October 2015

The Sixties Scoop Among Aboriginal Veterans: A Critical Narrative Study

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Graduate Program in Health and Rehabilitation Sciences

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree in Master of Science

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THE SIXTIES SCOOP AMONG ABORIGINAL VETERANS: A CRITICAL NARRATIVE STUDY

(Thesis format: Monograph Article)

By

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Graduate Program in Health and Rehabilitation Sciences – Health Promotion

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science

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Abstract

This study explored the experience of Aboriginal Veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop using critical narrative inquiry. The objectives were to: 1) understand the lived experience of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop, 2) explore any health needs expressed by Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop, and 3) provide recommendations for the implementation of health services and programs to assist this group of Aboriginal veterans with their health needs. Eight individual interviews were conducted with participants in Kitchener-Waterloo, London, Ottawa, Winnipeg, and Vancouver. All interviews were audio-taped, transcribed verbatim, and analyzed using the five stages of the holistic-content model (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach & Zilber, 1998). Three overarching themes were uncovered from the interviews: a) sense of belonging, b) racism: experienced and perceived, and c) resilience: not giving up in the face of adversity. Mental health care and support to fight substance abuse were the main health needs expressed by the participants. Increased awareness of the historical realities experienced by Aboriginal veterans and the influence these may have on their health is needed. A coordinated effort by Veterans Affairs Canada (VAC), Royal Canadian Legion (RCL), National Aboriginal Veterans Association (NAVA), Aboriginal Veteran Autochthones (AVA), and Aboriginal agencies is required to address the mental health needs faced by this population.

Keywords: Aboriginal, Adoption, Canadian Forces, Critical Narrative Inquiry, Health, Foster Care, Sixties Scoop, Veteran
Acknowledgments

My sincerest gratitude is given to the veterans who participated in this study and shared their experiences with me. This study would not have been possible had it not been for your participation. I am truly honoured to have been able to meet you all. Thank you for service.

To Mr. Myeengun Henry, Mr. Robert Thibeau, Mr. John Jewitt, and Mr. Alex Maurice: I am privileged to have had your wisdom, insight, and guidance throughout this study.

To my graduate supervisor, Dr. Susan L. Ray, although you have passed onto the next stage of life, you will always remain an important part of my life. I am extremely grateful for your guidance with my thesis and very blessed to have been able to meet you. To my graduate supervisor and co-supervisor, Dr. Evans and Dr. Magalhaes, thank you for your continued support and patience with completing my thesis.

To my friends and family, thank you for being there with me every step of the way.

I am also indebted to collaborating Aboriginal organizations and community outreach services, the Royal Canadian Legion, and the Aboriginal Veteran Autochthones for their support and assistance with this study. Also many thanks to: Mr. Nick Nickmann; Mr. Bob Crane; Mr. Melvin Swan; Mrs. Colleen Cardinal; Dr. Jean Becker; Mrs. Carrie Diabo; Mr. Paul Carl; Laura Maracle; and finally Mr. Al Day.
Having met you I am better than I was
Like the rising sun
Your words are always with us
Shining your love always, you never did shun

I’ll never forget the day that I met you
I felt so free
With your guidance I surely grew
And I wasn’t afraid to be

You have touched so many
With your healing touch
Helped them find meaning in their life journey
And never did you judge

So passionate about helping homeless soldiers
You advocated for housing
And worked hard to remove institutional boulders
Your spirit was always inclusive; it never had me doubting

I learned to follow passions that were true
From the very day
That I met you
You showed me that there was always a way

Many have come to know you
Blessed we have come to be
To have known someone so genuine and true
I have learned from you to love openly

Having met you I am better than I was
Like the rising sun
Your words are always with us
Shining your love always, you never did shun

Rest in peace. Dr. Susan L. Ray 1950-2014
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**Abbreviations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AVA</td>
<td>Aboriginal Veteran Autochthones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACE</td>
<td>Adverse childhood events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AF</td>
<td>Allied Forces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CF</td>
<td>Canadian Forces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRRI</td>
<td>Deployment risk and resilience inventory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAPS</td>
<td>Detailed Assessment of PTSD Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IU</td>
<td>International Units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGBTTQ</td>
<td>Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, two-spirit, and queer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDD</td>
<td>Major Depressive Disorder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAVA</td>
<td>National Aboriginal Veterans Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCAP</td>
<td>Ownership, Control, Access, and Possession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTSD</td>
<td>Post-traumatic stress disorder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPFV</td>
<td>Project to Prevent Falls in Veterans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCL</td>
<td>PTSD Checklist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RCAF</td>
<td>Royal Canadian Air Force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RCL</td>
<td>Royal Canadian Legion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RCMP</td>
<td>Royal Canadian Mounted Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RCN</td>
<td>Royal Canadian Navy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SES</td>
<td>Socioeconomic status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDA</td>
<td>Special Duty Areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUDS</td>
<td>Substance use disorders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VA</td>
<td>- Veterans Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAC</td>
<td>- Veterans Affairs Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VTP</td>
<td>- Veteran Transition Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWI</td>
<td>- World War One</td>
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<tr>
<td>WWII</td>
<td>- World War Two</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Terminology

The term “Aboriginal” is used throughout this thesis to represent Canada’s First Peoples and their related descendants. According to the Canadian constitution, the Aboriginal population is comprised of three main groups: First Nation, Métis, and Inuit (Communication Branch Indian and Northern Affairs Canada, 2002).

First Nation: This term has replaced the word “Indian” as it is deemed offensive to some (Communication Branch Indian and Northern Affairs Canada, 2002). Approximately, 851,560 Canadians identified themselves as First Nation in 2011 (Statistics Canada, 2011).

Métis: Individuals who identify as Métis are of mixed European and First Nation racial background (Communication Branch Indian and Northern Affairs Canada, 2002). Approximately 451,795 Canadians identified themselves as Métis in 2011 (Statistics Canada, 2011).

Inuit: This term refers to Canada’s Aboriginal population in Nunavut, Northwest Territories, Northern Quebec, and Northern Labrador (Communication Branch Indian and Northern Affairs Canada, 2002). Approximately 59,445 Canadians identified themselves as Inuit in 2011 (Statistics Canada, 2011).
Chapter 1: Introduction

The term “Sixties Scoop” was first used by Patrick Johnston (1983) in a report entitled “Native Children and the Child Welfare System” (Johnston, 1983). It refers to a period beginning in the 1960’s and continuing into the late 1980’s where a disproportionate number of Aboriginal children were removed from their families by social workers and placed in non-Aboriginal homes following revisions to the Indian Act (1867) in 1951 (Fast & Collin-Vezina, 2010; Johnston, 1983; Kirmayer, Simpson, & Cargo, 2003). These amendments included the addition of Section 88 to the Indian Act, which transferred the management of health, education, and welfare services for Aboriginal people from the Federal government to each province and territory in Canada (Johnston, 1983; Sinha & Kozlowski, 2013).

There is limited reliable information from the period of the 1950’s to the 1960’s regarding the exact number of Aboriginal children removed from their homes (Johnston, 1983). Aboriginal children in Canada accounted for almost one percent of all children in the care of Children’s Aid in 1959 (Fournier & Crey, 1997). By 1969, Aboriginal children accounted for 30 to 40 percent of all children in the care of provincial and territorial child protective services (Fournier & Crey, 1997).

Many adopted and/or fostered Aboriginal children during the Sixties Scoop lost contact with their biological families and communities (Sinha et al., 2011). In some cases, Aboriginal children were adopted out into the United States and other international countries, despite prohibitions against the placement of these children with families residing outside of Canada (Bagley, Young, & Scully, 1993; Johnston, 1983; Sinha et al., 2011).

It has been argued that social workers in Canada during this period failed to acknowledge the importance of Aboriginal parenting styles and culture and how colonialism and government
underfunding adversely affected Aboriginal communities and reserves (Fast & Collin-Vezina, 2010). Bagley, Young, and Scully (1993) suggested that the “structural aspects of the problem” such as, poverty and poor health in Aboriginal communities was ignored by social workers (p. 217).

The Sixties Scoop has been referred to as a cultural genocide, an extension of residential schools, and another attempt to colonize Aboriginal peoples (Johnston, 1983; Sinclair, 2007). Article 2 of the United Nations (UN) Convention on Genocide (1948), defines genocide as any of the following acts "a) killing members of the group; b) causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group; c) deliberately inflicting on the group conditions of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or in part; d) imposing measures intended to prevent births within the group; and e) forcibly transferring children of the group to another group” (Sinclair, 2007; UN, 1948, Article 2). Those who hold this view believe that the removal of Aboriginal children from their families by social welfare services resulted in the destruction of the Aboriginal family and kinship networks, which ultimately led to the weakening of Aboriginal communities as a whole (Johnston, 1983).

In a recent secondary analysis study conducted to explore the experience of homelessness and migration amongst Canadian Aboriginal veterans, all participants revealed that they had been either adopted and/or fostered out to Caucasian families during the Sixties Scoop (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press). This particular study involved a secondary analysis of seven interview transcripts conducted with homeless Aboriginal veterans obtained from a larger Canadian study, which examined the experience of homelessness amongst Canadian Forces (CF) and Allied Forces (AF) (Ray, Ta’an, Bamford, Forchuk, & Acosta, 2011) and two additional interviews with homeless Canadian Aboriginal veterans. All of the veterans in the secondary analysis study
had been recruited from Toronto, Calgary, Vancouver, and Victoria (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press).

The secondary analysis employed an interpretative phenomenological approach to: 1) understand the meaning of homelessness in this population; 2) understand the meaning of churn migration among homeless Aboriginal Veterans and; 3) test if the Traditional Indigenous Sharing Circle with the Anishnaabe Symbol-Based Reflection is a feasible method of data collection (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press).

