200).

Because the move to the digital enables remote access, individuals who have difficulty physically navigating inaccessible environments will have greater access to online services and activities. In addition computer networks enable the pooling and sharing of resources, increasing the likelihood that there will be resources appropriate to a specific user's needs. The global network also enables finding geographically dispersed individuals with common needs and interests, thereby reducing the social isolation that frequently accompanies disabilities and facilitating the formation of advocacy groups and communities of interest.

Given these highly useful qualities, ICT can be used to make previously inaccessible activities much more accessible. The most dramatic example is access to print. One in ten Canadians have a print impairment, meaning they cannot make use of traditional print and require an alternative format. This includes individuals who are blind, have significant vision impairments, have physical disabilities that prevent them from turning pages or manipulating books and documents, and individuals who have dyslexia or other learning disabilities. Digital text, when following a few standard design principles, addresses all these issues. As long as text is machine-readable and not presented as an image of text, text-to-speech engines can speak the text for individuals who are blind or dyslexic (in the most common languages). As long as standard markup is used to structure the text (headers, chapters, paragraphs) individuals who cannot see the visual presentation to recognize parts of a document can use keyboard commands to search for and navigate to the desired place in the text. As long as standard styling mechanisms are used, the text can be restyled to increase the contrast and magnification. The layout can also be changed to reduce clutter and distraction or to make the organization of the document more apparent. There is no need to physically turn pages, this can be

done with whatever controls are used to scroll and navigate onscreen. Lastly scaffolds such as glossaries, dictionaries and explanatory material can be easily at hand. The fly in this ointment is Digital Rights Management (DRM), proprietary and unconventional file formats and document security mechanisms. DRM frequently prevents creating derivatives of a document or modifying the presentation of a document both legally and technically. Markup that is not based on common standards and proprietary file formats confound assistive technologies and are not amenable to restyling for easier access. Security mechanisms frequently lock out alternative access systems used by authorized users with disabilities (W3C, 2010).

Another promising example of the difference ICT can make in the lives of individuals with disabilities is recent developments in mobile wayfinding systems. For individuals who are blind or individuals with cognitive impairments these can enable a level of independence not experienced before. In principle, ICT has the potential to act as a powerful cognitive, physical and sensory prosthesis and make the world fit to your abilities (at least the digital world).

Design for All

A much more sustainable and seamless means of providing equal access to ICT than specialized technologies is to integrate the accessibility functions directly into the standard product. This ensures that the access function is upgraded with the product, remains compatible with the product and has an interface design that is consistent with the application. Recent examples include Apple's integration of Voice Over, a text-to-speech function, into the iPad, iPhone and iPod products (Apple, 2010). Other examples include integration of voice recognition functions into the standard operating system and font resizing as a standard browser feature. One advantage of assistive technology, however, is that it provides a single, consistent and familiar interface for special accessibility functions across all applications.

Frequently when these accessibility functions are made available to the general public it becomes clear that they benefit everyone (Jacobs, 2009). This is referred to as the "digital curbcut." Curbcuts were put into sidewalks to enable wheelchairs to get on and off sidewalks, yet they benefit people pushing strollers, shopping carts or riding skateboards. Similarly text captions of speech in videos were intended for individuals who are hard of hearing or deaf but the primary users are patrons at noisy sports bars and fitness centres and spouses who wish to continue watching television while their spouse sleeps. In addition to being more sustainable, integrated accessibility features are also far less costly in the long run and, according to a study by Microsoft, are used by up to 67% of users (Microsoft, 2010).

Reframing our notion of Disability

When we take into account the many individuals who lack digital literacy it becomes clear that individuals currently classified as having disabilities are only one end of a continuum of individuals who face barriers to accessing ICT. Also marginalized or excluded from the digital domain are individuals for whom mental models such as desktops, filing systems and hierarchical tree-based data structures are foreign or incompatible with their worldview and individuals who speak languages not supported by current computers (Duncker, 2002). Keyboards are biased toward the roman alphabet, any users of other systems are at a disadvantage and must make do with awkward workarounds. Also many senior citizens do not have the advantages of digital natives but must nonetheless adjust to digital systems at a time in their lives when new learning does not come as easily (Czaja, 2010).

Absolute vs Relative Framing of Disability

A possible more useful framing of the notion of disability in the digital realm is that disability is a mismatch between the needs of the individual and the experience or service delivered. Thus it is not a personal trait but a condition brought about by a failure in user interface design or personalization (Treviranus, Roberts, 2007).

It then follows that accessibility is the capacity of the system to meet the needs of the individual in a given context for a given goal. The accessibility of a resource or resource configuration cannot be determined until the user, the goal and the context are known. A given resource or resource configuration will be accessible to one group of individuals and not another.

This approach to accessible design situates designing for people with disabilities as a seamless part of designing for diversity. There is no chance that individuals will “fall through the cracks.” There is no reason or compunction for an individual to fit a specific category or classification. There is no requirement to agree upon a single definition of accessible. In creating a design there is no reason to compromise the needs of one individual for the needs of another in creating an “accessible” design.

However, this reframing challenges both conventional usability or user interface (UI) design methods as well as current frameworks for serving persons with disabilities (Treviranus, 2009). UI design methods and usability research methods are guided by data regarding the typical user. The overarching criterion for successful design is to find a single configuration that meets the needs of the greatest majority of users (Cooper, 2008). Current usability research methods gather data on the number of users who prefer or perform better with a given design. However, when applying this relative framing of accessibility, the criteria for successful design is the ability of the system to adapt to the greatest diversity of users while maintaining the same utility and reliability. Similarly this framing rejects the binary framing of disabled/non-disabled and accessible/inaccessible and the many institutional processes and conventions that have evolved to define and

maintain these distinctions. It recognizes that each user is unique and given a specific context and a specific goal may face barriers to access. This naturally leads to a one-size-fits-one approach to accessibility and digital inclusion – an approach that digital systems may be able to deliver and an approach that runs parallel to current ICT design trends rather than counter to these trends.

Shift in Accessibility Approach

AccessForAll

AccessForAll is the popular term used for an accessibility approach that takes advantage of the adaptability of networks and digital systems to match individual user needs (IMS, 2008 and ISO, 2008). It is based on the relative framing of disability described above. This obviates the need to classify individuals as having disabilities or having specific classes of disabilities as all users can benefit from personalization. It also obviates classifying resources according to a binary notion of accessible or inaccessible as resources may be optimal for one user or group and a variant is optimal for another. Accessibility is therefore determined by the availability of sufficient variants or sufficient configurability in the resource to meet the diverse needs of users. This determination is made at the system level, not the resource level, allowing a diversity of configurations and freedom to explore a variety of new technologies in some variants without fear of breaking accessibility compliance.

The key to the AccessForAll approach is in delivering a personalized interface or resource that matches the user's declared needs. This is enabled by the two parts of the AccessForAll standard: 1) an extensible common language to express user needs in functional terms, and 2) an extensible common language for describing resources regarding the user needs they address. These have been standardized in both an IMS Global Learning Consortium specification and an ISO Standard (ISO 24751). In both cases Canada led the standardization process.

Implementing AccessForAll requires a set of enabling tools or services, namely:

1. An application, wizard or utility to enable users to create a personal portable needs and preference profile. Multiple instances can be created for different contexts. These preference profiles can be stored and accessed through various mechanisms including but not limited to smart cards, memory sticks, secure servers, cell phones, RFID tags and other mechanisms that protect privacy and security.
2. Various pools, repositories or “referatories” of resource variants with support for labeling the resources with respect to the user needs they can meet. This labeling can be programmatic (or algorithmically driven) or manual. It is also cumulative enabling more information to be added as the utility of the resource becomes apparent through use. The labeling may be on the resource itself or stored separately. The pools or sources of variants can

- be distributed across the Web or Internet. The resources can also be stored in the Cloud.
3. A matching service that recognizes the personal preference profile and finds the appropriate resource for the appropriate context. This matching service takes into account the application, the user interface, the content, the client device, the network environment and other factors needed to provide a personalized successful experience for each user. This can take many forms including a Web service or intranet application.
 4. A method for addressing gaps when attempting to match user needs. This can take the form of Web services (to produce new style sheets), and demand services that recruit human and/or computer assistance in creating the necessary variants.

The AccessForAll approach has been implemented in a number of services and programs in Canada and internationally over the last decade. Among these are a program called Web4All which was used to automatically configure Community Access Points, or CAP site internet workstations across Canada to meet the specific needs of each user, including invoking and configuring assistive technologies for people with disabilities (Web4All, 2010). The personal preference profile was contained on a calling card or library smartcard. The most common implementation has been in learning object or learning resource repositories where it is used to deliver learning resources that specifically address the learner's needs (including The Inclusive Learning Exchange, TransformAble, Teacher's Domain and EU4All) (IMS, 2008). It has also been employed in delivering personalized health information for patients at time of diagnosis (PEPTalk) and in customizing user interfaces in Web Applications (MacDonald, Winter, Luke, 2010, Fluid Project, 2010).

Helpful Technical Trends

The AccessForAll personalization approach to addressing the needs of individuals with disabilities and addressing digital inclusion is well aligned with a number of current technical trends.

There is a greater prevalence of and a growing demand for personalized interfaces, individual themes and user interface options. However, surprisingly this is not as strong as in other environments or markets. It appears that the computer desktop continues to be "disputed real estate" as it were. A large part of that real estate is taken up by branding, advertisement and product-specific, inflexible content. Much of the user experience is taken over by security interactions and mass designer conceptions of what the typical user would like or user interface design as a trivial afterthought. Although we spend a large part of our personal and work life in the digital realm, we do little to make ourselves at home and make our mark on that personal space. This may change as the public becomes aware of the styling

possibilities and gains confidence with exploring options. This will provide support for personalization and configurability for accessibility (Treviranus, 2009).

The goal of writing applications once and rendering on multiple devices and platforms shares the same technical requirements as personalization for accessibility. With the proliferation of mobile devices including smart phones, iPods, notebooks and tablets comes a push for development toolkits and environments that offer device independence and cross-platform compatibility (Fluid, 2010).

A powerful strategy for infusing accessibility into the software ecosystem is to build it into the foundational components used to create applications, the component toolkits, the markup languages and the file formats. The more that application development becomes a matter of assembly from a set of available components, the easier it is to include accessibility features in those components for broad proliferation. Inclusive design features have been embedded into popular software development kits such as Dojo, JQuery and GWT (Fluid, 2010). HTML 5.0 will integrate the Accessibility for Rich Internet Applications (ARIA) markup in the next release (Drupal, 2010).

Technology convergence makes the digital inclusion agenda much simpler (OECD, 2008). Accessibility strategies can be complex, there is not the capacity to train all developers in accessible design and accessibility standards take a great deal of time to develop. It becomes much simpler to support digital inclusion if there is one ICT domain rather than many. This will enable the creation of accessibility solutions and training for desktop, Web, telecommunications and broadcast ICT at the same time.

The personalization approach to designing for diversity is dependent on a large shared pool of diverse resources, a diversity of producers that contribute to that pool, and a means of federating or sharing across many distributed sources of resources. The emergence of crowd sourcing as a common practice and familiar convention across the globe can help to supply and sustain this large, diverse pool. Cloud computing helps to consolidate these resources and make them available from many locations. Lastly the maturing open source, open access community, as a means of development and distribution, provides a much more conducive platform for sharing, reusing and repurposing.

Opportunities

Demand for Inclusively Designed Services and Products

A number of factors are fueling the global demand for inclusively designed services and products, these include:

- the inexorable increase in the incidence of disabilities globally (United Nations, 2008),

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- legislation and policy by all major trading partners mandating accessible services and products, in turn compelling organizations to purchase accessible products and services,
- employment equity policy within major companies that increase the need for accessible ICT to accommodate employees with disabilities,
- consolidation of disability advocacy groups globally made possible by digital networks,
- increased awareness by consumers regarding what they personally want in terms of user experience design,
- global mobility which increases the diversity of user needs in any one organization, and
- the move to mobile systems and diverse consumer devices.

Of major significance is the aging population. Profiles of the aging “Boomer” generation show that they are clear about what they need, uncompromising in their demands, intolerant of marginalization, and strong advocates with impressive spending powers and cumulative wealth despite market crisis (ZoomerMedia, 2010).

Inclusive design has gained greater global political attention lately because of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, the recent release of the Twenty-first Century Communications and Video Accessibility Act, and the effort in the US to refresh the Rehab 508 standard. There is a growing demand by ICT companies to standardize on a single international accessibility law modeled on Rehab 508. ICT manufacturers foresee a proliferation of accessibility legislation and do not wish to be forced to create a different product for each country or jurisdiction (JTC1-SWGA, 2010). Given international opposition to adhering to a US-centric, US-developed standard this has raised a great deal of controversy. In an attempt to allay fears by the accessibility community, the ICT industry has responded with gestures of good faith to show that they are concerned about users with disabilities.

Inclusive design that meets the needs of individuals with disabilities is functionally synonymous with flexible and adaptable design. The same design changes that make it possible for someone with a vision impairment to use a Web application makes it possible for someone with a mobile device to use the application. Similarly the design considerations that make a resource accessible to someone with a learning disability assists with translation into other languages and layout that is consistent with different languages and cultural conventions.

A small preliminary probe of requests for proposals shows that there is a steady increase in the mention of accessibility as a requirement of purchase, not only in the US, which has strong procurement accessibility legislation, but in Canada and other countries as well (MERX.com, 2010). A more comprehensive survey is needed to identify specific patterns as well as the success in purchasing accessible products and services.