Although it was not the intent of the secondary analysis study to examine the experience of the Sixties Scoop among homeless Aboriginal veterans, the findings revealed that all participants had shared the experience of being adopted and/or fostered during this period. Many participants described feelings of loss, a lack of belonging, and connection to their Aboriginal culture and families as a result of their experiences during the Sixties Scoop (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press). Several had indicated that they experienced physical and emotional abuse as children (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press). The participants also discussed the significance of belonging, family, home, and cultural roots, indicating that these were key underlying factors in their current state of homelessness (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press). These factors alone do not prove causality of homelessness; however, they do provide an important insight into the experiences and subsequent homelessness of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop.

The participants in the secondary analysis described their experiences with homelessness, as a pattern of migration from their rural and/or remote communities to urban locations (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press). The term “churn” describes the circular movement of Aboriginal people between reserve and urban settings (Belanger, Awosoga, & Head, 2013). This form of mobility
has been associated with increased rates of Aboriginal urbanization (Snyder & Wilson, 2012). Aboriginal people engaged in churn may be motivated by various “push and pull factors”, such as “social, economic, education and health related reasons” (Snyder & Wilson, 2012, p. 2421). While homeless, they may go unnoticed as they rely on relatives and friends for shelter and support (Distasio, Sylvestre, & Mulligan, 2005). Distasio, Sylvestre, and Mulligan (2005) suggest “hidden homelessness is particularly relevant within the Aboriginal context as the support of extended family and friendship networks is an inherent component of Indigenous value systems” (p.6).

Very little information is available regarding Aboriginal transracial adoption during the Sixties Scoop (Nuttgens, 2013; Sinclair, 2007). According to Nuttgens (2013), more research is needed that examines the experience of Aboriginal transracial adoptees as a “distinct racial and cultural group” due to the “the unique sociocultural experiences of Aboriginal transracial adoptees” (p.2).

The connection between being an Aboriginal veteran and the experience of being adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop had not been explored in depth (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press). CF and AF Aboriginal veterans who were part of the Sixties Scoop represent a group with unique experiences and health needs as military veterans and as Aboriginal people who have experienced transracial adoption and/or foster care during the Sixties Scoop. However, no research has been conducted to explore in depth the health needs of this group of veterans. Further research in this area is essential to help identify the necessary support and services needed to assist Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop with meeting their health needs. Figure 1.1 provides a general overview of the primary, secondary, and current study.
Primary Study: *The experience of homelessness among Canadian forces and Allied forces veterans* (Ray, Ta’an, Bamford, Forchuk, & Acosta, 2011).

First Canadian study which examined the experience of homelessness amongst Canadian Forces (CF) and Allied Forces (AF).

Qualitative study (interpretative phenomenological approach).

A total fifty-four individual interviews were conducted with CF and AF veterans in London, Toronto, Hamilton, Vancouver, Victoria, and Calgary.


Secondary analysis of seven interview transcripts conducted with homeless Aboriginal veterans obtained from primary study and two additional individual interviews with homeless Canadian Aboriginal veterans.

This study aimed to: 1) understand the meaning of homelessness in this population; 2) understand the meaning of churn migration among homeless Aboriginal Veterans and; 3) test if the Traditional Indigenous Sharing Circle with the Anishnaabe Symbol-Based Reflection is a feasible method of data collection.

Qualitative study (interpretative phenomenological approach).

Participants recruited from Toronto, Calgary, Vancouver, and Victoria.


Eight individual interviews were conducted with participants in Kitchener-Waterloo, London, Ottawa, Winnipeg, and Vancouver.

Qualitative study (critical narrative approach).

The purpose of this study is to gain an in-depth understanding of the storied experiences of Canadian Aboriginal veterans who were adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop and their health care needs.

Figure 1.1: Progression from Primary, Secondary, to Current Study
1.1. Significance of the Study

Aboriginal people have a long and proud history in the Canadian military. Many fought alongside the British in the American Revolution (1775), the War of 1812, Battle of Khartoum (1884), The South African War (1899), and the Korean War (1950) (Moses, Graves, & Sinclair, 2004; Summerby, 2005).

Despite the many difficulties endured by Aboriginal people enlisting in the First World War, approximately 4000 Status Aboriginals signed up for military service (Summerby, 2005). Obstacles faced by these veterans included the government’s hesitation to accept Aboriginal recruits, out of fear that these soldiers would receive inhumane treatment by the Germans due to their ethnicity (Gaffen, 1985; MacFarlane & Moses, 2005; Summerby, 2005). Some of the reasons Aboriginal people joined the military included “patriotism, adventure, or simply to earn a regular wage” (MacFarlane & Moses, 2005, p.26). Approximately 300 Aboriginal soldiers died in the First World War (Gaffen, 1985; Summerby, 2005).

During the Second World War, about 3,000 Status Aboriginals enlisted in the military voluntarily (MacFarlane & Moses, 2005; Sheffield, 1996; Summerby, 2005). The majority of these individuals came from remote areas and served in the infantry, as educational requirements were lower (MacFarlane & Moses, 2005; Summerby, 2005). Most of the Aboriginal recruits had family members who had enlisted in the First World War, and this encouraged them to join the military based on their family members’ experiences (MacFarlane & Moses, 2005). They also decided to join the military due to economic reasons and fear of the growing support of Nazi Germany (MacFarlane & Moses, 2005). Approximately 213 of Aboriginal soldiers were killed in this war (Sheffield, 1996).
Today, many Aboriginal youth continue to follow the military traditions of their predecessors through programs such as the Canadian Forces Aboriginal Entry Program (CFAEP) and the Bold Eagle Initiative. These two programs provide young Aboriginals with an interest in joining the CF hands on military experience (Moses, Graves, & Sinclair, 2004).

Very little is known regarding the health of Aboriginal veterans, other than what has been written in anecdotal and historical records (Gaffen, 1985; Sheffield & Lackenbauer, 2007; Summerby, 2005). The increased knowledge regarding these veterans’ experiences can enhance current veteran services and programs and help to address the expressed health needs and the unique sociocultural experiences of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop. The purpose of this narrative study is to gain an in-depth understanding of the storied experiences of Canadian Aboriginal veterans who were adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop and their health care needs.

1.2 Objectives

The primary objectives of this study are to:

1) Explore and understand the lived experience of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop; 2) Identify health needs expressed by Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop; and 3) Provide recommendations for the implementation of health services and/or programs to assist Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop to address their expressed health needs.

1.3 Outline of Study

The first chapter of this thesis includes the introduction, significance, purpose and the objectives of this study. A review of the literature on Canadian Aboriginal veterans, the health of Canadian veterans, the health of Aboriginals in Canada, and Canadian Aboriginal transracial
adoption during the Sixties Scoop is presented in the second chapter. The third chapter outlines the theoretical framework of this study, methodology, method, recruitment process, data collection, quality criteria, ethical considerations, reflective notes, and data analysis. Brief narratives of the eight participants involved in this study and the overarching study themes are included in chapter four. In chapter five the major themes uncovered from the Veterans’ stories are discussed in further detail in relation to the available literature. This is followed by the strengths and limitations of this study, future implications for research in this area, and the conclusion to this study.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

A preliminary literature search was conducted using the Veteran Affairs (VA) website and an electronic database (Scopus). Literature searches were also conducted at the University of Waterloo and Western University library using Primo Central and Summon library search engines. Keywords entered for the manual search included the following: “Canada and veteran”, “Aboriginal and veteran”, “Sixties Scoop”, “intergenerational trauma and Aboriginal”, “intergenerational trauma and First Nation”, “Aboriginal and adoption”, “Aboriginal and foster care”, “Aboriginal and health and Canada”, and “Aboriginal and homelessness.” A secondary search was conducted using the reference lists of four selected articles and one book. Searches were limited to English publications and only included articles, dissertations, and books published between 2005 and 2015. This range in dates was used to ensure that the literature review provided a comprehensive and up to date review of the literature. Abstracts of articles, books, and dissertations were carefully reviewed according to their relevance to the purpose of this study. Six main categories were generated by the literature search: Canadian Aboriginal veterans, the health of Canadian veterans, Canadian Aboriginal health, intergenerational trauma, Aboriginal homelessness, and Canadian Aboriginal transracial adoption during the Sixties Scoop. These categories are described in the next section.

2.2 Canadian Aboriginal Veterans

Fred Gaffen's (1985) book, "Forgotten Soldiers" provided the first in-depth account of the military service of Aboriginal Canadian soldiers who had served in World War I and World War II. It remains an invaluable resource on Aboriginal military history obtained mostly from
anecdotal records and medical citations of Aboriginal soldiers (Gaffen, 1985; Sheffield & Lackenbauer, 2007). Since Gaffen's (1985) book, various publications and dissertations have been produced in honour of the military service of Aboriginal soldiers ensuring that their stories are not forgotten in Canadian history (Carlson, 1997; Davison, 1992; Dempsey, 1999; Lackenbauer, 2006; Lackenbauer, Moses, Sheffield, & Gohler, 2010; Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples, 1996, vol.1; Sheffield & Lackenbauer, 2007; Summerby, 2005).

In Sheffield’s (1996) paper, “Of Pure European Descent and the White Race”: Recruitment Policy of Aboriginal Canadians, 1939-1945”, the recruitment policies of the Royal Canadian Navy (RCN), Royal Canadian Air Force (RCAF) and the Canadian Army during the Second World War are analyzed. Sheffield (1996) discussed how early military recruitment policies of the RCN and RCAF served as an overt “racial barrier” or “colour line” because they required recruits to be of “pure European descent” (p.9). Despite these barriers, Aboriginal people were still able to join in both the RCN and the RCAF although the exact numbers are unknown. According to Sheffield (1996), most Aboriginal people joined the Canadian Army because of its less stringent entry requirements pertaining to education, health, and racial background.

Robert Innes’s (2004) article, "I'm on Home Ground Now. I'm Safe": Saskatchewan Aboriginal Veterans in the Immediate Postwar Years, 1945-1946”, was based on the interviews conducted for his Master’s thesis with Aboriginal World War II veterans. Innes (2004) argued there was no evidence to support the claim that returning Aboriginal veterans in the immediate postwar years were directly responsible for the creation of five new Aboriginal political organizations in Saskatchewan and had assumed positions of leadership. According to Innes (2004), Aboriginal veterans instead indirectly influenced political attitudes during this time.
through their presence in society, which he believed to have played a role in changing public perceptions of Aboriginals in Canada.