Demand for Human Capacity

The growing demand for inclusively designed services and products both requires and is fueled by an increase in human capital that is knowledgeable and skilled in inclusive design. A recent scan of leading ICT firms shows that RIM, Apple, Google, Oracle, Cisco, Dell and Microsoft have all increased the size of their accessibility teams in the past year. The same is true for organizations such as governments and banks. In discussions with these organizations there is a common frustration that inclusive design skills are not part of ICT education and training and that there are too few programs focusing on inclusive design of ICT specifically (see Appendix B for a more detailed discussion).

Diversity and Innovation

To foster and sustain a strong digital economy we need innovation and creativity. There is a strong, empirically supported, correlation between diversity and inclusion and innovation or creativity. Page (2007) and others show that in the performance of groups, communities and societies “diversity trumps ability.” Including diverse perspectives is generally more important than choosing the best and the brightest for effective problem solving and prediction. Page provides theoretical and empirical proofs that the power of diversity creates better groups, firms, schools and societies. His conclusions include that cognitive and cultural diversity result in faster growing and more productive cities and countries. Cass Sunstein (2006) sees the major advantage and the challenge of the Web to be the aggregation of information in order to take advantage of the widely dispersed knowledge that individuals have. Good decisions, predictions and creative problem solving are harmed by propagation of errors, unexpressed knowledge, opinion cascades and group polarization, all of which are also antithetical to diversity. For communities, social systems, teams or organizations, diversity leads to better decisions, more effective problem solving, greater creativity and innovation, better prediction, and in the long term, resilience to external challenges, and thereby, increased viability.

To achieve the levels of innovation and creativity we require to fuel our digital economy we need to enable the participation of the full diversity of perspectives. This requires an accessible digital environment and ICT developers and designers knowledgeable in inclusive design.

Not unrelated to the digital economy, if only by virtue of the larger context in which the economy must be developed, Wilkinson and Pickett (2009) show that the effects of inequality and exclusion on a society are huge. They have aggregated an impressive body of evidence to show that inequality and intolerance of diversity actually makes us ill, depressed and violent. Societies with greater inequality and marginalization or suppression of diverse groups are less healthy, physically and mentally.

Economic Impact of Inclusive Design

The economic impact of inclusive ICT systems and digital environments can be attributed to a number of positive consequences. Digital inclusion has the potential to trigger a “virtuous” cycle that would contribute to the health and wealth of Canadian society. We focus on participation in employment and higher education but other parts of the cycle include increased civic participation, greater independence and self-determination, decreased reliance on specialized services, decreased stigmatization, increased participation in volunteer activities, social inclusion to name just a few.

If steps are taken toward digital inclusion in Canada, this will increase workforce participation, help address projected labour gaps, and increase participation in higher education. These consequences will significantly increase total employment income and GDP per capita. An increase in employment among persons with disabilities due to the adoption of inclusively designed ICT alone could result in an additional \$4.5 million in employment income and an additional \$283 in GDP per capita. Increased higher educational attainment among persons with disabilities due to inclusively designed ICT could result in an additional \$3.5 million in employment income and \$203 in total GDP per capita in Canada (see Appendix C).

The Role of Standards

If the most promising approach to digital inclusion is based on personalization and designing for diversity, what is the role of standards? Are standards and standardization not counter to diversity? In fact interoperability standards are essential to fostering inclusion and supporting diversity. Metaphorically they provide a common meeting place from which members can diverge. An illustrative example would be a family shopping trip to the mall. If there is an agreed upon time and place to meet then the family members are free to pursue their diverse interests.

From a systems perspective every individual with a disability potentially represents an external system that must interoperate with the host system, as each assistive technology may be unique. This requires strong, globally adhered to interoperability standards. Fortuitously, these standards also facilitate greater interoperability between standard systems, and between standard systems and peripherals (Treviranus, Roberts, 2006).

Inclusive Design as Economic Driver

Canada’s Position in the World

By common metrics Canada’s ICT sector performs relatively poorly, business investment in ICT per worker lags behind many other nations, as does investment in research. Canada has very few, what are called, anchor firms that focus resources

and activity in the ICT sector (with the notable exception of RIM) (Government of Canada, 2010).

From an inclusive design perspective Canada lacks a decisive national strategy on inclusive design or accessibility. By virtue of our distributed political and administrative structures, accessibility strategies in critical areas such as education and health are disjointed and inconsistent.

However, Canada has no lack of research and innovation in inclusive design and accessibility. Many assistive technologies implemented globally originated in Canada. The discontinued Rehabilitation Technology Unit of the National Research Council can be dubbed the grandfather of computer access systems for people with physical disabilities (Industry Canada, 2004). Canada played a pivotal role in initiating the Web Accessibility Initiative in the World Wide Web Consortium, through the work of the Yuri Rubinsky Insight Foundation (Paciello, 2010). Canadians play a disproportionately large role in developing accessibility standards and specifications in international standards bodies such as the International Standards Organization and the World Wide Web Consortium.

Requirements for an Industry Cluster

Michael Porter's (1990; 2000) model for cluster analysis and industry development provides a framework to explore ways in which an inclusively designed ICT industry could be grown in Canada. Porter's research identifies four conditions that are required to support the growth of an industry. The four conditions include: (1) the presence of a sufficient density of firms to create competitive conditions; (2) the availability of inputs such as skilled labour, financing, information and technology infrastructure; (3) the existence of related and supporting industries, including post-secondary institutions and NGO's; and (4) a sophisticated local demand for products and services that helps to drive innovation in the industry.

It can be argued that there exists the skeletal framework of the conditions required in Canada to grow an inclusive design ICT industry. The ICT sector has a strong presence in Ontario, British Columbia and Quebec (See Appendix B). Each of these provinces has both a significant presence of industry establishments and also a skilled workforce. In addition to this, these provinces are also home to an assortment of support firms and organizations with existing expertise in the area of inclusively designed ICT. The ageing population in Canada, and in many countries around the world, along with the growing number of persons with disabilities, presents a growing demand for inclusively designed products. In addition to this, the importance of ICT in today's society means that demand specifically for inclusively designed ICT products and services will be imminent.

A Specific Opportunity: The Global Public Inclusive Infrastructure

A framework that addresses the primary shortcomings of current accessibility and assistive technology service delivery in many sectors is gaining attention and support globally. It is currently dubbed the Global Public Inclusive Infrastructure

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(GPII, 2010). It builds upon work pioneered in Canada (Web4All, TILE and TransformAble) and introduced into international standards organizations by Canadian delegations and representatives (ISO 24751). It uses implementations deployed in Canada in the late 90's and early 2000's as pilots and exemplars.

It is currently coordinated by the TRACE Center at the University of Wisconsin, but with acknowledgement that technical leadership will come from Canada. In the last year several national and international organizations, governments and funding agencies have indicated their interest and support for the framework. These include:

- the US FCC (Federal Communications Commission), which mentions the framework in the recent broadband plan,
- the US Department of State, which has hosted a number of meetings to gather input from experts globally on the framework,
- the G3ICT, which featured the framework in international meetings in Washington,
- UNESCO, which is committed to facilitate the involvement of other member states, and
- the European Commission, which has included funding for research and development of the framework in the current FP7 funding competition.

In essence the GPII can be described as an App Store for user interface design which supplies the necessary ingredients or enables a seamless, personalized interface that follows you wherever you go and adjusts to the context and devices you happen to be using. The key to its success will be the ability to address the needs of the full diversity of users on the full range of devices. This requires a cooperative ICT industry.

The appeal of this framework globally is due to the promise that the GPII will address current shortcomings in meeting the needs of users with disabilities at the same time as it makes ICT systems more usable for all users. The following is a list of advantages that have been noted by policy makers, advocacy groups and industry.

1. It addresses barriers caused by disabilities in an integrated way, through personalization. It views the constraints caused by disability as one of many possible constraints (e.g., environmental, background, resources), and therefore does not require that individuals with disabilities qualify for special services. This reduces the need to create classifications of disabilities and reduces the pressure on individuals with disabilities to fit into existing diagnostic categories for digital inclusion.
2. This also reduces the resources invested in policing or constraining the costs of special service delivery. Under this framework gaining access to ICT does not require a medical diagnosis.
3. Individuals with disabilities will not find themselves "falling through the cracks" or "doubly marginalized." Rather than advocating for recognition of a new diagnostic category, which frequently results in divisiveness,

- competition for scarce resources and dilution of the push toward accessibility, advocacy groups can focus on a common united agenda.
4. It addresses a number of issues faced by assistive technology developers and the assistive technology industry. The framework will provide a common platform that takes care of interoperability with existing ICT at the one end and delivery to users at the other. This will free up assistive technology developers to innovate and focus on refining existing access strategies and creating new means of access for currently unmet access needs.
 5. It will provide mainstream ICT developers with a common platform for meeting legislative and policy-based accessibility requirements.
 6. It reduces global redundancy in service delivery by providing supports for pooling and sharing resources.
 7. It eliminates the burden on many currently marginalized users to negotiate, explain and justify the need for alternative access means.
 8. It addresses the digital inclusion issues of the aging demographic, the technology reluctant or adverse and individuals with cognitive, language or cultural barriers to ICT access without requiring that individuals identify as having a disability or special needs requiring a special service.
 9. The framework eliminates the perceived dichotomy between technical innovation and accessibility in that it encourages a diversity of approaches, new and innovative approaches and new derivatives of existing approaches.
 10. The framework enables optimization of the user experience to the individual needs of each user, rather than a conception of what a particular class of users requires. This has the potential to improve usability for all users.
 11. The strategy is responsive to new specialized user needs and will scale to help address unexpected digital divides. It enables organic growth that dynamically matches supply with demand.
 12. The strategy provides a global means of matching “customers” with “products,” reducing the time it takes for ideas or research results to get to market.
 13. The framework engages both private and public sector services and open source and proprietary providers.
 14. The strategy will help with ICT adoption in non-ICT sectors as interfaces will be more approachable and understandable.

However there are major challenges in mounting this framework. Just a few of the challenges that alone make the plan extremely daunting include:

- maintaining and protecting the privacy of personal preference profiles,
- cooperation of the major operating system and device developers,
- supportive policies and legislation,
- a global federated search mechanism for finding resources that match a particular user need,
- compensation mechanisms that make the framework a viable business strategy for contributors, and
- means of quality maintenance, review and filtering.

Turning our Shortcomings into Strengths

While Canada has a number of shortcomings that make it an unlikely candidate to lead in various sectors of the digital economy, it can be argued that inclusive design, and specifically the personalization approach to inclusive delivery of ICT, can leverage some of our perceived weaknesses as strengths.

The strategy is dependent on a diverse pool of resources and approaches from a diverse pool of contributors and producers. The more unique the contributions and diverse the pool of resources, the better. One of Canada's perceived weaknesses is the lack of large anchor firms, enterprise solutions and bold decisive business strategies. Canada's ICT industry is primarily made up of small or medium enterprise ICT or independent ("Indie") developers and designers. This is exactly the type of producer needed to fuel strategies such as the GPII.

Canada has difficulty creating decisive national policies in the area of ICT. It is near to impossible to get agreement that will satisfy all regions and sectors. Strategies such as the GPII or AccessForAll do not require agreement on what constitutes accessible design, the platforms or conventions to use or any of the policies that seem impervious to consensus. Each region, each contributor, each sector can distinguish itself and assert its uniqueness.

Canada is not known to institute formal enterprise business structures, relying more on organic growth. This approach requires the agility and flexibility of organically organized systems. On the other hand, Canada has pioneered many systems of pooling and sharing resources (Canadian Encyclopedia, 2010).

Canada has not made the large-scale capital investments in ICT infrastructure made by other nations. The existing infrastructure is highly distributed and spotty. The GPII approach requires little capital investment and tolerates distributed and disparate delivery and participation.

Most importantly this capitalizes on Canada's diversity while at the same time addressing the ICT needs engendered by this diversity. Canada can be a primary consumer as well as contributor to this approach.

Currently there is global acknowledgement that, unlike other areas such as mobile systems, Canada leads the way in this domain. Canada can maintain this leadership by providing the platform for global research and development and in coordinating the infrastructure needed to support approaches such as the GPII. This has the potential to drive economic development and distinguish Canada as a leader in a growing market sector while at the same time addressing a critical internal need.

Conclusion

History has repeatedly confirmed that prosperity cannot be sustained unless it includes all members of a society. A sustainable digital economy strategy for Canada must include a strategy for inclusion, especially as diversity and inclusion are essential parts of the Canadian ethos. The emergence of a digital economy has brought challenges for inclusion as evidenced by the notion of the digital divide, conversely it also brings opportunities for far greater accessibility and inclusion by virtue of the plasticity and flexibility of the media. Fortuitously there is an opportunity for diversity and inclusive design to become powerful catalysts for innovation and new digital economies. While Canada must create a digital economy strategy that is inclusive of the increasing number of Canadian citizens with disabilities, all our major trading partners are also facing an aging demographic. The incidence of disabilities globally is rising, due to the aging trend but also due to advances in medicine that increase the chances of survival with disabilities and population growth (United Nations, 2010). It follows that there is a growing market for inclusively designed digital products and services globally. Canada may be uniquely positioned to meet this demand. The skills and capacity needed to address our domestic needs for inclusion can be leveraged to supply the global market. Not only does Canada have many of the precursors needed to mount a new economic cluster in inclusively designed digital products and services but an emerging approach to delivering digital inclusion is ideally suited to Canadian ICT conditions and characteristics.

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Appendix A:

Education And Digital Skills:

What Can We Do To Ensure That All Labour Market Entrants Have Digital Skills?

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CURRENT STATE OF DIGITAL SKILLS TAUGHT IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

What Are Digital Skills?

In their Consultation Paper on a Digital Economy Strategy for Canada, the Government of Canada (2010) defined digital skills as involving “a knowledge of current communications technology and an understanding of how it can be used. Digital skills are a suite of skills that help Canadians connect in today’s world and function in the labour market of today and tomorrow.”

K-12 Education

During the period of 2003 – 2004, more than one million computers were available in Canada to 5.3 million students in elementary and high schools, with 36% of secondary schools having students participating in electronic or online courses (Canadian Council on Learning, 2009). Given this, and the broad definition of digital skills cited above, it can be argued that during their time spent in K-12 education, students are learning basic digital skills including word processing, the use of the Internet to conduct information searches, and the use of email. Because education is a provincial matter, there is substantial variation in what different school boards - and individual schools - actually teach in a formal way and we assume that much learning takes place from peers. That being said, by the time students reach postsecondary education, it is widely assumed (Burns, 2010) that they have at least these basic digital skills. It also cannot go unnoticed that the pervasiveness of websites targeting this demographic, which include online gaming, social networking sites such as Facebook and MySpace, and other websites tied to children’s television programming, combined with the growth in popularity of gaming consoles such as Xbox and Wii, is playing a significant role in this demographic informally acquiring digital skills. As a reflection of this, one need only look at students’ expectations in choosing colleges, as reflected in the American 3rd CDW-G 21st-Century Campus Report (CDW-G, 2010) where, among the results, 63% of current university students indicated they considered technology available on campus as part of their school selection criteria. The report also provides insight concerning high school students, as 93% of high school students indicated that campus technology is important in their university selection criteria. While it must be noted that this is US data, technology trends within this demographic are assumed to be similar in Canada.

Postsecondary Education

If required, basic digital skills (e.g., word processing, internet searches), in general, are informally learned in Canadian colleges and universities. These are

generally not formally taught, but are expected of students upon graduation and entry into the labour market.

"Pick it up." Postsecondary institutions vary in what digital skills they teach. In programs other than information and computer science and related fields, where the focus is on specialized technical skill acquisition, it is frequently assumed that students either come possessing basic digital skills or that they will "pick it up" if they need it. In fact, recently a colleague (Burns, 2010) called this phenomenon the assumption of "born digital." So there are relatively few courses or workshops to teach basic skills at the postsecondary level.

Embedded in other courses. When it comes to skills other than the three basic ones (i.e., word processing, email, internet searches), such as spreadsheet (e.g., Excel), presentation (e.g., PowerPoint) and statistical (e.g., SPSS-PASW) operations, as well as library software, many - but by no means all - postsecondary schools do provide training. Typically this is embedded in the context of a specific course where the content requires these skills.

Specialized programs of study. It is only when a student's program involves specific computer applications which require mastery (e.g., Photoshop for photography/visual arts programs, AutoCAD for architecture, Maple for mathematics), that digital skills acquisition becomes a more explicit priority.

Social media and collaboration. Social media tools are increasingly being adopted by postsecondary educational institutions for different purposes, including collaboration (Kyle, 2009). This is increasingly initiated by the college and university students themselves. The number and types of social media tools being used is proliferating, even among students with disabilities. For example, in a recently completed study of 722 postsecondary students with disabilities (Asuncion, Fichten, Budd, Gaulin, Amsel, & Barile, 2010), YouTube and Facebook were the most popular social networking tools, with participants reporting using social media an average of 6 hours per week for school related activities. Social media use for education is typically an outgrowth of its personal use, and is generally learned by students through trial and error and through peers (CDW-G, 2010).

Course/learning management systems (CMS/LMS). A key exception to learning digital skills when these are not embedded in other courses is related to the school's course or learning management systems (CMS/LMS) and the online platform. Here schools often provide a brief introductory session or workshop; this ensures that the school's help desk is not inundated by thousands of calls at the beginning of each semester.

E-learning in the traditional, online and hybrid course. Professors are being increasingly encouraged to use collaborative tools, such as Google Docs, wikis, and social media (e.g., de Villiers, 2010; Google, 2010) and they are increasingly

expected to use e-learning (CDW-G, 2010). A common definition of e-learning - and one that we will use here - is that it is information and communication technologies that are used by professors to teach their classes. E-learning is being used by professors in all types of courses (Canadian Council on Learning, 2009).

For example, in traditional courses (i.e., course is taught entirely in class) most faculty use, at a minimum, data projection (usually PowerPoint presentations), communication with students using email, digital submission of assignments, and digital library searches. Most postsecondary schools provide online courses as well as hybrid (also called blended) courses. In these types of courses additional digital tools are commonly used, including sophisticated course/learning management systems such as Moodle, WebCT-Blackboard, VClass, and Elluminate. As noted earlier, many students acquire needed digital skills on their own, although schools often offer workshops and assistance to students in helping them use the library catalogues and in helping them adapt to the online CMS/LMS environment.

Implications. The consequence of such haphazard efforts to teach digital skills is twofold. On the one hand, students often fail to develop expertise in the use of specific types of software. On the other, many become self-directed learners who are well positioned to learn new digital skills.

HOW DO STUDENTS WITH DIFFERENT DISABILITIES LEARN DIGITAL SKILLS AND HOW WELL DOES THIS WORK FOR THEM?

The numbers of students with disabilities in postsecondary education have continued to rise during the past 30 years (Number of students with disabilities at Ontario universities and colleges 2010) and, at this point, we estimate that approximately 10% of Canadian postsecondary students have a disability of some sort. Although postsecondary students have reported visual, hearing, mobility, psychiatric, neurological, and medically related disabilities, the most common disability reported by students is a specific learning disability such as dyslexia (Fichten, Asuncion, Nguyen, Budd, & Amsel, 2010). Clearly, given the diversity of students' impairments, there is a multiplicity of means for them to acquire digital skills. This includes schools, rehabilitation centers, tutoring/academic skills centers and, of course, parents and peers. Given the diversity of K-12 school systems in Canada (Ertl & Plante, 2004) and the varied provincial criteria which define eligibility for educational (and medical) support services (e.g., A.L. Charette Consulting Ltd., 2008) it is impossible to provide accurate statistics on how students with disabilities learn digital skills in K-12 education. The one finding that seems to cut across all disabilities, however, is that students typically report that they learned to use specialized adaptive information and communication technologies in postsecondary education rather than in K-12 schooling (Sharpe, Johnson, Izzo, & Murray, 2005).

What do we know?

First, we should note that many students with disabilities require specialized adaptive software or hardware to use a computer effectively. In a landmark study conducted in 2009 (Fichten, Asuncion, Budd, Barile, Martiniello, Wolforth, & Amsel, in press) we asked over 1350 college and university students with different disabilities what computer and/or adaptive computer technologies they considered could be useful in getting their school work done. Approximately half of the students indicated needing specialized software and/or hardware to use a computer effectively.

Adaptive, Assistive, General Use and Adaptable ICTs

In rank order, students in 2009 (Fichten, Asuncion, Budd, Barile, Martiniello, Wolforth, & Amsel, in press) indicated needing the following information and communication technology (ICT):

1. Software that improves writing quality
2. Software that reads what is on the screen
3. Scanning and optical character recognition (OCR)
4. Dictation software
5. Software that enlarges what is on the screen
6. Large screen monitor
7. Alternative mouse
8. Adapted keyboard
9. Refreshable Braille display

As we indicated in a previous paper (Fichten, Asuncion, Barile, Fossey, & De Simone, 2000), it is evident from this list that what are generally considered mainstream, general use information and communication technologies (ICTs) are, in fact, used as adaptive aids by students with certain disabilities. For example, most people use spell checkers. For students with some learning disabilities, this tool is used as an adaptive aid to help compensate for the disability. Dictation software originally developed for professionals, is now used as an adaptive aid by students with a variety of hand/arm impairments and some types of learning disabilities. Screen reading (synthesized speech) technologies, originally used by individuals with visual impairments, have crossed over into the mainstream and are increasingly available for wireless telephony-based e-mail enhancements. The same is true for general use scanners and optical character recognition software that are used as adaptive tools by students with visual and other print impairments. Nevertheless, some ICTs have remained disability specific (e.g., refreshable Braille display, dedicated magnification programs for students with visual impairments such as ZoomText, head and foot mice).

Thus, there appear to be three categories of computer technologies used by

students with disabilities: general use ICTs (e.g., word processing software), adaptive computer technologies (e.g., refreshable Braille display), and those which are “adaptable” (e.g., dictation software). Students also use certain computer technologies in idiosyncratic highly creative ways (e.g., using word processing software coupled with speech synthesis in class instead of talking for students with speech impairments), further clouding distinctions.

Although universal design (cf. Burgstahler & Cory, 2008) in digital products is blurring the lines between adaptive and general use ICTs, not all technologies can be considered accessible for all. As long as software and hardware are designed and built without consideration for their accessibility there will be “issues of accommodation” in areas of technology, as is the case in architecture. Thus, a general rule still applies: information and communication technologies must serve as tools to facilitate the execution of daily activities, and their use must be determined by the user’s needs. This can only happen if users have access to the adaptive and adaptable technologies they need. This involves both physical access (i.e., having access to the software and needed equipment) as well as knowing how to use these.

How Do Students with Different Disabilities Use ICTs?

Findings from our previous investigations indicate how students with different disabilities use computers. The section that follows is based on Fichten, Asuncion, Barile, Fossey, and De Simone’s (2000) paper.

Students who are blind. Most students who are blind use software that reads text on the screen (called a screen reader or text-to-speech software); many of these can “read” icons, tabs, and menu bars as well. By using a scanner and optical character recognition (OCR), printed text can be converted into electronic text, which can then be read using a screen reader or a refreshable Braille display (hardware device attached to a computer that provides Braille output). Laptops with screen readers and refreshable Braille displays can be used to take notes. A popular bilingual screen reading software for students who are blind is Jaws, and a popular OCR software is OpenBook.

Students with low vision. These students use software that enlarges the size of visual elements (magnification) as well as synthesized speech (text-to-speech) to read digital text files. Many use both, along with large screen monitors. Students can control the visual display through readily available and built-in features of popular software (e.g., zoom, font size, font and background color) to enhance contrast and visibility. These students, too, use scanners and OCR to enlarge printed materials or to convert printed material into digital text. A popular bilingual screen reading/magnification software for students with low vision is ZoomText. Many students with low vision are able to use the OCR software that came with their scanner, such as the bilingual OmniPage, for example.

Students with mobility and hand/arm impairments. A variety of ergonomic adaptations are likely to be used by these students. Software based keyboard adaptations include accessibility features in Windows and Apple operating systems. For example, Windows incorporates features such as sticky keys (built-in software to allow: one keystroke use of keys that require Shift, Control, Alt, etc.), filter keys (to instruct the computer to ignore brief or repeated keystrokes or to slow key repeat rates), mouse keys (allow mouse movements to be emulated by keystrokes), and a virtual keyboard (similar to those found on certain smart phones and the iPad). Both software and hardware adaptations can allow for one handed typing. Students can also use a keyguard (plastic keyboard overlay to prevent hitting two keys at the same time), splints, wrist rests, as well as a variety of alternative mice including trackballs and touch pads. Many students can benefit from dictation software that allows them to dictate content as well as control menus and dialog boxes by voice. Students can also use alternate input devices such as a mouth wand (chopstick-like rod with a rubberized tip for typing using one's mouth), a sip and puff device (system to give computer commands by blowing or sucking through a straw-like device), or Morse input. Some of these students, too, can benefit from electronic text (no need to handle paper). Thus, scanners with OCR software can be useful for these students as well. Some students also use word prediction software (similar to predictive text programs that complete words when texting on mobile phones) to speed up their typing. Portable devices such as a laptop or other type of portable note taking device can also be useful. A popular bilingual dictation software used by students is Dragon Naturally Speaking. A popular bilingual word prediction software is WordQ.

Students with hearing impairments. A variety of electronic dictionaries/encyclopedias as well as both general use (e.g., spell check and grammar check) and specialized writing aids (e.g., word prediction software) can be helpful for these students. They can also use operating system built-in accessibility features such as visual flash (instead of sounds) as well as computer based and mobile texting and chat programs such as Windows Live Messenger. When accessing video and audio clips, many of these students can make use of subtitles/captions where available.

Students with speech/communication impairments. These students can also use a portable, light-weight laptop, netbook, smart phone, or note taker device (e.g., AlphaSmart, 2000) to communicate with others in face-to-face contexts. For class presentations these students can use a word processor with a multimedia projector instead of speaking. They can also have PowerPoint or other presentation materials projected onto a large screen.

Students with a learning disability. Equipment developed for students with the disabilities mentioned above can also be used by students with learning disabilities. For example, students who have dyslexia or other reading problems can use software that reads what is on the screen as well as screen magnification and

highlighting. A popular free product used by many students is the bilingual ReadPlease. These students can also use a scanner and OCR to convert printed materials to electronic text, which can then be read using synthesized speech. For students who have difficulty writing cursive text, a laptop, netbook, or portable note taking device can be useful. Students who have difficulty with grammar and spelling sometimes find dictation software helpful. Those with problems related to organization can use commonly available document manager and scheduling programs. Of course, spelling and grammar check are also important. These students can also benefit from word prediction as well as electronic dictionaries and encyclopedias. Specialized "mind mapping / concept mapping" flow-charting software, such as Inspiration, may also be of interest. A popular bilingual "high end" (i.e., expensive) product that combines many of these elements is the bilingual Kurzweil 3000.