Grace Poulin’s (2005) Master thesis, “Invisible Women: Aboriginal servicewomen in Canada’s WWII Military”, was a qualitative study to explore the experiences of 18 Aboriginal woman veterans of the Second World War. Poulin (2005) engaged in personal interviews with 14 Aboriginal woman veterans and the family members of two Aboriginal women veterans, a telephone interview with one Aboriginal women veteran, and received a written submission from another Aboriginal women veteran. Like Aboriginal men, most of the women (n=15) in this study had served in the army. Two participants served in Royal Canadian Air Force Women’s Division (RCAFWD) and one woman served in the Women’s Royal Canadian Naval Service (WRCNS) (Poulin, 2005). Many participants in this study shared in the experience of gender discrimination similar to many non-Aboriginal servicewomen during this period, such as receiving lower pay compared to their male counterparts. This study’s findings were insightful as they shed light on the sacrifices, challenges, and service of Canadian Aboriginal women veterans of the Second World War.

MacFarlane and Moses’ (2006) qualitative study examined how three generations of Aboriginal veterans perceived their military service through interviews with sixty Aboriginal veterans across Canada. The participants comprised three groups of 20 veterans who had served during the Second World War, from 1946 to 1968, and from 1968 to 2002 (McFarlane and Moses, 2005). This study focused on four major themes relating to: 1) the veterans desire to join the military, 2) any racial adversities they endured as Aboriginal individuals while serving in the military and in society, 3) unique attributes they possessed that aided in their integration and participation in the military, and 4) how their lives were impacted following their service in the
military (MacFarlane and Moses, 2005). Overall, all of the veterans interviewed expressed their military experiences as positive.

In his Masters’ thesis, Moses (2008) used historical methodology and documentary sources to assess the role returning First World War Six Nations veterans played in the decision to have the Six Nation’s traditional government substituted with an elected band council in 1924. Commonly accepted beliefs on this matter, point mainly to the Government’s assimilation agenda. According to Moses (2008), historical analysis of this period and events reveal that this political change was also motivated and supported by a small group of Six Nation residents, including an elite group of Six Nation veterans of the First World War.

Evan J. Habkirk’s (2010) Master’s thesis was a historical analysis which challenged arguments proposed by scholars G. Elmore Reaman, Sally M. Weaver, and John Moses that Six Nations participation in the First World War meant the end of the autonomy of the Grand River community. He argued that the conclusions drawn by Moses (2008) do not take into account the diverse opinions and beliefs of Six Nation veterans themselves. Habkirk (2010) used historian Robert Rutherford’s Hometown Horizon theory to examine the Six Nations of the Grand Territory relationship with Brantford and Ottawa before, during, and after World War One through local historical sources from the Grand River community. In his thesis, he concluded that, “Six Nations culture and nationalism did not die in the face of the militarism of the First World War. It instead became an evolved and post traditional culture that was still uniquely Six Nations” (p. 9).

2.3 Health of Canadian Veterans

Most of the retrieved literature on Canadian veteran health focuses on post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). The majority of these studies examined PTSD co-morbidity or the
relationship of PTSD with other mental and/or physical health conditions (Elhai, Contractor, Palmieri, Forbes, & Richardson, 2011; Fetzner, Abrams, & Asmundson, 2013; Fetzner, McMillan, Asmundson, 2012; Poundja, Fikretoglu, Guay, & Brunet, 2007; Richardson, et al., 2012; Richardson, Pekevski, & Elhai, 2009).

Richardson, Naifeh, and Elhai (2007) examined the risk factors associated with PTSD in 1016 male Canadian peacekeeping veterans. Participants completed a general health survey, which included the PTSD Checklist (PCL), Center for Epidemiological Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D), and questionnaires relating to their personal life events, stressors, and demographic information. This study found that participants that were unmarried, younger, and deployed more than once were more at risk to develop more severe PTSD symptoms.

Endahl, Richardson, Elhai, and Frueh (2011) tested two 4-factor models of PTSD symptoms (emotional numbing and dysphoria) in 1066 Canadian military peacekeeping deployed and non-deployed veterans using the PCL. Although both factor models displayed an adequate fit for all of the participants, no models were a significant fit in the non-deployed group. The dysphoria model was a better fit in the deployed group. This study highlights possible differences in the factor structure of PTSD symptoms between deployed and non-deployed veterans.

Ray and Vanstone (2009) explored the impact of PTSD symptoms (emotional numbing and emotional withdrawal) on Canadian veteran’s interpersonal family relationships and the influence of these relationships on their healing process. This study implemented a qualitative interpretative phenomenological approach, which involved a secondary analysis of a sample of 10 Canadian peace keeping veterans from a primary study entitled, “The experience of contemporary peacekeepers healing from trauma” (Ray, 2009a). Two main themes were
uncovered through data analysis of the interviews, “emotional numbing and anger negatively impacts familial relationships” and “emotional withdrawal from family support creates a struggle with healing from trauma” (Ray & Vanstone, 2009, p.838). This study displayed how PTSD symptoms such as emotional numbing and withdrawal can have a negative impact on veteran’s family relationships, creating obstacles in the healing process from trauma for these veterans (Ray & Vanstone, 2009).

Fikretoglu, Brunet, Poundja, Guay, and Pedlar’s (2006) quantitative study aimed to test the validity of the deployment risk and resilience inventory (DRRI) on a sample of French Canadian veterans and the impact of deployment on the psychological and physical health of these veterans. A total of 131 French-Canadian veterans completed mailed surveys that included a measure of deployment risk and resilience factors, DRRI, and measures on psychological and physical health. The results of this study showed that DRRI risk factors were negatively associated with physical and psychological health. The DRRI was found to be a reliable and valid measure of deployment risk and resilience factors in this population.

An exploratory study conducted by Whelan (2013) examined the relationship between adverse childhood events (ACE) and substance use disorders (SUDS) in 108 CF veterans who had been previously treated for PTSD (n=57) (relapsed PTSD veteran group) and those untreated and newly diagnosed with PTSD (n=51). Data were collected through a retrospective analysis of patient chart data from 2008 to 2011 at a clinic located in Atlantic Canada. The data included results from clinical interviews, Detailed Assessment of PTSD Scale (DAPS), and Personality Assessment Inventory (PAI). Veterans who had been previously treated for PTSD revealed increased rates of childhood abuse (68%), SUDS (86%), and cluster B personality traits, such as, “affective instability, identity problems, negative relationships, and self harm” (Whelan, 2013, p.
In comparison, rates of SUDS and childhood abuse (41%) were lower in newly diagnosed PTSD veterans (34%). The findings of this study suggest a need for further implementation of a developmental trauma approach in the treatment and assessment of military trauma (Whelan, 2013).

Richardson et al. (2014) examined the frequency and the impact of self-reported sleep disturbances on suicide ideation in 404 CF members using the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) and the PCL. A significant number of the participants reported having nightmares (67.9%) and issues falling or staying asleep (86.9%). Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) was the most significant suicidal risk factor in this study sample.

**Transition to civilian life.** MDD is the most common mental disorder in CF veterans and presents a major challenge to veterans transitioning to civilian life (Cox, Black, Westwood, & Chan, 2013). Cox, Black, Westwood, and Chan (2013) examined the impact of the Veteran Transition Program (VTP) on depressive symptoms in a sample of 39 CF veterans. The VTP is a ten-day residential group program that assists CF veterans experiencing issues transitioning to civilian life. This study assessed CF veteran’s self-reported depressive symptoms at the beginning and the end of the VTP using the Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II). CF veterans with mild, moderate, and severe depressive symptoms experienced a significant reduction in their depressive symptoms by the end of the VTP and were all categorized as mildly depressed. Overall, this study provided evidence of the VTP’s efficacy in the treatment of MDD.

In a qualitative study conducted by Ray (2009b), ten Canadian peacekeepers diagnosed with PTSD described their healing process from psychological trauma and their experiences with contemporary treatments. All of the participants in this study had been previously deployed to warzones, such as, Somalia, Rwanda, and Yugoslavia. Data for this study were collected through
individual interviews with the participants and analyzed using a hermeneutic phenomenological approach. Three themes emerged from the data analysis: “medications as helping the most, understand what is going on, and self-healing as a journey of discovery” (Ray, 2009b, p. 115). Ray (2009b) concluded, “Research studies are needed to test the efficacy of treatment approaches for PTSD, especially those that incorporate embodied healing such as mind-body complementary therapies” (p. 126).

Maclean et al. (2014) assessed the post-military adjustment and potential risk factors associated with a difficult transition to civilian life. A cross-sectional survey called the Survey on Transition to Civilian Life was administered by Statistics Canada through individual telephone interviews to a sample of 3154 CF veterans from 1998 to 2007. The majority of the participants in this study reported easy or moderately easy adjustments (62%) to civilian life and difficult adjustment was prevalent in 25% of the participants. Risk factors associated with a difficult adjustment included, “lower rank and medical, involuntary, mid-career, and Army release” (Maclean et al., 2014, p. 1192).

**Health service use among Canadian veterans.** A prospective survey conducted by Elhai, Richardson, and Pedlar (2006) examined medical and psychological service use patterns in a sample of 1132 Canadian peacekeeping veterans with health problems. In this sample, medical service usage intensity was associated with married status, increased health issues, and severity of depression. Veterans who were younger, with severe PTSD, and other health issues were more likely to access psychological treatment.

Research conducted by Laforce, Whitney, and Klassen (2013) assessed the health service use of 224 serving CF members, 15 serving Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) members, 120 CF veterans, 3 RCMP veterans, and 1 veteran who had served in a foreign militia. Health
service usage data of 363 participants at a Winnipeg Operational Stress Injury Clinic (OSI) were acquired through the clinical research database. This study found that older CF veterans were more likely to receive formal assessment services by a psychiatrist or psychologist instead of therapy. In comparison, current serving CF members were more likely to receive therapy instead of a formal assessment. Unlike Elhai, Richardson, and Pedlar’s (2006) study, the severity of clinical symptoms in this study had no impact on the type of services the participants received.

**Senior veteran health research.** Gill, Zou, Jones, and Speechley (2007) examined the effect of injurious falls on the level of physical and household activity in 200 male elderly Canadian World War II and Korean War veterans. This study was a secondary analysis of data obtained from the Project to Prevent Falls in Veteran (PPFV) trial (Speechley et al., 2005). Participants with one or more injurious falls displayed lower household physical activity and higher recreational physical activity compared to those that did not fall or those without injuries following a fall. This study demonstrated differences in physical activity levels following injurious falls.

Hall, Denda, and Yeung (2010) measured the vitamin D intakes of thirty elderly Canadian veteran residents over the age of 70 living in a long-term care facility. Vitamin D intake was monitored over a three-day span of all food consumed by the residents using the Canadian nutrient file, which was then compared with the recommended adequate Vitamin D intake of 600 International Units (IU). The results of this study revealed that none of the participants met the required vitamin D intake of 600 IU through their food consumption. The average daily intake of participants was well below the recommended 600 IU at 295 IU. Hall, Denda, and Yeung (2010) suggested a minimum vitamin D supplementation of 400 IU for elderly veteran residents in this long-term facility to achieve the recommended AI of 600 IU.
They believed that vitamin D supplementation may help in the prevention of chronic illnesses and health conditions of this population, since 33% of the residents had diagnoses related to their vitamin D intake.

Bostrom, Van Soest, Kolewaski, Milke, and Eastbrooks (2011) examined the nutrition status of and risk factors of malnutrition of 55 Canadian senior veterans living in an urban long term care facility in Western Canada. This study implemented a descriptive cross sectional design and used the Mini Nutritional Assessment (MNA) to measure nutritional status in this sample. The findings of this study revealed that 32 residents were at risk of malnutrition and 17 were malnourished. Malnutrition was related to depression, dementia severity, and health instability in this sample. Bostrom et al. (2011) recommended that hospital staff and doctors in long-term care facilities place more significance on nutrition status of elderly residents especially for those with more severe depression, dementia, and unstable health.

2.4 Canadian Aboriginal Health

The majority of Canadian Aboriginal health research examines health disparities between Aboriginal peoples living on reserve and non-Aboriginal Canadians, and so the information presented in this section is reflective of this focus in the literature (Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007; Young, 2012; Wilson & Cardwell, 2012). Very little research is available on the health of Non-status Aboriginals, Métis, and Aboriginal people living in urban areas (Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007; Wilson & Cardwell, 2012; Young, 2012).

Chronic health conditions and injuries such as accidents, violence, drowning, suicide, and fire related burns are the primary causes of death amongst Canadian Aboriginal individuals (Short, Mushquash, & Bedard, 2014; Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007; Wilson & Cardwell, 2012; Young, 2012). Unintentional and intentional injuries represent a quarter of all Aboriginal
deaths, compared to ten percent for the general population in Canada (Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007; Young, 2012). Automobile collisions are the main causes of injury causalities of Aboriginals in Canada (Short, Mushquash, & Bedard, 2014).

Aboriginal people have an increased risk of developing chronic health conditions compared to other Canadians, such as obesity, heart disease, hypertension, arthritis, and type 2 diabetes (Barton, 2008; Joseph et al., 2012; Thurston et al., 2014; Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007; Wilson & Cardwell, 2012; Young, 2012). They are four to five times to develop diabetes, 1.3 to 1.6 times more likely to acquire arthritis, and three times more likely to develop heart disease and hypertension compared to their non-Aboriginal counterparts (Thurston et al., 2014; Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007). Arthritis remains the most prevalent chronic illness experienced by Aboriginals in Canada (Thurston et al., 2014).

The majority of Canadian Aboriginal research on obesity implicates a lack of physical inactivity and increased caloric intake as the leading causes of obesity in Aboriginal populations (Foulds, Bredin, & Warburton, 2011; Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007; Willows, Hanley, & Delormier, 2012). According to Willows, Hanley, and Delormier (2012), “there is inadequate discussion in the literature on the relationship between the environmental and social determinants of obesity in Aboriginal communities” (p.3). Very few studies have directly examined the influence of socioeconomic status on obesity in Aboriginal communities (Ng, Corey, & Young, 2011). Given that Aboriginal peoples experience a lower socioeconomic status compared to the rest of Canadians, more research is needed to examine the possible influence of socioeconomic and environmental factors of obesity in this population (Willows, Hanley, & Delormier, 2012).

Research has shown that food insecurity remains a significant issue for Aboriginal communities in Canada (Willows, Hanley, & Delormier, 2012). Willows, Veugelers, Raine, and
Kule (2008) define food insecurity as the, “limited or uncertain availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods, or the limited or uncertain ability to acquire acceptable foods in socially acceptable ways” (p.1150). Although studies have shown that obesity is more prevalent amongst those that are food insecure; there have been no studies conducted within an Aboriginal context exploring possible links between food insecurity and obesity (Willows, Hanley, & Delormier, 2012). Willows, Hanley, and Delormier (2012) suggest that there is an overlap of the conditions between obesity and food insecurity as poor Aboriginal people may have fewer healthy food options available to them, opting instead for cheaper high caloric foods.

There has been considerable research conducted examining Aboriginal diabetes involving community based health initiatives (Barton, 2008). Unlike type 1 diabetes, type 2 diabetes has become an increasingly common health issue in Aboriginal communities. Previous research on Aboriginal diabetes has shown this to be associated with an increasing adoption of modern lifestyles and a genetic predisposition to diabetes in indigenous groups (Barton, 2008). Aboriginal people living with diabetes are more likely to experience complications as a result of their illness compared to other Canadians (Barton, 2008). The prevalence of type 2 diabetes differs across Aboriginal communities and groups in Canada (Barton, 2008). However, Aboriginal people living on reserve are at greater risk of developing type 2 diabetes compared to Aboriginal people living in urban areas (Barton, 2008).

The number of Aboriginal people living in cities has increased steadily since the 1960’s (Wilson & Cardwell, 2012). In 1950, only seven percent of the Aboriginal population lived in urban areas (Wilson & Cardwell, 2012). Fifty-four percent of Aboriginal people in Canada now live cities (Snyder & Wilson, 2012). Despite the growing urban Aboriginal population, very little literature is available on the health of Aboriginals living in cities (Wilson & Cardwell, 2012).
Most of the research in the area of urban Aboriginal health is focused on issues related to the accessibility of healthcare services and usage of health services within this population (Waldram, Wilson & Cardwell, 2012; Wilson & Synder, 2012). Compared to Aboriginal people living in rural areas, research has shown that Aboriginal populations living in urban areas have better access to health care resources (Harrington, Wilson, Elliot, & Clarke, 2013; Sibley & Weiner, 2011).

The Aboriginal population is described as the “fastest growing” and “youngest” population in Canada (Ning & Wilson, 2012, p. 1; Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007). Approximately 50% of Aboriginal people are under the age of 24, compared to just 31% of the non-Aboriginal Canadian population (Ning & Wilson, 2012). There is growing research pointing to health disparities and vulnerability of this population compared to non-Aboriginal Canadian children (Harrington, Wilson, Elliot, & Clarke, 2013; Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007). Studies have indicated that Aboriginal children have poorer health outcomes and a higher risk of infant mortality, respiratory tract infections, hepatitis A, type 2 diabetes, obesity, suicide and injuries compared to other children in Canada (Curren et al., 2014; Harrington, Wilson, Elliot, & Clarke, 2013; Lemstra, Rogers, Moraros, & Grant, 2013; Ng, Young, & Corey, 2010; Ning & Wilson, 2012; Stewart et al., 2013; Willows, Hanley, & Delormier, 2012; Worthington, Jackson, Mill, Prentice, Myers, & Sommerfeldt, 2010). Suicide is the main cause of mortality in Aboriginal adolescents (Ning & Wilson, 2012). Substance and inhalant abuse remains a significant health issue amongst Aboriginal youth, with the average age of onset of usage at 10 to 13 years (Ning & Wilson, 2012). Various reasons have been proposed to explain the health disparities faced in this population, such as poverty, social inequities, inadequate housing, food
insecurity, increased representation in justice and the child welfare system (Marjerrison, Pole, & Sung, 2014; Ning & Wilson, 2012).

From 2001 to 2006, the number of Aboriginal people in Canada over the age of 65 increased by 43% (Wilson, Ronsenberg, & Abonyi, 2011). Despite a growing aging population, research on the health of Aboriginal seniors in Canada is limited (Wilson, Ronsenberg, & Abonyi, 2011). Research in this area is focused on the topic of caregiving, comparing informal and formal support systems in this population (Wilson, Ronsenberg, & Abonyi, 2011).

Wilson, Rosenberg, Abonyi, and Lovelace (2010) analyzed data from the 2001 Aboriginal Peoples Survey (APS) and the 2000/2001 Canadian Health Survey (CCHS) to explore the health status and health care use of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginals people over the age of 55 (Wilson, Rosenberg, Abonyi, & Lovelace, 2010). The results of this research revealed that Aboriginal seniors were not as healthy across all age groups compared to their Canadian non-Aboriginal senior counterparts (Wilson, Rosenberg, Abonyi, & Lovelace, 2010).

Aboriginal women experience disproportionate health problems compared to the rest of Canadians (Denison, Varcoe, & Browne, 2014). Studies have shown that they are more likely to experience interpersonal violence, poverty, HIV/AIDS, addiction, poor nutrition, substandard housing, and unemployment compared to Aboriginal men and non-Aboriginal women (Anne Van Herk, Smith, & Andrew, 2011; McCall, Browne, & Reimer-Kirkham, 2009). They represent 47.4% of those living with HIV/AIDS in the Aboriginal population (Mehrabadi, et al., 2008; McCall, Browne, & Reimer-Kirkham, 2009). Past traumatic experiences and use of intravenous drugs increase Aboriginal women’s risk of becoming infected with HIV (McCall, Browne, & Reimer-Kirkham, 2009).
Research has revealed that Aboriginal women living with HIV face various barriers as they access healthcare, services, and programs (McCall, Browne, & Reimer-Kirkham, 2009; McCall & Laurisden-Hoegh, 2014). McCall, Browne, and Reimer-Kirkham (2009) explored the experience of eight Aboriginal women living with HIV access to healthcare services through a qualitative study using in-depth semi-structured interviews. Four major themes were uncovered from the interview data, “fear of rejection when seeking services, finding strength in adversity, struggles with symptoms, and HIV as just one of many competing problems” (McCall, Browne, & Reimer-Kirkham, 2009, p.1769). These findings revealed that both socioeconomic and historical factors influenced the women’s ability to cope with their illness and access the necessary health supports/services (McCall, Browne, & Reimer-Kirkham, 2009).