Students with intellectual impairments. While their numbers are growing in some Canadian college programs, not enough is known about students with intellectual impairments and their unique needs when it comes to digital skills acquisition. Based on a review of the literature, we conclude that in 2010 the following have been identified as obstacles to the use of ICTs by persons with intellectual disabilities (e.g., Technology for people with intellectual disabilities, 2005; Van De Keere, 2006): literacy skills, time factors related to the use of live communication programs for chatting (e.g., Windows Live Messenger), speed of changes in the deployment of ICTs, and the ability of this population to learn using ICTs given how the information is presented at this time.

Cost, Availability Training, Knowing About Specialized ICTs

When asked, college and university students with disabilities across Canada have expressed concerns over the availability of computers with adaptive hardware/software in their school's specialized computer laboratories, training on ICTs both on and off campus, as well as funding for ICTs for personal use (Fichten, Asuncion, Nguyen, Budd, & Amsel, 2010). Part of the complexity of digital skills training with persons with disabilities lies not only in the need to learn to use mainstream ICTs such as PowerPoint and SPSS, but often times these individuals require specialized computer technology to be able to use these technologies. For example, students with visual impairments need to use software that reads what is on the screen, for which they also need training. In earlier work, students have expressed concern over the cost of adaptive technologies and a lack in awareness of what is out there for them (Asuncion, Fichten, Fossey, & Barile, 2002). Moreover, the regulations concerning financial support for students with disabilities, including their specialized ICTs, is confusing and eligibility criteria and regulations differ from province to province (Human Resources and Skills Development Canada, 2010). Any one of these factors in isolation or taken together could act as an inhibitor(s) for these students to gain access to computers in general, and by extension, to being able to gain digital literacy skills.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVING DIGITAL INCLUSION IN THE POSTSECONDARY ENVIRONMENT

Explicitly Include Learners with Disabilities as a Priority by ACCC and AUCC

The Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC, 2010), which represents over 150 publicly-funded colleges, institutes, polytechnics, Cegeps, university colleges and universities with a college mandate, and the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC, 2010), representing 95 Canadian public and private not-for-profit universities and university-degree level colleges both responded to the Canadian Government's digital economy consultation. For its part, the ACC provided recommendations under three themes: capacity to innovate using digital technologies, building a world class digital infrastructure, and, building digital skills for tomorrow (ACCC, 2010). The AUCC focused their recommendations around what they see as their role in this area: developing talent, conducting research and creating new and maintaining existing research infrastructure (AUCC, 2010). While each described their unique role and provided recommendations to the Government of Canada in supporting digital skill acquisition, no reference was made to inclusion or accessibility by and for Canadians with disabilities. Recognizing that these submissions may not have been appropriate venues to spell out commitment to learners with disabilities, and while there may be an implicit assumption that these students are being accounted for in the digital skills priorities of each organization, both are clearly well-positioned and must take a leadership role in assuring that their member institutions include explicit consideration for and by students with disabilities in plans as they are being defined and realized.

Create a Role for an Accessibility Specialist

E-learning has a dual purpose, both as a means for faculty to deliver learning materials, and as an opportunity for learners to gain digital skills by virtue of interacting with different ICTs. Therefore, whether it means adding to an individual's existing mandate or creating a new role, having someone on campus who is responsible for making e-learning accessible to students with different disabilities would be beneficial. This is not to suggest that this accountability rest exclusively within the office or service responsible for students with disabilities. Rather, it would be appropriate that this person be a member of the department or unit that is responsible for e-learning for the school.

Adopt E-learning Accessibility Guidelines

In support of e-learning as a tool used to encourage the growth of digital skill acquisition, colleges and universities should consider developing and adopting e-learning accessibility guidelines that address both in-house development of e-learning as well as purchases of e-learning products and technology. To be effective, such guidelines would need to be viewed as requirements, as opposed to being optional. They would need buy-in from a variety of stakeholders, and would need

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senior-level support within the institution.

A related issue concerns the need to ensure that adaptive information and communication technologies are made available in all computer labs, not merely in the school's segregated specialized labs in libraries and campus disability offices. Virtually all adaptive software companies offer site licenses to schools - to be truly inclusive, it behooves colleges and universities to enable students with disabilities to learn, study, and work in the same labs and classrooms as their peers. Indeed, the need for more computers with adaptive technologies in general use computer labs was a key topic that students with disabilities saw as lacking at their school in a recent Canadian investigation (Fichten, Asuncion, Budd, Barile, Martiniello, Wolforth, & Amsel, in press).

Training

Many colleges and universities already offer training to faculty on how to integrate e-learning in teaching and on how to use specific e-learning tools. As a start, developing a module on how to make e-learning accessible and integrating this into existing training would, at a minimum, begin sensitizing faculty and staff to the issues. Other, more targeted modules can be considered on specific topics, such as how to make a website or a PDF file accessible, based on needs. There are numerous online resources to act as a starting-point (e.g., EASI <<http://easi.cc/>>, DO-IT <www.washington.edu/doi/>, and WebAIM <www.webaim.org/>).

Have the Campus Disability Service Provider Play a Larger Role in E-learning and Digital Skills Training Decisions

Virtually all schools have an individual, a committee, or a department that is responsible for e-learning products and the training of faculty in the effective use of ICTs in teaching. Inviting campus disability service providers / access coordinators to sit on this body could go a long way toward ensuring that e-learning is accessible to students with disabilities, toward developing guidelines and policies that explicitly address the accessibility of e-learning, toward assuring that opportunities for students to acquire digital skills also take into account students with disabilities, and toward including accessibility issues in faculty training.

Integrate Principles of Universal Instructional Design

An interesting approach that has been gaining popularity in postsecondary education in recent years is universal design of instruction (UDI). This approach consists of designing and using instructional strategies that benefit a broad range of students, including those with disabilities. Proponents of this concept hold that if something works well for students with disabilities, it works better for all students (Shaw, 2002). This denotes concepts of "access for all," human rights, and equitable access to educational resources by anticipating the varied needs of learners and focusing on accessibility from the beginning of implementation. The nine principles of universal design of instruction are based on universal design in architecture,

which states that good design (a) takes into account the needs of all individuals and (b) that planning for accessibility should be incorporated from the inception of the design process (Nguyen, Fichten, Barile, & Lévesque, 2006).

Universal design was first introduced in architectural and graphic design in the late 1980's. Its central tenets are, the design of products and environments that are usable by all people, to the greatest extent possible, without the need for adaptation or specialized design or at extra cost (Story, Mueller & Mace, 1998). The principles of universal design have quickly spread to other areas such as teaching and learning (e.g., McGuire, Scott, and Shaw, 2003). Burgstahler's (2010) brochure provides a good starting point for introducing UDI to postsecondary ICT labs. The basic concept is that e-learning materials are created keeping the inclusion of students with different disabilities in mind from the beginning.

Postsecondary Stakeholders

Professors. Faculty are generally positive about accommodations for students with disabilities (Vogel et al., 2006), but are not fond of extensive extra work requiring them to become adaptive technologists and e-learning specialists. The suggestions below are made with these considerations in mind.

When using PowerPoint or data projection, professors may wish to make the material available online well in advance of each class; these should use a large font (minimum of Arial 24) and a good contrast. This will allow students with visual impairments to access the materials and it will also assist nondisabled students who wish to be prepared for class. The font and contrast recommendation will also ensure that the presentation is visible in classrooms with variable lighting conditions and that the presentation can be seen from the back row. Similarly, when preparing course packs of articles and documents in PDF format, professors can, in many cases, download clean, and probably screen reader ready, versions of journal articles and documents instead of scanning old annotated paper documents. This will save the time needed to scan old documents, ensure that all pages are included in the PDF, and result in a more readable experience for all students, including students with print impairments who use screen reading technologies.

When inserting photos, pictures and other images into Word or PowerPoint files, professors can easily include a brief title or description of the image. This requires minimal technical expertise. For example, in Microsoft products right click the image, click on "Format Picture", choose the "Web" tab, and simply type needed information into the "Alternative text" box. This will make the description of the image available to screen reading software and will also provide a name or a brief description or a citation to allow the professor to remember what the image was supposed to illustrate.

Most professors produce much of their e-learning materials in Microsoft Word and Excel, and then convert these to PDF documents for web posting. It is

little trouble to post two versions on the web site, identifying the documents with their filename extensions. This will not pose undue hardship for the professor but it will make a huge difference to students who use screen reading software. Also, if there is a need to quote from these documents or to do additional calculations, the native formats of these documents will be helpful to all students.

Professors could also lobby textbook sales representatives to ensure that textbooks and publisher produced e-learning materials and web sites are accessible to students with disabilities. They can do this by letting the reps know that the availability of an accessible version of the textbook and the accessibility of all supplementary print and e-learning materials for students with disabilities will be an important textbook selection criterion.

E-learning professionals can make the most difference by ensuring that e-learning products selected for campus-wide use are designed with universal design, accessibility, and usability in mind. Also, these professionals are often involved in faculty e-learning training program development. It would be very helpful if, in the context of such training, basic elements of e-learning accessibility are included. In addition, e-learning professionals are often in a position to assist faculty with their e-learning accessibility needs. Giving priority to professors' requests when these concern accessibility would also be helpful.

Two common problems noted by participants in a recent study (Fichten, Ferraro, Asuncion, Chwojka, Barile, Nguyen, Klomp, & Wolforth, 2009) were problems with audio and video content for students with hearing and visual impairments and difficulties with timed online exams. When assisting professors in making videoclips and when posting lectures online, e-learning specialists can go a long way to help ensure that videos are captioned and described and that there is a text version of audioclips. Camtasia, a popular low cost screen capture product that includes video and audio capture is used to produce e-learning materials in many colleges and universities. A positive feature of this technology is that it can easily be captioned (subtitled). E-learning professionals can work with faculty and audiovisual technicians to ensure that captioning is made available, perhaps with the help of dictation software. An example of this can be seen on the Adaptech Research Network web site at <<http://www.adaptech.org>> by clicking on "Downloads" and selecting "Video Demonstrations." Captioning, of course, helps second language learners as well as students who need to spell long, obscure, or technical terms. When customizing course / learning management (CMS/LMS) systems or providing feedback to their developers concerning improvements that would make the product more competitive in the next revision, e-learning professionals can recommend adjustments to allow professors to customize the timing of online evaluation for individual students. And while they are at it, they can also try to ensure that quiz responses will not be made invalid by accidental keystrokes. While this will help students with arm / hand impairments, it will also assist the large numbers of nondisabled students who strike keys by accident.

E-learning professionals are usually heavily implicated in web page development for their school. Difficulties with access and usability issues related to web sites were the most common problems reported in a recent study of the accessibility of e-learning by students with all types of disabilities (Fichten, Ferraro, Asuncion, Chwojka, Barile, Nguyen, Klomp, & Wolforth, 2009). Assuring the accessibility and usability of these would go a long way to resolving the most common e-learning complaint of members of the postsecondary community. And finally, e-learning professionals can help assure good access for students to helpful help desks to deal with the technical, login, downloading, etc. problems that are commonly reported by students.

Disability service providers / access coordinators are key in providing supports for problems with adaptive information and communication technologies (Harding et al., 2006). They can work with their institutions to develop e-learning accessibility and usability guidelines at their school. This is likely to mean working with e-learning specialists at their school, and will mean extra meetings for a while. But these efforts will result in fewer accessibility problems down the line. Students in a recently completed study of e-learning (Fichten, Ferraro, Asuncion, Chwojka, Barile, Nguyen, Klomp, & Wolforth, 2009), those with learning disabilities and attention deficit disorders, in particular, indicated problems related to their knowledge of e-learning products. Disability service providers could showcase e-learning products used at their school as well as software that can improve writing quality in mini-workshops and training sessions which allow students to get hands-on experience.

Students, of course, need to know how to use adaptive computer technologies that can help them access e-learning in effective ways. They, as the end users, need to inform postsecondary personnel when they experience obstacles to the effective use of e-learning.

Embed Accessibility Into Canadian Government ICT Skills Gap Strategy

In their digital economy consultation paper, the Government of Canada (2010) identified at least three components to a longer-term strategy that could help close ICT skills gaps:

- 1) expand post-secondary programs that combine ICTs with other fields, and increase the role of co-op and internship placements;
- 2) expand programs to integrate under-represented groups and internationally educated professionals; and
- 3) strengthen opportunities for continuing professional development of ICT workers currently in the workforce.

There are opportunities for the government to not only bring leadership in these three areas, but to direct stakeholders who will play a role in moving these

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three agenda items forward to tangibly demonstrate inclusion of Canadians with disabilities in their plans (e.g., as a prerequisite for funding initiatives).

Disability Organizations Must Play Their Part

Neither the National Educational Association of Disabled Students (<<http://www.neads.ca>>) nor the Quebec Association of Postsecondary Students with Disabilities (AQEIPS) < <http://www.aqeips.qc.ca/>> has brought specific focus on access to digital skills training. As the leading advocacy organizations by and for postsecondary students nationally and in Quebec, respectively, these groups need to play an active role. They need to identify what initiatives are being developed to provide digital skills (by colleges and universities, in the community, by government), and lobby that the needs of learners with disabilities are taken into account. Only by such actions can any guarantee be made that the voices of the learners with disabilities themselves are heard and addressed.

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Appendix A:

Education And Digital Skills: What Can We Do To Ensure That All Labour Market Entrants Have Digital Skills?

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CURRENT STATE OF DIGITAL SKILLS TAUGHT IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS

What Are Digital Skills?

In their Consultation Paper on a Digital Economy Strategy for Canada, the Government of Canada (2010) defined digital skills as involving “a knowledge of current communications technology and an understanding of how it can be used. Digital skills are a suite of skills that help Canadians connect in today’s world and function in the labour market of today and tomorrow.”