There has also been considerable research concerning the HIV/AIDS epidemic among Aboriginal peoples in Canada (McCall, Browne, & Reimer-Kirkham, 2009; Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007). Although Aboriginal people comprised of only 3.3% of the total population in Canada in 2008, they represented 12.5% of new HIV infections (McCall, Browne, & Reimer-Kirkham, 2009). Increased vulnerability to HIV infection in this population have been attributed to various factors, mainly “a history colonization, disproportionate experiences of violence and childhood sexual abuse, and high rates of illicit drug use” (McCall, Browne, & Reimer-Kirkham, 2009, p. S70).

2.5 Intergenerational Trauma

The intergenerational impact of trauma has only recently been examined in Aboriginal communities in Canada (Menzies, 2006). Intergenerational trauma refers to the, “transmission of a collective emotional and psychological injury over the lifespan and across generations” (Mehrabadi, et al., 2008, p.238). Residential schools have been implicated as a central factor in
the intergenerational trauma experienced by Aboriginals populations in Canada (Menzies, 2006). From 1840 to 1983, more than 100,000 Aboriginal children were required by the Indian Act to attend residential schools (Fast & Collin-Vezina, 2010; Menzies, 2006).

The health of former Aboriginal residential school attendees has been explored using both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Kaspar, 2014; Smith, Varcoe, & Edwards, 2005). Results of the First Nations Regional Longitudinal Health Survey (2002-2003) noted that 47% of respondents experienced negative effects to their health because of their residential school attendance (Kaspar, 2014). Many of residential school attendees experienced negative health effects due to the physical, sexual, psychological abuse, neglect, isolation, and cultural suppression (Carriere, 2008; Menzies, 2006; Reid, 2005).

A recent study conducted by Kaspar (2014) investigated the impact of residential school attendance on the health outcomes of Aboriginals and the intersecting influences of socioeconomic status (SES), community and neighbourhood adversities. This study involved a retrospective analysis of the self-reported health status of 13,881 Aboriginal people across Canada obtained from the Aboriginal People Survey conducted in October 2006 and March 2007. Approximately ten percent (n=1347) of the survey respondents confirmed that they had attended residential schools. In comparison to respondents who did not attend residential schools, residential school attendees rated their health as more poor, experienced a lower SES, and multiple social problems (Kaspar, 2014).

According to Menzies (2006), historical policies relating to the Indian Act, residential schools, and Aboriginal child welfare have caused interruptions in the connections of four systems (i.e. individual, family, community, and Aboriginal nation) resulting in trauma and increased vulnerability to social issues. Using findings of his 2004 study on homeless Aboriginal
men in Toronto, he proposed a model for intergenerational trauma for Canadian Aboriginal peoples. This model relies on teachings from traditional Aboriginal medicine and focuses on the balance of 4 indicators: “individual”, “family”, “community”, and “nation” (Menzies, 2006, p.13). Menzies (2006) argues that intergenerational trauma can be used to explain many of the social issues experienced by Aboriginal peoples today such as homelessness, violence, and substance abuse. His model offers a holistic and cultural approach to mental health for therapists working with Aboriginal clients.

2.6 Aboriginal Homelessness

According to Thurston, Oelke, and Turner (2013), Aboriginal homelessness represents a significant public health concern in many Canadian cities. There is an overrepresentation of Aboriginal people in the Canadian urban homeless population (Menzies, 2006; Thurston, Oelke, & Turner, 2013). Obtaining exact figures of homeless Aboriginal people in Canada is difficult due to the experiences of many Aboriginal individuals with “hidden homelessness” (Distasio, Sylvestre, & Mulligan, 2005, p. 6; Thurston, Oelke, & Turner, 2013).

Patrick (2014) states that, “Any discussion on the Aboriginal homeless crisis must include discussions about history and intergenerational (or ‘historical’) trauma” (p. 7). Most of the literature on the topic of Aboriginal homelessness in Canada has been focused on the topic of trauma (Patrick, 2014). The term “spiritual homelessness” has been used by Aboriginal and indigenous scholars to describe the removal of Aboriginal peoples from their ancestral lands, families, and communities (Distasio, Sylvestre, & Mulligan, 2005; Patrick, 2014, p. 13). Poverty, colonialism, social inequality, inadequate housing, as well increased urbanization of this population have been described as possible contributing factors and/or causes of Aboriginal
homelessness in Canada (Christensen, 2012; Distasio, Sylvestre, & Mulligan, 2005; Menzies, 2006; Patrick, 2014; Thurston, Oelke, & Turner, 2013).

Menzies’ (2006) qualitative study aimed to explore if intergenerational trauma could be used as a possible explanation of homelessness in the Aboriginal population. This study involved in-depth interviews with 16 homeless Aboriginal men between the ages of 26 to 55 years living in Toronto. Many of the participants had been apprehended from their homes at an early age by child protective serves and had little knowledge of their birth history. Although these participants were removed from their communities for reasons such as violence, substance abuse, and poverty, he viewed the participants’ experiences in the child welfare system negatively because it resulted in them being without a home from an early age.

A study conducted by Roos et al. (2014) explored factors relating to the life history and demographic characteristics of homeless individuals living with mental illness using the Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview (MINI), the Short-Form 12 health survey, and a trauma questionnaire. This study used baseline data (n=504) from the A Home / Chez Soi Trial mental health and homelessness project in Winnipeg. Approximately 63.5% of the participants in this study were male and 74.2% self-identified as Aboriginal. The results of this study revealed that half of the participant sample reported a history in-care. Participants reporting a history in-care were more likely to be less educated, younger, Aboriginal, female, and have family members that attended residential schools. They were also more likely to have an experienced traumatic events in their lives and displayed distinctive differences in the prevalence of Axis 1 mental disorders. This study highlighted how a history in-care related to health and demographic characteristics in this particular participant sample.
Christensen’s (2012) qualitative study aimed to understand the factors associated with the rural-urban migration of homeless Northern Aboriginal people in Yellowknife and Inukvik, Northwest Territories. A total of 95 in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with homeless men and women in Inukvik and Yellowknife using a biographic interview approach. Eighty-seven participants identified as Aboriginal in this sample. Of these participants, 62 had indicated rural-urban migration as central to their homelessness. This study focused on the experiences of the 62 participants exhibiting rural-urban migration in the study locations. Four main factors related to the participant’s rural-urban migration patterns included: “1) the attractions of opportunity in northern urban centres; 2) rural settlement-urban institutional flows; 3) chronic housing need in the settlements; and, 4) disintegrating social relationships in the settlements” (p. 419). Christensen (2012) found that economic, infrastructural, institutional, and social disparities increased the vulnerability of individuals in the Northwest Territories to homelessness.

Thurston, Oelke, and Turner (2013) state there is a need for city specific research when examining the topic of Aboriginal homelessness in Canada because it allows researchers to also attend to contextual factors related to homelessness. Due to the diversity of Aboriginal peoples and communities, more research is also needed to examine specific understandings and meanings of homelessness amongst different Aboriginal nations and groups (Patrick, 2014). There have been few studies that have looked at the individual lived experiences of homeless Aboriginal men and youth and homeless Aboriginal lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, two-spirit, and queer (LGBTTQ) individuals (Patrick, 2014). More research is also needed exploring how Aboriginal women overcome homelessness (Patrick, 2014).
2.7 Canadian Aboriginal Transracial Adoption During the Sixties Scoop

Bagley, Young, and Scully’s (1993) study was the first longitudinal Canadian study to highlight issues related to the poor adjustment outcomes of Aboriginal transracial adoptees. This study compared the adjustment outcomes of adolescents aged 13 to 17 years from different ethnicities and family dynamics (Bagley, Young, & Scully, 1993). According to Bagley, Young, and Scully (1993), outcomes for Aboriginal youth transracial adoptees in Calgary were often poor compared to other inter-country and White adoptees (Bagley, Young, & Scully, 1993). Aboriginal adoptees had “significantly poorer levels of self-esteem, and higher scores on the suicidal ideation scale than the combined comparison groups” (Bagley, Young, & Scully, 1993, p.226). Comparatively, non-adopted White youth and non-adopted Aboriginal youth living on reserve both displayed positive adjustment outcomes.

Since Bagley, Young, and Scully’s (1993) study, several other dissertations and publications have been produced examining the experience of the Sixties Scoop from the vantage point of the adoptees themselves (Arsenault, 2006; Carriere, 2005; Kulusic, 2005; Milner, 2001; Nuttgens, 2004; Sinclair, 2007; Sindelar, 2004; Swidrovich, 2004; Peterson, 2002). With the exception of Swindrovich’s (2004) study, the majority of these studies and testimonials highlight challenges relating to “identity” and/or “racism” faced by Aboriginal transracial adoptees adopted during the Sixties Scoop (Arsenault, 2006; Carriere, 2005; Sinclair, 2007; Sindelar, 2004; Nuttgens, 2004; Peterson, 2002).

A narrative inquiry conducted by Nuttgens (2004), looked at the experiences of four adult Aboriginal adoptees raised in non-Aboriginal homes during the Sixties Scoop. The life stories of these participants were collected through individual unstructured interviews and seven themes were obtained from their stories: “disconnection, passing, diversion, connection, surpassing,
reconnection, and identity coherence” (Nuttgens, 2004, p. 14). All of these themes illustrated that racism was a significant component in their identity development.

Sinclair’s (2007) doctoral dissertation using a critical case study revealed similar findings. In this study, 15 Aboriginal transracial adoptees were interviewed to gain an understanding of how they conceptualized their “cultural identity” in relation to their adoption experiences. The results of this study indicated that Aboriginal transracial adoptions were not successful due to various factors related the “socio-cultural context of racism in Canadian society” (Sinclair, 2007, p. ii). Sinclair (2007) found that racism was the central cause of trauma for the participants in her study.

According to Swindrovich (2004), much of the literature and discussion surrounding the Sixties Scoop has focused on negative adoption outcomes of Aboriginal transracial adoptees. By exploring the positive experiences of 13 Aboriginal adoptees adopted during the Sixties Scoop, Swindrovich’s (2004) aimed to “expand the parameters within which First Nations child welfare issues are discussed” (p. 145). Her study contributes to the lack of literature available concerning the positive experiences of Aboriginal adoptees during the Sixties Scoop.

Carriere’s (2005) study explored the relationship between “connectedness, adoption, and health” using both indigenous and Western research methods (p. 545). In-depth qualitative interviews were conducted with 18 adult Aboriginal adoptees; many of whom were adopted during the Sixties Scoop. Two traditional indigenous talking circles were also conducted with key informants from the Aboriginal community (Carriere, 2005). A grounded theory approach was used to analyze the research data (Carriere, 2005). Carriere (2005) found that the participants, through their physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual health, expressed many
losses. This study demonstrated the importance of Aboriginal adoptees’ connectedness to their communities, biological family, and “ancestral knowledge” (Carriere, 2005, p. 545).

In a Master’s thesis conducted by Wickham (2010) the needs and experiences of displaced Aboriginal peoples from their communities and the perspectives of those adopted during the Sixties Scoop were examined. Focus groups were conducted with the Wet’suwet’en community members where the information and themes from the displaced participant’s interviews was presented. A model for “reconnecting and reintegration” was created using the insight of both the community of Wet’suwet’en and the displaced individual themselves (Wickham, 2010, p. 110). Wickham’s study is unique in that it offers possible strategies and a framework for Aboriginal communities to address issues related to the displacement and reintegration of displaced individuals.

Huntinghawk’s (2012) Master’s dissertation provided an in-depth examination of the Aboriginal transracial adoption experience as told through the narratives of five non-Aboriginal adoptive parents of Aboriginal children adopted during the Sixties Scoop. Despite the many challenges faced by the participants and their families, all had stated that they were able to overcome these challenges to the best of their abilities and “had no regrets on their decision to adopt a Native child” (Huntinghawk, 2012, p.105).

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter included a review of the literature on Canadian Aboriginal veterans, the health of Canadian veterans, Canadian Aboriginal health, intergenerational trauma, Aboriginal homelessness, and Canadian Aboriginal transracial adoption during the Sixties Scoop. Most of the literature on Aboriginal veterans has focused on historical analysis of Aboriginal veteran’s military contributions. More research is needed examining the health needs of Canadian
Aboriginal veterans. Regarding Aboriginal health in general, the majority of Aboriginal health research is centred on the health disparities between Aboriginals living on reserve and non-Aboriginal Canadians (Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007; Young, 2012; Wilson & Cardwell, 2012). Although understanding health disparities is important, further inquiry into the resilience of Aboriginals in light of these disparities and intergenerational trauma is also significant.

Most of the recent research conducted within the area of Aboriginal transracial adoption in Canada during the Sixties Scoop examined the lived experiences of those adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop. This is promising as it provided an opportunity for the voices of those personally impacted by the Sixties Scoop to be heard from their point of view. Given the large number of Aboriginal individuals adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop, more research is needed to fully assess the health outcomes and health challenges of those adopted and/or fostered during this period. Furthermore, research exploring the health needs of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop is also important, since very little is known regarding the health needs of this specific group of veterans. It is hoped that this study will contribute to the literature by increasing knowledge and awareness of the specific health needs of this population.
Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the research questions, theoretical framework, and research methodology employed in this study. The recruitment process, data collection and analysis, quality considerations, demographic information of the participants, reflexive notes, and ethical considerations are also discussed.

Research Questions: This study addressed the following research questions:

1. How has the experience of being adopted and/or fostered during the “Sixties Scoop” influenced the lives of Canadian Aboriginal Veterans?

2. What are the health needs of Canadian Aboriginal Veterans adopted and/or fostered during the “Sixties Scoop”? 

3. What health services and/or programs are required to meet the health needs of Canadian Aboriginal Veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop?

3.2 Theoretical Framework

The perspectives of critical theory guided this study. Originally developed in the 1920’s at the Institute of Social Research at the University Frankfurt, critical theory has come to be understood and defined in many different ways (Ponterotto, 2005). Although there is no single definition of this paradigm, a key aspect of critical theory involves a “focus on realities that are mediated by power relations that are socially and historically constituted” (Ponterotto, 2005, p. 130). Through reflective analysis of hegemony and ideology, critical theorists advocate for the emancipation and empowerment of marginalized and oppressed individuals and groups in society (Carpenter & Suto, 2008; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Ponterotto, 2005).
As this study aims to understand the lived experience of the Sixties Scoop from the perspective of Aboriginal Veterans, I begin by acknowledging that, “imperialism frames the indigenized experience” (Smith, 2012, p. 20). Discriminatory policies such as the Indian Act still serve as forms of colonialism and have an impact on the health and well-being of Aboriginal peoples and their communities today (Browne, Smye, & Varcoe, 2005). Through colonization, Aboriginal populations have experienced losses to their self-determination, ancestral lands, and traditional ways of being (Reading & Wien, 2009).

According to Absolon and Willet (2004), “Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal researchers who tackle any facet of Indigenous study accordingly must have a critical analysis of colonialism and of research methodology as an instrument of colonization” (p. 12). For many Aboriginal people research is viewed with skepticism due to the fact that many past researchers used their power and findings in a selfish pursuit to objectify indigenous people producing very little benefit to them and/or their communities (Smith, 2012). Martin and Mirraboopa (2003) refer to the objectification of Australian Aboriginal peoples in research as “terra nullus research” where Aboriginal peoples are viewed, “as objects of curiosity and subjects of research, to be seen but not asked, heard or respected” (Martin & Mirraboopa, 2003, p. 203).

By implementing a critical framework for this study, I have chosen to move away from an objective focus as promoted by positivism towards a perspective that respects the integrity and the individual voices of the participants in this study. The “locus of research” is not individual based but will instead involve a broader analysis of the unequal power dynamics, colonizing agents, and ideologies that have an impact on the lives of the participants (Smith, 2012, p.95).
3.3 Methodology

I used narrative inquiry as a research methodology to explore and understand the experiences of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop and to identify any expressed health needs of this population. According to Chase (2005), a “narrative may be oral or written and be elicited or heard during fieldwork, an interview, or naturally occurring conversation” (p. 652). As a qualitative research methodology, narrative inquiry is concerned with the study of an individual’s “lived” and “told” experiences and the meanings attached to them (Clandinin, 2006, p. 44).

Through oral traditions such as storytelling, ceremonies, songs, and teachings, Aboriginal knowledge has been passed down from generation to generation (Absolon & Willet, 2004). The purpose of these oral traditions is “to remember authentic realities” (Absolon & Willet, 2004, p.8). This process is significant since it allows individuals to connect with their “inner selves” (Carriere, 2005, p. 545). Absolon and Willet (2004) state that the process of remembering is also important to “collective knowing and consciousness” (p.13).

Although narrative inquiry is a Western research methodology, I chose to implement it in this study because it aligns with Aboriginal epistemology (Barton, 2010). Like indigenous knowledge, narrative inquiry is relational and oral (Absolon, 2010; Clandinin, 2006). It is a dynamic process that incorporates the participant’s individual experiences, the researchers experiences, and the “co-constructed experiences” during the research process (Clandinin, 2006, p. 47).

3.4 Recruitment Process

Ethics approval to conduct the study was granted by the Non-Medical Research Ethics Board for Health Sciences at Western University (Appendix A). Prior to the recruitment process,
verbal permission to recruit participants was obtained from the executive director and/or president of all collaborating organizations, which included Royal Canadian Legion (RCL) branches, Aboriginal services and organizations, and community outreach services (Appendix B). Each participant was recruited using purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is the intentional sampling of a group of people that is best suited to answer the research question (Holloway, 2008). According to Holloway (2008), this form of sampling is determined by the researcher’s judgment, research aim, and research question. The participants were not selected at random, but were invited to participate based on their ability to provide rich information about the research questions, and their adherence to the eligibility criteria. Snowball sampling was also used to recruit potential participants. Key informants such as the Aboriginal CF veteran leaders of the Aboriginal Veteran Autochthones (AVA) and the elder guiding this study distributed this study’s information flyer (Appendix C) to potential participants across the country and recommended the study to potential participants (Marshall, 1996).

The partnership with the AVA was instrumental for conducting this study. The AVA Mission is three fold: Advocacy, Community Service, and Remembrance. The AVA advocates by advising and providing support for and to all Aboriginal Veterans, Aboriginal Serving Members, and their families regarding all issues pertaining to Veteran’s needs and rights. The AVA promotes, engages in, and provides support to the community by encouraging contributions to society and to future generations. In addition, the AVA provides positive influence to Aboriginal communities and youth by both traditional teachings and strong leadership development through a variety of resources. The AVA provides remembrance to honour and perpetuate the memories and outstanding deeds of fallen comrades who gave their lives to preserve the freedom for all (Aboriginal Veterans Autochtones, 2012).
The RCL branches, collaborating community outreach services and Aboriginal organizations also provided potential participants with information about this study by advertising the information poster at their respective organizations (Appendix D).

The following eligibility criteria were used to recruit participants:

1. Aboriginal Veterans who have served in the Canadian Forces (CF) regular, and/or reservists, and/or served in Special Duty Areas (SDA’s) and/or Aboriginal Veterans who are Canadian citizens who served in the American Forces.

2. Aboriginal CF Veterans who were adopted or fostered out during the “Sixties Scoop” to Non-Aboriginal families during any period/s of their childhood.