K-12 Education

During the period of 2003 – 2004, more than one million computers were available in Canada to 5.3 million students in elementary and high schools, with 36% of secondary schools having students participating in electronic or online courses (Canadian Council on Learning, 2009). Given this, and the broad definition of digital skills cited above, it can be argued that during their time spent in K-12 education, students are learning basic digital skills including word processing, the use of the Internet to conduct information searches, and the use of email. Because education is a provincial matter, there is substantial variation in what different school boards - and individual schools - actually teach in a formal way and we assume that much learning takes place from peers. That being said, by the time students reach postsecondary education, it is widely assumed (Burns, 2010) that they have at least these basic digital skills. It also cannot go unnoticed that the pervasiveness of websites targeting this demographic, which include online gaming, social networking sites such as Facebook and MySpace, and other websites tied to children’s television programming, combined with the growth in popularity of gaming consoles such as Xbox and Wii, is playing a significant role in this demographic informally acquiring digital skills. As a reflection of this, one need only look at students’ expectations in choosing colleges, as reflected in the American 3rd CDW-G 21st-Century Campus Report (CDW-G, 2010) where, among the results, 63% of current university students indicated they considered technology available on campus as part of their school selection criteria. The report also provides insight concerning high school students, as 93% of high school students indicated that campus technology is important in their university selection criteria. While it must be noted that this is US data, technology trends within this demographic are assumed to be similar in Canada.

Postsecondary Education

If required, basic digital skills (e.g., word processing, internet searches), in general, are informally learned in Canadian colleges and universities. These are

generally not formally taught, but are expected of students upon graduation and entry into the labour market.

"Pick it up." Postsecondary institutions vary in what digital skills they teach. In programs other than information and computer science and related fields, where the focus is on specialized technical skill acquisition, it is frequently assumed that students either come possessing basic digital skills or that they will "pick it up" if they need it. In fact, recently a colleague (Burns, 2010) called this phenomenon the assumption of "born digital." So there are relatively few courses or workshops to teach basic skills at the postsecondary level.

Embedded in other courses. When it comes to skills other than the three basic ones (i.e., word processing, email, internet searches), such as spreadsheet (e.g., Excel), presentation (e.g., PowerPoint) and statistical (e.g., SPSS-PASW) operations, as well as library software, many - but by no means all - postsecondary schools do provide training. Typically this is embedded in the context of a specific course where the content requires these skills.

Specialized programs of study. It is only when a student's program involves specific computer applications which require mastery (e.g., Photoshop for photography/visual arts programs, AutoCAD for architecture, Maple for mathematics), that digital skills acquisition becomes a more explicit priority.

Social media and collaboration. Social media tools are increasingly being adopted by postsecondary educational institutions for different purposes, including collaboration (Kyle, 2009). This is increasingly initiated by the college and university students themselves. The number and types of social media tools being used is proliferating, even among students with disabilities. For example, in a recently completed study of 722 postsecondary students with disabilities (Asuncion, Fichten, Budd, Gaulin, Amsel, & Barile, 2010), YouTube and Facebook were the most popular social networking tools, with participants reporting using social media an average of 6 hours per week for school related activities. Social media use for education is typically an outgrowth of its personal use, and is generally learned by students through trial and error and through peers (CDW-G, 2010).

Course/learning management systems (CMS/LMS). A key exception to learning digital skills when these are not embedded in other courses is related to the school's course or learning management systems (CMS/LMS) and the online platform. Here schools often provide a brief introductory session or workshop; this ensures that the school's help desk is not inundated by thousands of calls at the beginning of each semester.

E-learning in the traditional, online and hybrid course. Professors are being increasingly encouraged to use collaborative tools, such as Google Docs, wikis, and social media (e.g., de Villiers, 2010; Google, 2010) and they are increasingly

expected to use e-learning (CDW-G, 2010). A common definition of e-learning - and one that we will use here - is that it is information and communication technologies that are used by professors to teach their classes. E-learning is being used by professors in all types of courses (Canadian Council on Learning, 2009).

For example, in traditional courses (i.e., course is taught entirely in class) most faculty use, at a minimum, data projection (usually PowerPoint presentations), communication with students using email, digital submission of assignments, and digital library searches. Most postsecondary schools provide online courses as well as hybrid (also called blended) courses. In these types of courses additional digital tools are commonly used, including sophisticated course/learning management systems such as Moodle, WebCT-Blackboard, VClass, and Elluminate. As noted earlier, many students acquire needed digital skills on their own, although schools often offer workshops and assistance to students in helping them use the library catalogues and in helping them adapt to the online CMS/LMS environment.

Implications. The consequence of such haphazard efforts to teach digital skills is twofold. On the one hand, students often fail to develop expertise in the use of specific types of software. On the other, many become self-directed learners who are well positioned to learn new digital skills.

HOW DO STUDENTS WITH DIFFERENT DISABILITIES LEARN DIGITAL SKILLS AND HOW WELL DOES THIS WORK FOR THEM?

The numbers of students with disabilities in postsecondary education have continued to rise during the past 30 years (Number of students with disabilities at Ontario universities and colleges 2010) and, at this point, we estimate that approximately 10% of Canadian postsecondary students have a disability of some sort. Although postsecondary students have reported visual, hearing, mobility, psychiatric, neurological, and medically related disabilities, the most common disability reported by students is a specific learning disability such as dyslexia (Fichten, Asuncion, Nguyen, Budd, & Amsel, 2010). Clearly, given the diversity of students' impairments, there is a multiplicity of means for them to acquire digital skills. This includes schools, rehabilitation centers, tutoring/academic skills centers and, of course, parents and peers. Given the diversity of K-12 school systems in Canada (Ertl & Plante, 2004) and the varied provincial criteria which define eligibility for educational (and medical) support services (e.g., A.L. Charette Consulting Ltd., 2008) it is impossible to provide accurate statistics on how students with disabilities learn digital skills in K-12 education. The one finding that seems to cut across all disabilities, however, is that students typically report that they learned to use specialized adaptive information and communication technologies in postsecondary education rather than in K-12 schooling (Sharpe, Johnson, Izzo, & Murray, 2005).

What do we know?

First, we should note that many students with disabilities require specialized adaptive software or hardware to use a computer effectively. In a landmark study conducted in 2009 (Fichten, Asuncion, Budd, Barile, Martiniello, Wolforth, & Amsel, in press) we asked over 1350 college and university students with different disabilities what computer and/or adaptive computer technologies they considered could be useful in getting their school work done. Approximately half of the students indicated needing specialized software and/or hardware to use a computer effectively.

Adaptive, Assistive, General Use and Adaptable ICTs

In rank order, students in 2009 (Fichten, Asuncion, Budd, Barile, Martiniello, Wolforth, & Amsel, in press) indicated needing the following information and communication technology (ICT):

10. Software that improves writing quality
11. Software that reads what is on the screen
12. Scanning and optical character recognition (OCR)
13. Dictation software
14. Software that enlarges what is on the screen
15. Large screen monitor
16. Alternative mouse
17. Adapted keyboard
18. Refreshable Braille display

As we indicated in a previous paper (Fichten, Asuncion, Barile, Fossey, & De Simone, 2000), it is evident from this list that what are generally considered mainstream, general use information and communication technologies (ICTs) are, in fact, used as adaptive aids by students with certain disabilities. For example, most people use spell checkers. For students with some learning disabilities, this tool is used as an adaptive aid to help compensate for the disability. Dictation software originally developed for professionals, is now used as an adaptive aid by students with a variety of hand/arm impairments and some types of learning disabilities. Screen reading (synthesized speech) technologies, originally used by individuals with visual impairments, have crossed over into the mainstream and are increasingly available for wireless telephony-based e-mail enhancements. The same is true for general use scanners and optical character recognition software that are used as adaptive tools by students with visual and other print impairments. Nevertheless, some ICTs have remained disability specific (e.g., refreshable Braille display, dedicated magnification programs for students with visual impairments such as ZoomText, head and foot mice).

Thus, there appear to be three categories of computer technologies used by

students with disabilities: general use ICTs (e.g., word processing software), adaptive computer technologies (e.g., refreshable Braille display), and those which are “adaptable” (e.g., dictation software). Students also use certain computer technologies in idiosyncratic highly creative ways (e.g., using word processing software coupled with speech synthesis in class instead of talking for students with speech impairments), further clouding distinctions.

Although universal design (cf. Burgstahler & Cory, 2008) in digital products is blurring the lines between adaptive and general use ICTs, not all technologies can be considered accessible for all. As long as software and hardware are designed and built without consideration for their accessibility there will be “issues of accommodation” in areas of technology, as is the case in architecture. Thus, a general rule still applies: information and communication technologies must serve as tools to facilitate the execution of daily activities, and their use must be determined by the user’s needs. This can only happen if users have access to the adaptive and adaptable technologies they need. This involves both physical access (i.e., having access to the software and needed equipment) as well as knowing how to use these.

How Do Students with Different Disabilities Use ICTs?

Findings from our previous investigations indicate how students with different disabilities use computers. The section that follows is based on Fichten, Asuncion, Barile, Fossey, and De Simone’s (2000) paper.

Students who are blind. Most students who are blind use software that reads text on the screen (called a screen reader or text-to-speech software); many of these can “read” icons, tabs, and menu bars as well. By using a scanner and optical character recognition (OCR), printed text can be converted into electronic text, which can then be read using a screen reader or a refreshable Braille display (hardware device attached to a computer that provides Braille output). Laptops with screen readers and refreshable Braille displays can be used to take notes. A popular bilingual screen reading software for students who are blind is Jaws, and a popular OCR software is OpenBook.

Students with low vision. These students use software that enlarges the size of visual elements (magnification) as well as synthesized speech (text-to-speech) to read digital text files. Many use both, along with large screen monitors. Students can control the visual display through readily available and built-in features of popular software (e.g., zoom, font size, font and background color) to enhance contrast and visibility. These students, too, use scanners and OCR to enlarge printed materials or to convert printed material into digital text. A popular bilingual screen reading/magnification software for students with low vision is ZoomText. Many students with low vision are able to use the OCR software that came with their scanner, such as the bilingual OmniPage, for example.

Students with mobility and hand/arm impairments. A variety of ergonomic adaptations are likely to be used by these students. Software based keyboard adaptations include accessibility features in Windows and Apple operating systems. For example, Windows incorporates features such as sticky keys (built-in software to allow: one keystroke use of keys that require Shift, Control, Alt, etc.), filter keys (to instruct the computer to ignore brief or repeated keystrokes or to slow key repeat rates), mouse keys (allow mouse movements to be emulated by keystrokes), and a virtual keyboard (similar to those found on certain smart phones and the iPad). Both software and hardware adaptations can allow for one handed typing. Students can also use a keyguard (plastic keyboard overlay to prevent hitting two keys at the same time), splints, wrist rests, as well as a variety of alternative mice including trackballs and touch pads. Many students can benefit from dictation software that allows them to dictate content as well as control menus and dialog boxes by voice. Students can also use alternate input devices such as a mouth wand (chopstick-like rod with a rubberized tip for typing using one's mouth), a sip and puff device (system to give computer commands by blowing or sucking through a straw-like device), or Morse input. Some of these students, too, can benefit from electronic text (no need to handle paper). Thus, scanners with OCR software can be useful for these students as well. Some students also use word prediction software (similar to predictive text programs that complete words when texting on mobile phones) to speed up their typing. Portable devices such as a laptop or other type of portable note taking device can also be useful. A popular bilingual dictation software used by students is Dragon Naturally Speaking. A popular bilingual word prediction software is WordQ.

Students with hearing impairments. A variety of electronic dictionaries/encyclopedias as well as both general use (e.g., spell check and grammar check) and specialized writing aids (e.g., word prediction software) can be helpful for these students. They can also use operating system built-in accessibility features such as visual flash (instead of sounds) as well as computer based and mobile texting and chat programs such as Windows Live Messenger. When accessing video and audio clips, many of these students can make use of subtitles/captions where available.

Students with speech/communication impairments. These students can also use a portable, light-weight laptop, netbook, smart phone, or note taker device (e.g., AlphaSmart, 2000) to communicate with others in face-to-face contexts. For class presentations these students can use a word processor with a multimedia projector instead of speaking. They can also have PowerPoint or other presentation materials projected onto a large screen.

Students with a learning disability. Equipment developed for students with the disabilities mentioned above can also be used by students with learning disabilities. For example, students who have dyslexia or other reading problems can use software that reads what is on the screen as well as screen magnification and

highlighting. A popular free product used by many students is the bilingual ReadPlease. These students can also use a scanner and OCR to convert printed materials to electronic text, which can then be read using synthesized speech. For students who have difficulty writing cursive text, a laptop, netbook, or portable note taking device can be useful. Students who have difficulty with grammar and spelling sometimes find dictation software helpful. Those with problems related to organization can use commonly available document manager and scheduling programs. Of course, spelling and grammar check are also important. These students can also benefit from word prediction as well as electronic dictionaries and encyclopedias. Specialized "mind mapping / concept mapping" flow-charting software, such as Inspiration, may also be of interest. A popular bilingual "high end" (i.e., expensive) product that combines many of these elements is the bilingual Kurzweil 3000.

Students with intellectual impairments. While their numbers are growing in some Canadian college programs, not enough is known about students with intellectual impairments and their unique needs when it comes to digital skills acquisition. Based on a review of the literature, we conclude that in 2010 the following have been identified as obstacles to the use of ICTs by persons with intellectual disabilities (e.g., Technology for people with intellectual disabilities, 2005; Van De Keere, 2006): literacy skills, time factors related to the use of live communication programs for chatting (e.g., Windows Live Messenger), speed of changes in the deployment of ICTs, and the ability of this population to learn using ICTs given how the information is presented at this time.