3. Aboriginal CF Veterans living off-reserve with no or limited connection to their Aboriginal communities.

4. Able to speak and understand English to the degree necessary to engage in a conversation.

5. Able to read and write in English.

6. Able to give an informed consent related to the research.

Exclusion Criteria:

1. Canadian Forces Aboriginal members who are currently serving in the military

Participants in this study were initially recruited in the Greater Toronto area, London, Hamilton, Brantford, Kingston, Kitchener–Waterloo, and surrounding areas in Southwestern Ontario. Since recruitment for this study proved to be especially difficult, the study recruitment areas were expanded. A revision was made to Western University’s ethics department in March, 2014 to have North Bay and Ottawa included as additional recruitment sites (Appendix E). I had hoped that I would be able to reach more potential participants in these cities since they both have
a considerable Aboriginal population. Another revision was made to the ethics department at Western University in May, 2014 to have the study areas expanded to include the rest of Canada and have Skype added as a data collection method (Appendix F and G).

Regarding sample size, Holloway (2008) states that sample sizes should be larger for populations that are heterogeneous. Since this study involves a specific population of Canadian veterans self-identifying as Aboriginal, I aimed to recruit between eight to ten participants basing my estimated participant range on the number of participants recruited in the previous secondary analysis (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press).

Although there is no standard sample size for studies employing narrative inquiry, sample sizes using this approach tend to be small (Beal, 2013). The overall recruitment process for this study spanned from February to late July of 2014. In total, eight participants were recruited for this study. I stopped recruitment at eight participants as I determined that no new major themes emerged from the interview data and that data saturation had been reached (Marshall, 1996).

Potential participants interested in partaking in this study were provided with my contact information (email and phone number), which they received either from recommendations from key AVA members, the elder, collaborating organizations, and/or following review of the information poster/flyer for this study. After contacting me through either one of these means, I scheduled an interview with them at a date, time, and/or location (for in-person interviews) of their preference.

3.5 Data Collection

Prior to the data collection, all of the participants were provided with a letter of information (Appendix H and I). The information letter included the purpose of the study, methods, all of the potential risks and benefits, so that participants had the capacity to use this
information to voluntarily decide whether to participate in this study. Participants were also asked to provide informed consent (Appendix J), but only those with a face-to-face interview were required to sign the form in order to participate in this study. Those with a Skype interview indicated their voluntary agreement to participate in the study after I had read the consent form to them verbally by providing their verbal consent at the beginning of the study and responding to the interview questions.

I collected data by conducting one on one individual open-ended in depth semi-structured interviews with the participants. The interview process ranged from approximately 20 to 80 minutes in length. All interviews were audio-recorded with the permission of the participants.

Most of the interviews were conducted face-to-face with participants living in Ontario, at a safe location and time of their choice, which included local coffee shops, community shelters, and Aboriginal Friendship Centres. Two interviews were conducted using Skype as a data collection method with participants living in Vancouver and Winnipeg, at a time and date of their preference.

Skype afforded me with the opportunity to reach and interview potential participants across large geographical distances and served as a cost-effective alternative to a face-to-face interview. The video mode of Skype allowed me to see the interviewee in the present moment and engage with them personally during the interview process. This was important as I could still view for signs of distress during the interview process.

An interview guide was utilized to facilitate the interview process (Appendix K). The questions posed during the interview were first approved by the elder guiding this study to ensure that they were inclusive of Aboriginal knowledge and beliefs surrounding health and wellbeing prior to the interview process. Unlike Western biomedical beliefs concerning health and wellbeing, Aboriginal views on health and wellbeing involve a holistic approach and emphasize the
importance of balance in four dimensions: “mental, emotional, physical, and spiritual” (Dapice, 2006, p. 251).

All of the interviews were recorded using the same voice recorder. Audio files were deleted off of the voice recorder once they were uploaded onto a password-protected computer for both the face-to-face and Skype interviews. I transcribed each audio recording of the interviews verbatim. At the completion of the study, these audio files were securely deleted off the computer and stored in a locked cabinet at Western University, where they will be retained for two years.

Demographic data were also collected using a questionnaire to provide general background information on the participants involved in this study (Appendix L). Information collected included age, expressed gender, educational level, ethnicity, marital status, and number of children. Additional information pertinent to the participant’s involvement, deployment, and service in the military was included to aid in the interpretation of the results.

All of the participants received an honorarium of $20 for their participation in this study.

3. 6 Data Analysis

In order to capture the storied nature of the participant’s accounts, a critical narrative analysis was employed. Unlike positivist methods, which may be more interested in generalizable and absolute truths, critical narrative analysis is concerned with the individual realities of the participants (Patton, 2002).

An integral part of critical narrative analysis includes the process of problematizing which involves the examination of “taken for granted phenomenon and revealing the particular social and economic processes that contribute to it” (Carpenter & Suto, 2008, p. 24). The aim of this critical narrative analysis was to critique unequal power dynamics, colonizing agents, and
ideologies that have an impact on the lives of the participants and to facilitate an opportunity for agency, change, and empowerment through their narratives.

I started the analysis process by transcribing each interview, ensuring that the data obtained was presented as verbatim quotations to retain the participants’ authentic voices. Each transcript was then analyzed using the five stages of the “holistic-content model” (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998, p. 62). The holistic-content model “uses the complete life story of an individual and focuses on the content presented by it” (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998, p.13).

With the printed hardcopy of the transcript on hand, I began the first stage of data analysis process by reading the entire interview as I listened to the audio recording. I initially listened to the audio recordings as I read along, so that I could hear the context in which the text presented itself and ensure accuracy of the text. I followed Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, and Zilber’s (1998) advice to, “read or listen carefully, empathically, and with an open mind” (p.62). As I read and listened to the interviews a second time, I began to write brief notes in a notebook about characteristics or points in the narrative that stood out to me within the context of the entire interview. I continued to listen and read the interview in this manner several times until I noticed a pattern develop within the narrative pausing in between each reading to reflect upon my notes.

For the second stage, Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, and Zilber, (1998) indicate to, “Put your initial and global impression of the case into writing” (p. 62). Using the interview text and notes developed in the previous stage, I created a temporal sequence of the participant’s narrative focusing on aspects mentioned relating their upbringing, military service, post military life, and adult life. I noted any “unusual features of the story such as contradictions, or unfinished
descriptions, episodes or issues that seem to disturbed the teller, or produce disharmony” in their narrative (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998; p.62).

For the third stage of analysis, Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, and Zilber, (1998) state to, “Decide on special foci of content or themes that you want to follow in the story as it evolves from beginning to the end” (p. 63). I re-read the interview text and focused on the details that the participant elaborated on, repeated, omitted, and/or briefly mentioned in relation to the entire interview narrative. I began to underline and code these themes within the interview text using a pen. I also made small notes in the margins of the interview text for future reference regarding my interpretation of these codes.

I then proceeded to the fourth stage of the analysis process, where I marked the various themes in the interview text using different coloured markers and followed their progression throughout the text “reading separately and repeatedly for each one” (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998, p. 63).

The final stage of this process involves “keeping track of the themes” and noting my final conclusions (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998, p. 63). For this stage, I merged my notes, temporal sequence, and conclusions onto a single Word document on my laptop. I then highlighted using the same colour scheme, the themes uncovered in the previous step onto a saved copy of the interview transcript on my laptop. Following this, I cut the highlighted excerpts out of the interview text and pasted them into the temporal sequence document, where I believed they fit within the context of participant’s life story (i.e. upbringing, military service, post military life, and adult life). This document was also provided to the participants for their verification of the results of this study along with a copy of the transcript.
Once all of the participants’ temporal sequences had been compiled, I followed phases three to five of Braun and Clarke’s (2006) phases of thematic analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006) define thematic analysis as the, “method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (p. 79).

For phase three, I began by making a handwritten list of the initial themes compiled for each participant. I then went through the initial themes and determined if there were any similar themes across the data and marked similar themes. I continued sorting the themes in this manner, analyzing related theme excerpts, re-sorting the initial themes through different drafts of the list.

For phase four, I reviewed the excerpts compiled for each theme and verified to see if they created of a “coherent pattern” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.91). If they did not, I went back and checked to see if the theme itself or the excerpts were problematic. If this was the case, I reworked each theme until all extracts were representative of a theme. Once a revised “candidate thematic map” was created, I checked to see if the individual themes were representative of the entire data set and if the candidate map was reflective of the entire data (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.91).

In phase five, I defined each theme by identifying the “essence” of what the theme portrayed and what aspect the data of the theme captured (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 92). I referred to the coded extracts for reference and chose to represent the theme based on what I perceived to be the unifying theme.

3.7 Quality Criteria

For this study, I used Tracy’s (2010) quality criteria for credibility. According to Tracy (2010), credibility refers to “the trustworthiness, verisimilitude, and plausibility of the research findings” (p. 842). I chose these criteria because they apply to all paradigms, and can be used to
assess my study as a whole. In qualitative research, thick description is one of the most significant ways of achieving credibility (Tracy, 2010). Regarding thick description, Tracy (2010) states that researchers must “show, meaning that they provide enough detail that readers may come up to their own conclusions about the scene” (p. 843). I aimed to provide thick description through descriptive notes of all meetings with the participants and observations, and immersion in the field. I also did this by making sure that I kept track of anything pertaining to my discussions through what is referred to as a clear and descriptive “audit trail” (Morrow, 2005, p. 252).

Another strategy I used to ensure credibility of my research findings was through “member reflections” (Tracy, 2010, p. 844). According to Tracy (2010), member reflections “allow for sharing and dialoguing with participants about the study’s findings, and providing opportunities for questions, critique, feedback, affirmation, and even collaboration” (p. 844). As I aimed to employ a decolonizing framework, I was interested in hearing the voices of my participants and providing them with an equal opportunity to voice their opinions. I provided written narratives from the transcribed interviews via email for the participants to review for further clarification of the text. This provided an opportunity for the participants to provide me with their input during analysis of the data and for an understanding between us that makes the most sense of their experience (Tracy, 2010).