Cost, Availability Training, Knowing About Specialized ICTs

When asked, college and university students with disabilities across Canada have expressed concerns over the availability of computers with adaptive hardware/software in their school's specialized computer laboratories, training on ICTs both on and off campus, as well as funding for ICTs for personal use (Fichten, Asuncion, Nguyen, Budd, & Amsel, 2010). Part of the complexity of digital skills training with persons with disabilities lies not only in the need to learn to use mainstream ICTs such as PowerPoint and SPSS, but often times these individuals require specialized computer technology to be able to use these technologies. For example, students with visual impairments need to use software that reads what is on the screen, for which they also need training. In earlier work, students have expressed concern over the cost of adaptive technologies and a lack in awareness of what is out there for them (Asuncion, Fichten, Fossey, & Barile, 2002). Moreover, the regulations concerning financial support for students with disabilities, including their specialized ICTs, is confusing and eligibility criteria and regulations differ from province to province (Human Resources and Skills Development Canada, 2010). Any one of these factors in isolation or taken together could act as an inhibitor(s) for these students to gain access to computers in general, and by extension, to being able to gain digital literacy skills.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVING DIGITAL INCLUSION IN THE POSTSECONDARY ENVIRONMENT

Explicitly Include Learners with Disabilities as a Priority by ACCC and AUCC

The Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC, 2010), which represents over 150 publicly-funded colleges, institutes, polytechnics, Cegeps, university colleges and universities with a college mandate, and the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC, 2010), representing 95 Canadian public and private not-for-profit universities and university-degree level colleges both responded to the Canadian Government's digital economy consultation. For its part, the ACC provided recommendations under three themes: capacity to innovate using digital technologies, building a world class digital infrastructure, and, building digital skills for tomorrow (ACCC, 2010). The AUCC focused their recommendations around what they see as their role in this area: developing talent, conducting research and creating new and maintaining existing research infrastructure (AUCC, 2010). While each described their unique role and provided recommendations to the Government of Canada in supporting digital skill acquisition, no reference was made to inclusion or accessibility by and for Canadians with disabilities. Recognizing that these submissions may not have been appropriate venues to spell out commitment to learners with disabilities, and while there may be an implicit assumption that these students are being accounted for in the digital skills priorities of each organization, both are clearly well-positioned and must take a leadership role in assuring that their member institutions include explicit consideration for and by students with disabilities in plans as they are being defined and realized.

Create a Role for an Accessibility Specialist

E-learning has a dual purpose, both as a means for faculty to deliver learning materials, and as an opportunity for learners to gain digital skills by virtue of interacting with different ICTs. Therefore, whether it means adding to an individual's existing mandate or creating a new role, having someone on campus who is responsible for making e-learning accessible to students with different disabilities would be beneficial. This is not to suggest that this accountability rest exclusively within the office or service responsible for students with disabilities. Rather, it would be appropriate that this person be a member of the department or unit that is responsible for e-learning for the school.

Adopt E-learning Accessibility Guidelines

In support of e-learning as a tool used to encourage the growth of digital skill acquisition, colleges and universities should consider developing and adopting e-learning accessibility guidelines that address both in-house development of e-learning as well as purchases of e-learning products and technology. To be effective, such guidelines would need to be viewed as requirements, as opposed to being optional. They would need buy-in from a variety of stakeholders, and would need

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senior-level support within the institution.

A related issue concerns the need to ensure that adaptive information and communication technologies are made available in all computer labs, not merely in the school's segregated specialized labs in libraries and campus disability offices. Virtually all adaptive software companies offer site licenses to schools - to be truly inclusive, it behooves colleges and universities to enable students with disabilities to learn, study, and work in the same labs and classrooms as their peers. Indeed, the need for more computers with adaptive technologies in general use computer labs was a key topic that students with disabilities saw as lacking at their school in a recent Canadian investigation (Fichten, Asuncion, Budd, Barile, Martiniello, Wolforth, & Amsel, in press).

Training

Many colleges and universities already offer training to faculty on how to integrate e-learning in teaching and on how to use specific e-learning tools. As a start, developing a module on how to make e-learning accessible and integrating this into existing training would, at a minimum, begin sensitizing faculty and staff to the issues. Other, more targeted modules can be considered on specific topics, such as how to make a website or a PDF file accessible, based on needs. There are numerous online resources to act as a starting-point (e.g., EASI <<http://easi.cc/>>, DO-IT <www.washington.edu/doi/>, and WebAIM <www.webaim.org/>).

Have the Campus Disability Service Provider Play a Larger Role in E-learning and Digital Skills Training Decisions

Virtually all schools have an individual, a committee, or a department that is responsible for e-learning products and the training of faculty in the effective use of ICTs in teaching. Inviting campus disability service providers / access coordinators to sit on this body could go a long way toward ensuring that e-learning is accessible to students with disabilities, toward developing guidelines and policies that explicitly address the accessibility of e-learning, toward assuring that opportunities for students to acquire digital skills also take into account students with disabilities, and toward including accessibility issues in faculty training.

Integrate Principles of Universal Instructional Design

An interesting approach that has been gaining popularity in postsecondary education in recent years is universal design of instruction (UDI). This approach consists of designing and using instructional strategies that benefit a broad range of students, including those with disabilities. Proponents of this concept hold that if something works well for students with disabilities, it works better for all students (Shaw, 2002). This denotes concepts of "access for all," human rights, and equitable access to educational resources by anticipating the varied needs of learners and focusing on accessibility from the beginning of implementation. The nine principles of universal design of instruction are based on universal design in architecture,

which states that good design (a) takes into account the needs of all individuals and (b) that planning for accessibility should be incorporated from the inception of the design process (Nguyen, Fichten, Barile, & Lévesque, 2006).

Universal design was first introduced in architectural and graphic design in the late 1980's. Its central tenets are, the design of products and environments that are usable by all people, to the greatest extent possible, without the need for adaptation or specialized design or at extra cost (Story, Mueller & Mace, 1998). The principles of universal design have quickly spread to other areas such as teaching and learning (e.g., McGuire, Scott, and Shaw, 2003). Burgstahler's (2010) brochure provides a good starting point for introducing UDI to postsecondary ICT labs. The basic concept is that e-learning materials are created keeping the inclusion of students with different disabilities in mind from the beginning.

Postsecondary Stakeholders

Professors. Faculty are generally positive about accommodations for students with disabilities (Vogel et al., 2006), but are not fond of extensive extra work requiring them to become adaptive technologists and e-learning specialists. The suggestions below are made with these considerations in mind.

When using PowerPoint or data projection, professors may wish to make the material available online well in advance of each class; these should use a large font (minimum of Arial 24) and a good contrast. This will allow students with visual impairments to access the materials and it will also assist nondisabled students who wish to be prepared for class. The font and contrast recommendation will also ensure that the presentation is visible in classrooms with variable lighting conditions and that the presentation can be seen from the back row. Similarly, when preparing course packs of articles and documents in PDF format, professors can, in many cases, download clean, and probably screen reader ready, versions of journal articles and documents instead of scanning old annotated paper documents. This will save the time needed to scan old documents, ensure that all pages are included in the PDF, and result in a more readable experience for all students, including students with print impairments who use screen reading technologies.

When inserting photos, pictures and other images into Word or PowerPoint files, professors can easily include a brief title or description of the image. This requires minimal technical expertise. For example, in Microsoft products right click the image, click on "Format Picture", choose the "Web" tab, and simply type needed information into the "Alternative text" box. This will make the description of the image available to screen reading software and will also provide a name or a brief description or a citation to allow the professor to remember what the image was supposed to illustrate.

Most professors produce much of their e-learning materials in Microsoft Word and Excel, and then convert these to PDF documents for web posting. It is

little trouble to post two versions on the web site, identifying the documents with their filename extensions. This will not pose undue hardship for the professor but it will make a huge difference to students who use screen reading software. Also, if there is a need to quote from these documents or to do additional calculations, the native formats of these documents will be helpful to all students.

Professors could also lobby textbook sales representatives to ensure that textbooks and publisher produced e-learning materials and web sites are accessible to students with disabilities. They can do this by letting the reps know that the availability of an accessible version of the textbook and the accessibility of all supplementary print and e-learning materials for students with disabilities will be an important textbook selection criterion.

E-learning professionals can make the most difference by ensuring that e-learning products selected for campus-wide use are designed with universal design, accessibility, and usability in mind. Also, these professionals are often involved in faculty e-learning training program development. It would be very helpful if, in the context of such training, basic elements of e-learning accessibility are included. In addition, e-learning professionals are often in a position to assist faculty with their e-learning accessibility needs. Giving priority to professors' requests when these concern accessibility would also be helpful.

Two common problems noted by participants in a recent study (Fichten, Ferraro, Asuncion, Chwojka, Barile, Nguyen, Klomp, & Wolforth, 2009) were problems with audio and video content for students with hearing and visual impairments and difficulties with timed online exams. When assisting professors in making videoclips and when posting lectures online, e-learning specialists can go a long way to help ensure that videos are captioned and described and that there is a text version of audioclips. Camtasia, a popular low cost screen capture product that includes video and audio capture is used to produce e-learning materials in many colleges and universities. A positive feature of this technology is that it can easily be captioned (subtitled). E-learning professionals can work with faculty and audiovisual technicians to ensure that captioning is made available, perhaps with the help of dictation software. An example of this can be seen on the Adaptech Research Network web site at <<http://www.adaptech.org>> by clicking on "Downloads" and selecting "Video Demonstrations." Captioning, of course, helps second language learners as well as students who need to spell long, obscure, or technical terms. When customizing course / learning management (CMS/LMS) systems or providing feedback to their developers concerning improvements that would make the product more competitive in the next revision, e-learning professionals can recommend adjustments to allow professors to customize the timing of online evaluation for individual students. And while they are at it, they can also try to ensure that quiz responses will not be made invalid by accidental keystrokes. While this will help students with arm / hand impairments, it will also assist the large numbers of nondisabled students who strike keys by accident.

E-learning professionals are usually heavily implicated in web page development for their school. Difficulties with access and usability issues related to web sites were the most common problems reported in a recent study of the accessibility of e-learning by students with all types of disabilities (Fichten, Ferraro, Asuncion, Chwojka, Barile, Nguyen, Klomp, & Wolforth, 2009). Assuring the accessibility and usability of these would go a long way to resolving the most common e-learning complaint of members of the postsecondary community. And finally, e-learning professionals can help assure good access for students to helpful help desks to deal with the technical, login, downloading, etc. problems that are commonly reported by students.

Disability service providers / access coordinators are key in providing supports for problems with adaptive information and communication technologies (Harding et al., 2006). They can work with their institutions to develop e-learning accessibility and usability guidelines at their school. This is likely to mean working with e-learning specialists at their school, and will mean extra meetings for a while. But these efforts will result in fewer accessibility problems down the line. Students in a recently completed study of e-learning (Fichten, Ferraro, Asuncion, Chwojka, Barile, Nguyen, Klomp, & Wolforth, 2009), those with learning disabilities and attention deficit disorders, in particular, indicated problems related to their knowledge of e-learning products. Disability service providers could showcase e-learning products used at their school as well as software that can improve writing quality in mini-workshops and training sessions which allow students to get hands-on experience.

Students, of course, need to know how to use adaptive computer technologies that can help them access e-learning in effective ways. They, as the end users, need to inform postsecondary personnel when they experience obstacles to the effective use of e-learning.

Embed Accessibility Into Canadian Government ICT Skills Gap Strategy

In their digital economy consultation paper, the Government of Canada (2010) identified at least three components to a longer-term strategy that could help close ICT skills gaps:

- 4) expand post-secondary programs that combine ICTs with other fields, and increase the role of co-op and internship placements;
- 5) expand programs to integrate under-represented groups and internationally educated professionals; and
- 6) strengthen opportunities for continuing professional development of ICT workers currently in the workforce.

There are opportunities for the government to not only bring leadership in these three areas, but to direct stakeholders who will play a role in moving these

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three agenda items forward to tangibly demonstrate inclusion of Canadians with disabilities in their plans (e.g., as a prerequisite for funding initiatives).

Disability Organizations Must Play Their Part

Neither the National Educational Association of Disabled Students (<http://www.neads.ca>) nor the Quebec Association of Postsecondary Students with Disabilities (AQEIPS) (<http://www.aqeips.qc.ca>) has brought specific focus on access to digital skills training. As the leading advocacy organizations by and for postsecondary students nationally and in Quebec, respectively, these groups need to play an active role. They need to identify what initiatives are being developed to provide digital skills (by colleges and universities, in the community, by government), and lobby that the needs of learners with disabilities are taken into account. Only by such actions can any guarantee be made that the voices of the learners with disabilities themselves are heard and addressed.

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Appendix B:

Building an Inclusive ICT Industry Cluster

Over the last three decades, information and communication technologies (ICT) have transformed the way in which we live, work and play. In the knowledge economy of the 21st century, advancements in ICT have driven innovation, productivity enhancements and economic growth in various industries. While the impacts of ICT on pushing the economy forward are not new, the ability for improvements in ICT to expand labour force participation and improve productivity through advancements in inclusive design are not being realized. As the population ages and the number of persons with disabilities increases across all ages, there will be a greater demand for inclusively designed ICT products.

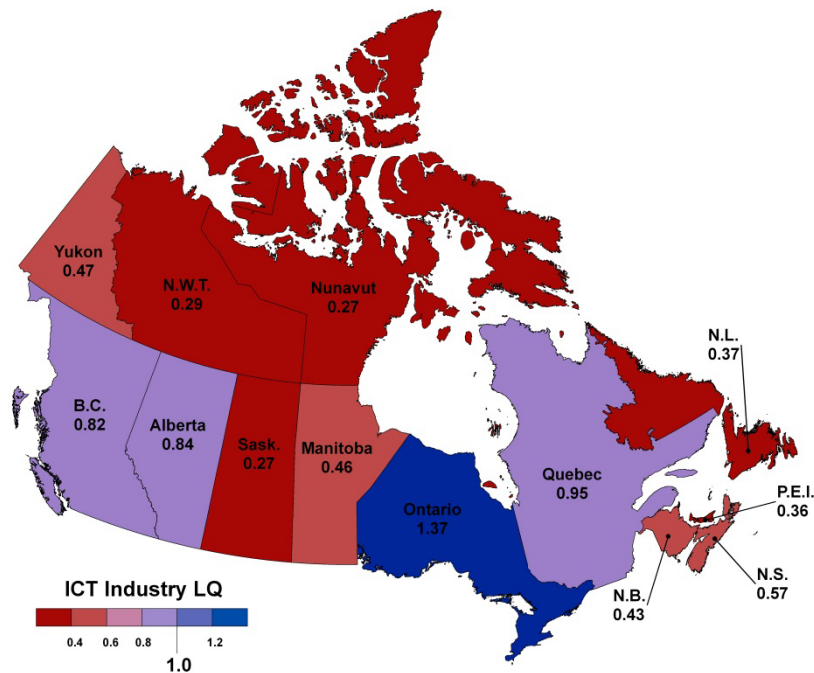
Canada's ICT Industry and Inclusive Design: a quick portrait

In order to establish a successful ICT industry that incorporates inclusive design practices in the development of its products and services, Canada must first assess its current strengths and weaknesses in supporting such a venture. Location Quotients (LQ) were used to generate an overview of the ICT industry within Canada by measuring its concentration across the provinces and territories. LQs are calculated by dividing the percentage of a region's establishments or employment within ICT by the percentage of establishments or employment within ICT in Canada. LQs with a value of greater than one demonstrate regions with a higher concentration of ICT establishments or employment than what is found within the nation. Exhibit 1 and Exhibit 2 depict the concentration of ICT establishments and employment across Canada. In Canada, the information and communications technology industry is highly concentrated within the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Alberta and British Columbia. The highest concentration of ICT establishments and employment is found in Ontario.

In 2009, the information and communication technology sector in Canada generated \$714.5 billion, amounting to 4.9% of total GDP, an increase of 1.6% from 2008. In September 2009, at its lowest point during the 2008-09 recession, Canada's ICT industry generated \$59.1 million in total GDP. According to data collected and released by Statistics Canada (2010), in 2008, Ontario contributed 48% of the total GDP produced in the ICT sector across Canada. This was followed by Quebec (22%), and Alberta (11%) and British Columbia (11%). This is not a surprise as the ICT industry is also concentrated within these same provinces (Exhibit 1 and Exhibit 2). In 2009, 39% of private sector R&D expenditures were directed at developments in information and communication technologies (Statistics Canada). However, Canada continues to lag behind the United States in investing in ICT in general, let alone making investments in

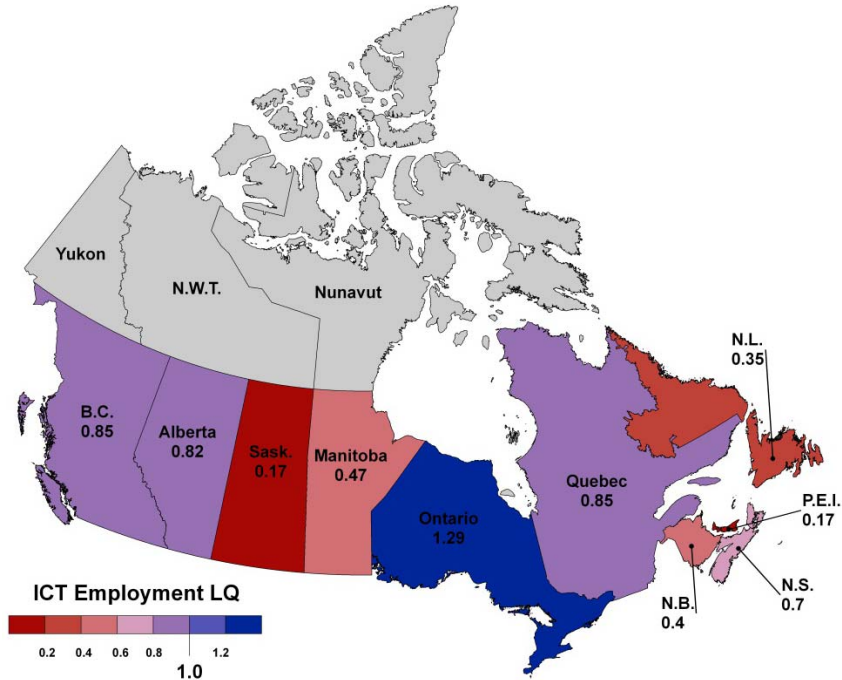
inclusively designed ICT. Exhibit 3 depicts the state of private sector ICT investment per worker in Canada as it compares to private sector ICT investments per worker made in the United States. Between 1987 and 2008, the gap between ICT investment per worker in Canada and the US has increased in size.

Exhibit 1: Concentration of ICT industry by number of establishments using location quotients by, province and territory, 2009



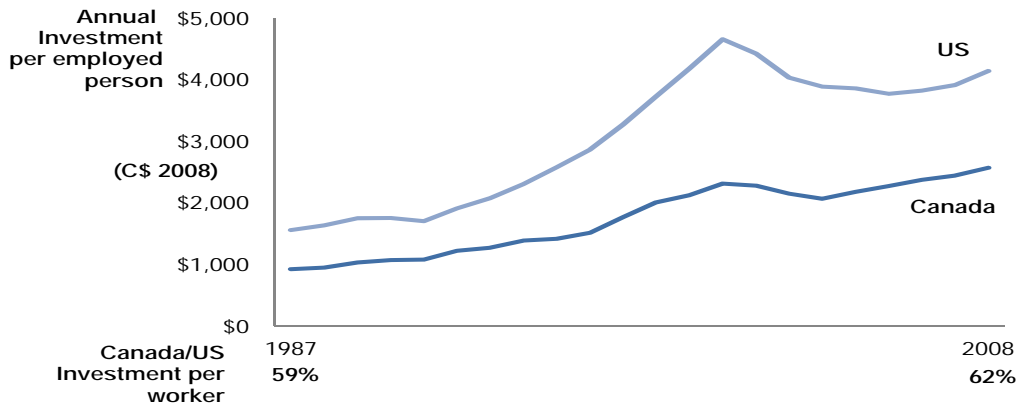
Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Business Patterns Survey, 2009

Exhibit 2: Concentration of ICT industry by employment using location quotients, by province and territory, 2009



Source: Labour Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, 2009. Table: 281-0024

Exhibit 3: Private Sector ICT investment per worker, 1987-2008



Source: Martin Prosperity Institute Analysis, CCLS Database of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Investment and Capital Stock Trends: Canada vs United States, Available online: <http://www.csls.ca/data/ict.asp>

Industry

Despite the relatively poor general performance of the ICT sector in Canada, and in business investment in ICT per worker, there are companies and individuals that have developed specialties in the provision of inclusively designed digital technology to aid persons with disabilities. These companies and individuals represent a growing leadership base in Canada of expertise in the area of bridging ICT and inclusive design to aid both persons with disabilities and businesses. Examples include Greg Fields and David Dougal at Research in Motion, along with both Mozilla's (2010) and Drupal's

(2010) work on increased accessibility in computer software and website design. Industry Canada also supports Canadian companies in the area of ICT through its Assistive Technology/Assistive Devices Industry Sector Office. The support it provides comes in the form of intelligence gathering and dissemination, sector analysis and trade promotion (Industry Canada 2010). These businesses and persons with disabilities are also supported by nonprofit organizations in Canada, such as the Neil Squire Society in British Columbia and CRIM in Montreal, which are dedicated to helping promote and find ways to improve ICT for persons with disabilities. Special Education Technology British Columbia, or SetBC, is another example of an organization that seeks to provide inclusive and accessible ICT and targets students with disabilities.

In other jurisdictions around the world, industry and governments have been proactive in establishing inclusive design as a practice in response to and in preparation of the impacts due to an ageing population. Japan has been proactive in assisting industry in the adoption of inclusive or universal design through the establishment of the International Association for Universal Design in 2003. The purpose of the association is to aid in disseminating and spreading the ideas of Universal or Inclusive Design to industry not only in Japan but across the world. In his research on Japanese companies and their responses to inclusive design, MacDonald (2006a.) found that they are increasingly aware of the wider social context in which their businesses exist. The establishment of industry standards in Japan regarding inclusive design (JIS X 8341) has been another action that has helped to promote its adoption by Japanese companies (MacDonald, 2006a.; The Martin Prosperity Institute, 2010). The purpose of JIS X 8341 is to “assure and improve information accessibility for older persons and PwD so they can easily use information and communications equipment, software and services” (Iizuka, 2004). There are opportunities for Canada to learn from the experiences of Japan in promoting inclusive design in the ICT sector and industry more broadly.

Education

Education is an important component in supporting industry’s adoption of inclusive design practices in Canada. Through education, current governments can help promote and train the next generation of business leaders, innovators and workers to recognize the significance of inclusive design in creating a more accessible tomorrow. These kinds of changes and initiatives will help in both the immediate and long-term success of generating increased accessibility in Canada. In both the United Kingdom and in Japan, actions have already been taken in preparing the next generation of industry leaders and policy professionals (MacDonald, 2006b). Both countries have universities that have developed courses and programs that seek to train current students about the importance of inclusive or universal design practices in generating future products, services and policies. In the United Kingdom, a joint course between the Glasgow School of Art and the University of Glasgow is offered which trains students in the engineering program how to incorporate inclusive or universal design perspectives into their work. The program attracts students from a wide range of disciplines interested in medical applications, welfare, rehabilitation and assistive products (MacDonald, 2006b.) In Japan, at Ritsumeikan University in Kyoto, students are trained to think critically about inclusive or universal design and how it fits in with the larger social and built environment, and how such thinking can lead to the improvement of solutions to service-

based, policy-based and product-based problems (MacDonald, 2006b.). Such examples provide useful insights into how training of the next generation can occur.

An important step forward in building and continuing to build a strong ICT sector with competencies in inclusively designed products and services in Canada is generating a talented and skilled workforce. Education and training programs play an important role in fostering the kind of change that will result in the adoption of inclusive design practices and immediate and long-term benefits in Canada. Canada does have a small but strong and growing number of education and training programs that focus specifically on the development on inclusively designed ICT products and services to improve accessibility. The Inclusive Design Institute at the OCAD University is a leading resource in Canada in training and educating individuals to become experts in the development of inclusively designed goods, services and environments. They have a particular expertise in inclusively designed ICT through a partnership with 8 postsecondary institutions in the greater Toronto area and a sixteen year history in conducting pivotal research in the field. They will offer a professional masters program in the inclusive design of ICT in 2011. There are a number of programs and courses offered at various university campuses across Canada that seek to educate students in disability issues (University of Manitoba, Ryerson University, York University and McGill University), but these do not produce graduates with the necessary technical and knowledge in inclusive design of ICT. As a result, there needs to be better support in fostering linkages between what is taught in these programs and disseminating the information, knowledge and talent to businesses where it can be acted upon.

Policy

In general, Canada lags behind many other developed countries when it comes to preparing its workforce, industries and policy arenas to cope with the rapidly ageing population and in fostering an environment conducive to supporting the creation of inclusively designed products, services and environments. In Canada, each individual province is responsible for creating accessibility related policy, programs and activities. Other than the Human Rights Charter, there is no unifying, Canada wide strategy addressing issues concerning disability and improved accessibility. Many countries, including Japan, Korea, the United States, Europe and Australia have all begun to develop strategies to address an ageing population and the growing incidence of persons with disabilities. In particular, they have developed encompassing strategies that promote or incorporate inclusive or universal design. Many of these countries have also joined international associations, such as the International Association for Universal Design, which has 131 member countries (IAUD, 2009). Policy plays an instrumental role in promoting the adoption and success of accessibility in the ICT industry. The AODA in Ontario is a recent example of pioneering legislation that treats accessibility as a provincial standard to be reached, similar to health and the environment, and does not depend on litigation by the wronged party. The AODA only concerns activities occurring within the province of Ontario. There is a need to develop targeted standards that promote inclusively designed ICT across Canada.

Competencies and Weaknesses in supporting Canada's ICT industry and inclusive design

It is clear that Canada does have some strong assets from which to begin to build an ICT industry that incorporates inclusive design as a practice, allowing it to compete with other countries and jurisdictions from around the world. Places like the Inclusive Design Institute, the Neil Squire Society and IBM provide examples of institutions, not-for-profit organizations and businesses that have recognized the need to educate and provide solutions in the ICT industry for persons with disabilities. IBM is doing a great deal of research and work in the area of accessible ICT, developing products and enhancing services that increase accessibility for persons with disabilities. IBM works with companies and organizations in such industries as Banking, Education, Government, Healthcare, Retail and Travel and Transportation (IBM, 2010). Zoomermedia is another example of a company that is promoting and actively using accessible and inclusive ICT. Found in 2007, Zoomermedia is capitalizing on the shifting demographic trend by encouraging design that is accessible to an ageing population. Capitalizing on such places will be strategic in the coming decades in preparing Canadian businesses to respond to the issues of an ageing population and shrinking workforce.

However, currently the support and traction required to successfully mobilize the ICT industry in Canada to adopt inclusive design as a practice does not exist. Investment in ICT per worker in Canada is much lower than in the US despite the importance of ICT in today's economy. The skilled individuals who are graduating from many of today's programs are not aware of how to implement inclusive design or its importance. Of the programs that do exist in educating students about inclusive design, they have limited reach in their impact on industry in Canada. As the benefits of inclusive design are realized the skills taught to these students will increase as industry seeks their expertise.

Building an Industry

Michael Porter's (1990; 2000) model for cluster analysis and industry development provides an excellent framework to begin to explore ways in which an inclusively designed ICT industry could be grown in Canada. Porter's industrial cluster model is a widely used framework by economic development practitioners and policy makers seeking to replicate the conditions required to support industry growth. Porter's research identifies four conditions that are required to support the growth of an industry. The four conditions include: (1) the presence of a sufficient density of firms to create competitive conditions; (2) the availability of inputs such as skilled labour, financing, information and technology infrastructure; (3) the existence of related and supporting industries, including post-secondary institutions and NGO's; and (4) a sophisticated local demand for products and services that helps to drive innovation in the industry.

We can clearly see that there exists the potential skeletal framework of the conditions required in Canada to grow an inclusively driven ICT industry. The ICT sector has a strong presence in Ontario, British Columbia and Quebec. Each of these provinces has both a significant presence of industry establishments and also a skilled workforce. In addition to this, these provinces are also home to an assortment of support firms and

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organizations with existing expertise in the area of inclusively designed ICT. The ageing population in Canada, and in many countries around the world, along with the growing number of persons with disabilities, presents a growing demand for inclusively designed products. In addition to this, the importance of ICT in today's society means that demand specifically for inclusively designed ICT products and services will be imminent.

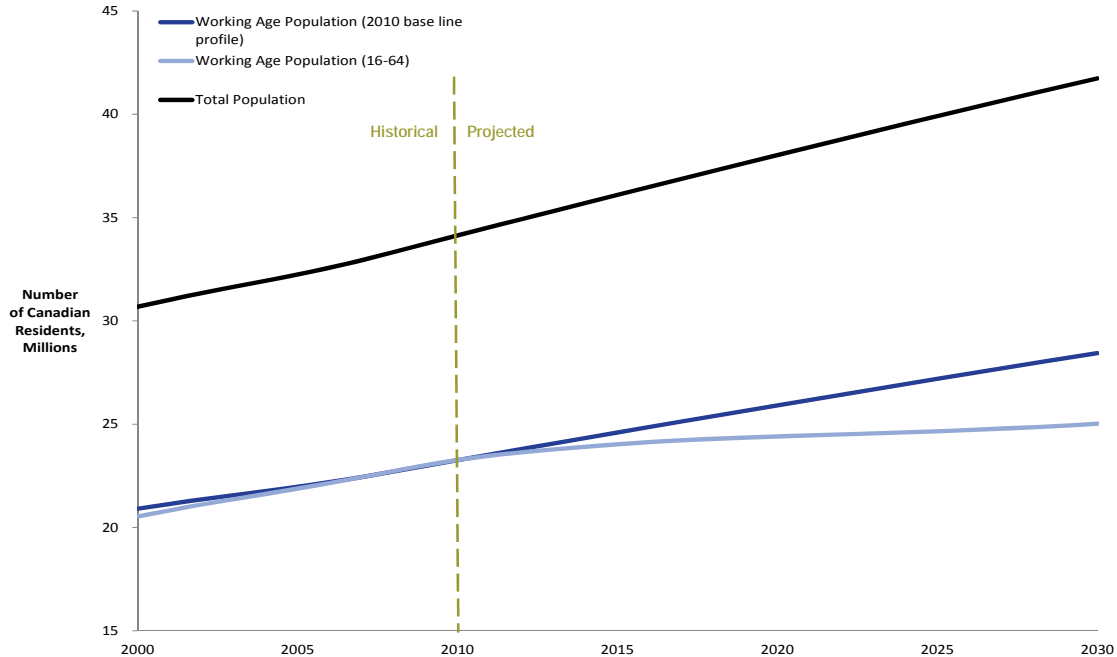
Appendix C: Economic Impact of Inclusively Designed ICT in Canada

Immediate challenges ahead: an ageing population and shrinking workforce

One of the greatest challenges Canada will face in the pending decades will be meeting the demands of a shrinking workforce due to a rapidly aging population. The dominant trend in Canada's economy is towards increased economic activity that is in some way dependent on, or is driven by advancements in, ICT, and hence requires increasingly skilled labour. This is significant, given that in the emerging economy of the 21st century the most valuable resource in driving future prosperity is a healthy pool of skilled and talented people. In an analysis of population projections by Statistics Canada, Canada could be faced with a potential shortage of 3.4 million workers by 2030 (Exhibit 3). Once the economy recovers from the current recession that it is in, demand for workers will return and Canadian businesses will begin to face this looming shortage in both skilled and talented workers. The adoption of inclusively designed information and communication technologies is one way that Canadian businesses can tap into the productive potential of persons with disabilities and respond to the shrinking workforce in the coming years.

Exhibit 3: Percentage of the overall population in Canada that is working aged, 1980-2030

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Source: Institute for Competitiveness and Prosperity analysis based on Statistics Canada Population Projections

To examine the impact that inclusive ICT alone could have on increased workforce participation, employment income and higher educational attainment of persons with disabilities in Canada we developed a two stage methodological approach. First, we projected the potential overall impact increased accessibility could have in each of these areas for persons with disabilities across all of Canada. Next, using data from the Participation and Activity Limitation Survey (PALS) we were able to estimate the percentage of persons with disabilities that are prevented from working due to barriers that could be overcome by inclusively designed information and communication technologies. One of the questions on the PALS survey asks respondents if they require modifications in order to work, and from a list what type of modifications are they. This list provides us with an indication of the breakdown of how many persons with disabilities require what types of modifications in order to be able to work. From this list we were able to determine which modifications could be addressed through inclusively designed information and communication technologies (Appendix A). In some cases, ICT has the potential to provide solutions to all modifications required, while in others it is more likely that ICT will only be able to provide solutions to some modifications but not all. As a result, in instances where we determine that ICT will likely only have a limited impact on addressing the modifications required for persons with disabilities to work we cut the number of people in that group in half. Where we think that ICT will be able to provide a solution to all individuals we leave the number of people in that group untouched. This method gives us a sense of how many people, irrespective of disability type or job preference, inclusively designed ICT would benefit if adopted by businesses.

Through this approach we determine that inclusively designed ICT could address 44% of the modifications persons with disabilities require to work (Appendix A). We then applied this percentage to the total potential gain in employment income and GDP per capita that could be achieved due to increased accessibility more broadly to get a

sense of the potential contribution ICT alone could make. The benefit of this approach in assessing the impact inclusive ICT in Canada is that it is not dependent on first identifying which jobs are use ICT and to what degree. Instead, by determining what workplace modifications can be addressed by ICT to attain greater workforce participation among persons with disabilities we achieve a better sense of ICT's true impact. We then turned our attention to the impact improved ICT accessibility could have through supporting the attainment of higher education among persons with disabilities on employment income and GDP per capita. In this scenario we determine that 100% of the potential increase in higher educational attainment among persons with disabilities could be reached using inclusively designed ICT alone. In the end, the actual impact inclusively designed ICT could have in Canada is dependent upon how many companies begin to incorporate such practices.

Assumptions

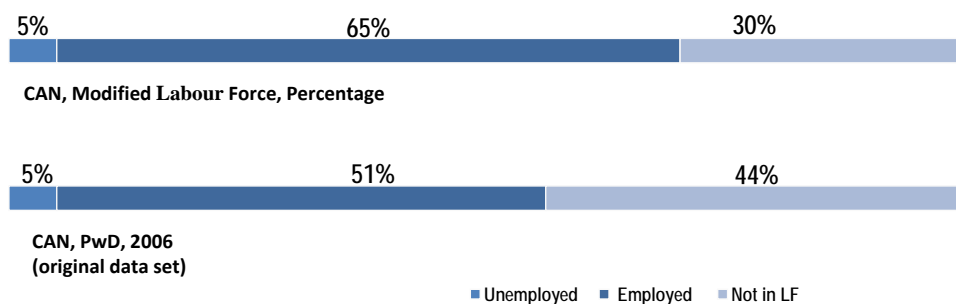
There are three overarching assumptions that we make in setting up our analysis of the potential impacts of inclusively designed ICT on employment and higher educational attainment in Canada. First, our analysis has not incorporated the impact of the 2008-09 recession. We do not incorporate the impacts of the current recession because the specific impacts are still unclear and forecasts made prior to the collapse were of little use in predicting how the recession was to unfold. The rapid fluctuations over the course of the recession in interest rates, employment, exchange rates, exports, and other significant economic indicators have made it difficult to make accurate predictions in the short and medium term. Instead, our analysis is based on longer term trends in Canada's overall economy over the last thirty years. In this way, we assume that past experience is the best indicator of future performance. Second, our analysis assumes that improved accessibility through increased inclusivity will reduce the barriers individuals with mild and moderate disabilities face to becoming employed and/or achieving higher educational attainment. Embedded within this is the assumption that strategies to increase accessibility will be widely adopted by businesses across Canada. Finally, we recognize that there will be numerous challenges and limitations that we are unable to foresee. Our models are limited in that they do not project the costs and difficulty organizations will have in creating more inclusively designed spaces, or the impact of ongoing, systemic discrimination persons with disabilities face.

Our analysis also takes into consideration the fact that the benefits of inclusively designed ICT will extend well beyond those individuals identified by PALS as persons with disabilities. Research has shown that disability rates based on self-disclosure are often underestimated and that they only identify on average 48% of persons with a disability. This might be due to the stigma associated with being labeled as disabled, or, as is often the case, that people do not identify their functional difficulty as a disability. As a result, in our analysis, we take this into consideration by doubling the number of persons with a disability as the PALS data suggests. We assume that the underestimated population would have the same characteristics as those persons with mild or moderate disabilities, and persons with severe or very severe disabilities would not be able to "hide" their disability.

The economic impact of inclusively designed ICT on persons with disabilities in Canada

The development of inclusively designed ICT has the potential to make significant contributions to increasing the opportunities for workforce participation of all persons with mild and moderate disabilities. Here we make the broad assumption that there are jobs available to be filled by this in-flux of people into the workforce. If we assume that by successfully improving accessibility across the board in Canada persons with mild and moderate disabilities will achieve the same level of labour force participation as persons without disabilities then we would expect to see employment for persons with disabilities increase by 324,534 to 3,167,296 across Canada. This would increase the percentage of persons with disabilities employed in the labour market from 51% to 65% (Exhibit 4). However, because these numbers are based on surveys that identify approximately only 48% of persons with disabilities, it is likely that the true number of individuals that would benefit from improved accessibility is much greater than what we estimate here. Keeping with our original assumption that by doubling our number we will get a better idea of the full potential of improved accessibility, we could see employment among persons with disabilities increase by 649,068 across Canada. Because inclusively designed ICT has the potential to address 44% of the modifications persons with disabilities require to work, more inclusively designed ICT alone could increase employment by 285,914 in Canada.

Exhibit 4: Modified Labour Force, Labour Force Participation among Persons with Disabilities, 2006



I – Impact of increased employment due to improved ICT accessibility

The impact of increased employment for persons with disabilities due to the adoption of inclusively designed ICT in Canada has the potential to have a substantial impact on total employment income. The adoption of inclusively designed ICT has the potential to address 44% of all required modifications that would allow for persons with disabilities to work. As a result, an increase in employment among persons with disabilities due to the adoption of inclusively designed ICT alone could result in an additional \$4.5 million in employment income and an additional \$283 in GDP per capita.

II – Impact of higher educational attainment due to improved ICT accessibility

The impact of higher educational attainment among persons with disabilities due to the adoption of inclusively designed ICT in Canada also has the potential to have a substantial impact on total employment income and GDP per capita. The adoption of inclusively designed ICT has the potential to make higher education completely accessible for persons with disabilities. As a result, increased higher educational attainment among persons with disabilities due to inclusively designed ICT could result in an additional \$3.5 million in employment income and \$203 in total GDP per capita in Canada.

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Annex: Percent of Modifications in the Workplace addressed by Inclusively Designed ICT

Required Modifications	Percentage of respondents who required specific modification to work	Weight	Percent of modifications addressed by Inclusively Designed ICT
Job redesign (modified or different duties)	16.1	1/2	8.05
Modified hours or days	20.8	1	20.8
Human support	4.1	1/2	2.05
Technical aids	2	1	2
Computer with braille, large print, voice recognition, or a scanner	2.4	1	2.4
Communication aids, such as braille or large print reading material	1.8	1	1.8
Modified or ergonomic workstation	10.3	1/2	5.15
Special chair or back support	15.6	0	0
Handrails, ramps	3.3	0	0
Appropriate parking	5.3	0	0
Accessible elevator	5	0	0
Accessible washrooms	5.2	0	0
Accessible transportation	4.5	0	0
Other equipment, help or work arrangement	3.6	1/2	1.8
		Total	44.05

Note: All labour force statuses are combined. Employed respondents were asked because of your condition do you require any of the following to be able to work? Unemployed, not in the labour force, and retired respondents were asked because of your condition would you require any of the following to be able to work?

Source: Statistics Canada, Participation and Activity Limitation, 2006