3.8 Reflexivity & Location

Finlay (2002) states “reflexivity can be defined as thoughtful, conscious self-awareness. Reflexive analysis in research encompasses a continual evaluation of subjective responses, intersubjective dynamics, and the research process itself” (p. 532). Throughout this study, I reflected on my experiences and beliefs by engaging in reflexive notes from the beginning to the
end of the study. Reflexivity is especially important when studying marginalized populations, such as Aboriginal people, and enables one to address any preconceived notions they have regarding this population.

My reflection involved being aware of the fact that I am a non-Aboriginal researcher. I documented how being non-Aboriginal might influence the research process, the participants, and me. Similar to the participants, I shared in the reality of belonging to a marginalized group, as a black Canadian Muslim woman. As the participants discussed their experiences with racism and stereotypes, I remembered my own experiences with racism and stereotypes and the negative impact it had on me. I found myself relating to their experiences on a personal level.

I had hoped that the participants would see this and connect with me on this level. Although some did, this did not always ensure commonalities between the participants and myself, since I am not an Aboriginal and nor was I adopted or fostered during the Sixties Scoop.

As an outsider, I understood my position, obligations, and role as a researcher as well as my limitations as a non-Aboriginal researcher examining an experience that is unique to this population. I was often asked why I was conducting this study and how I came to examine the experience of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop.

My journey to this study began shortly after my graduate thesis supervisor Dr. Susan L. Ray at Western University offered me with the opportunity to assist her with the secondary analysis examining the experience of homelessness and migration amongst Aboriginal Veterans as described in the Introduction (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press). As I reviewed the results of the secondary analysis, I was surprised to learn that all of the participants had been adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop.
Previous to assisting with the secondary analysis, I did not know what the Sixties Scoop was. Growing up, I had never been taught about the Sixties Scoop in school. As a teacher, I wondered why this period in Canadian history was not discussed in the current curriculum. When I discussed my thesis with my peers, I noticed that many of my peers also did not know what the Sixties Scoop was.

As I researched the Sixties Scoop, I became aware of my own limitations and biases surrounding knowledge, history, and reality. This awareness has resulted in me challenging my current belief systems. Through this process, I have learned to appreciate the diversity of knowledge and the importance of acknowledging and including Aboriginal worldviews.

The stories of my past have shaped my worldview and opinions on freedom and politics. I grew up hearing about my parent’s upbringing in Eritrea and their search for freedom. In the late seventies, my parents fled Eritrea due to political turmoil and war. My mother and father left by foot and camel carrying my eldest sister to seek refuge up north into Sudan. After making it safely to Sudan, my family eventually relocated and moved to Saudi Arabia with the help and assistance of family members. This is where they spent the next couple of years and where my older brother, sister, and I were born. When I was about two and a half years old, my family moved to Canada. Canada has been my home ever since.

As a researcher, I naturally gravitate towards critical theory and narrative inquiry because both provide for opportunities of empowerment for the marginalized in society and recognize the distinct realities of all human beings. I believe that everyone regardless of their race, ethnicity, religion, and background should have the freedom to express their voice and tell their story, which is the reason why I chose to conduct this study using narrative inquiry. I believe that stories can connect us and bring us closer together in our collective quest of understanding. They
can also help us see different worldviews outside of our own. Since I aim to understand the experiences of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop, I begin with the stories of the participants. As a novel researcher, I am engaged in a journey of understanding their stories and the distinct meanings they hold.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Throughout this study I ensured that this study conformed to the guidelines proposed by the Tri-Council Panel on Research Ethics (Canadian Institute of Health Research, Natural sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada, and Humanities Research Council of Canada, 2010).

Chilisa (2012) defines decolonization as a, “process of conducting research in such a way that the worldviews of those who have suffered a long history of opposition and marginalization are given space to communicate from their frames of reference” (p. 14). As a way to support the intent of decolonizing the research process, I adhered to the First Nation principles of ownership, control, access, and possession (OCAP), which consists of ethical guidelines proposed by First Nation communities to ensure the self-determination of First Nation participants during the research process (First Nations Centre, 2007). These guidelines can also be applied in contexts where research is being conducted with Aboriginal communities and participants. I provided each participant with their interview transcript and study results, and also disseminated the results to the executive members of the Aboriginal Veteran Autochtones (AVA) of which I had continued contact with throughout the study.

This study was also guided by the cultural wisdom, insight, and knowledge of a trusted Aboriginal elder and traditional counselor. According to Absolon (2010), “Elders are another cornerstone of Indigenous knowledge, culture and heritage. Oral traditions, languages and
historical accounts would be lost without the wisdom, knowledge and experience of Elders. Ethics of practice exist in the protocols in working with the Elders and with traditional knowledge” (p. 80). I maintained regular contact with the elder through meetings and emails throughout the study. The elder helped ensure that this study abided by the ethical principles of OCAP and was respectful and inclusive of Aboriginal traditions and beliefs. I provided the elder with the interview data, transcripts, and the results of this study, which were also made accessible to local elders and Aboriginal community members. This data contained no personal identifying information, as it was coded with a unique number to maintain the confidentiality and privacy of the participants. Amendments were made to the interview questions as requested by the elder.

Due to the personal nature of this study, there was a possibility that the participants may disclose “intimate knowledge” of their personal lives (Liamputtong, 2007). Since this study deals with personal topics such as experiences in the Sixties Scoop and military service, it presented potential risks to the participants in this study. Given their involvement in the military and their experiences of being adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop, the participants in this study may have endured traumatic experiences.

Past experiences of trauma may put the participants at risk of experiencing emotional distress during and after the interview process as they recall their personal and confidential experiences. Emotional distress has been described as a potential risk factor for participants in research who have experienced a traumatic experience in their past (Griffin, Resick, Waldrop, & Mechanic, 2003). PTSD may also be a long-term reaction to warzone exposure (Friedman, 2004). The likelihood of developing PTSD depends on both pre-military and post military factors and the participant’s reaction to trauma itself (Friedman, 2004).
I informed all of the participants that they had the option to discontinue their participation in the study at any time if they experienced any pain, stress or discomfort because of their participation at the beginning of the study. In the event that a participant became visibly uncomfortable and/or emotional distressed, they were asked if they needed a break and reminded of the fact that they could discontinue their participation at any time if they desired to do so. Each participant was provided with a list of the contact/s for community resources, Aboriginal cultural and/or health services, and referrals to qualified professionals in their community (Liamputtong, 2007). Following their participation in this study, all of the participants were debriefed and were encouraged to contact my thesis supervisor and/or myself, in the event that they experienced any adverse reactions as a result of their participation in the study.

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the methodological approach implemented in this study. The research objectives, research questions, theoretical framework, and methodology were discussed. In addition, the recruitment process, data collection and analysis, quality considerations, demographic information of the participants, and ethnical considerations were also outlined. This chapter also included reflexive thoughts on my role as a researcher regarding my perceptions, location, and experiences throughout the research process.
Chapter 4: Research Findings

“People shape their daily lives by stories of who they and others are and as they interpret their past in terms of these stories. Story, in the current idiom, is a portal through which a person enters the world and by which their experience of the world is interpreted and made personally meaningful. Narrative inquiry, the study of experience as story, then, is first and foremost a way of thinking about experience.” (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006, p. 479)

4.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a brief overview of the demographic characteristics of the participants involved in this study. The participants’ stories are also presented in this chapter. The experiences relayed by the participants during their individual interviews served as the foundation of these stories. The stories are structured chronologically and will be discussed according to the three overarching themes uncovered through the thematic analysis of the interview data: 1) sense of belonging, 2) racism: experienced and perceived, and 3) resilience: not giving up in the face of adversity. Excerpts from the participants’ interviews will also be used to present the participant’s authentic words within the context of their individual stories. Information pertaining to how the participants are addressing their health needs is also noted in this section. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the overarching study themes.

Pseudonyms approved by the participants were used to protect their privacy and confidentiality.

4.2 Participants

Seven male participants and one transgender participant were interviewed for this study. The participants ranged in age from 30 to 54 years. Five participants had children, one participant was married, three participants were separated/divorced, and four were single/never married. All of the participants had a high school education and five had postsecondary education (college and/or university). One participant served in the American Forces.
participants served in the Regular Forces. The average time the participants served in the military was 5.72 years. Three participants had been deployed overseas.

4.3 Participant Stories

Akrittok’s Story

Akrittok identified as First Nation and was in his early fifties at the time of the interview. He began the interview by describing his vague memories of his foster care experience, explaining what it was like to be moved from home to home as a young child.

I remember this lady driving in this car and I was in the backseat a little boy. I, that's my vague memory of it. We went to this house, and she told me, "Now you be a good boy, you know, just stay still be a good boy." Took me to the house introduced me to this other women. And these two ladies were talking. I sat in this chair...and after that I sat in the chair all day. I didn't move. I didn't move. This happened, I was being moved around from family to family at that time.

Throughout his experiences in foster care, Akrittok noted that he did not understand what home meant or why he was being moved from one home to another. He was adopted into his last foster home in 1963, which was an Aboriginal home. As he reflected back on this, Akrittok wondered how his adoption was even possible. “At that time they weren't allowed to adopt other native kids” he explained.

Akrittok’s adoptive father was an X-Ray technician, with a very successful career. Both of his adoptive parents were residential school survivors and had previously attended a residential school in Ontario. He had seen pictures and heard stories of their experiences at this school and the harsh discipline that they endured there. Akrittok expressed how thankful he was that he did not have to attend residential schools growing up.
When he was sixteen, he left home and started travelling. His travels eventually led him to the military. He was fascinated by what he saw on the television about the military as a child, and this inspired him to enroll. “I thought I would be a soldier running a field but I wasn’t.” The reality of military life was quite different from what he had initially envisioned. He was slotted as a vehicle technician since military tests determined that he was mechanically inclined. For the most part, he enjoyed the military because he was also able to travel to different army locations within Canada and meet different people.

The military was also where his addiction to alcohol began, which he attributes to the ease of accessibility of alcohol in the military. “Pop a machine, fifty cents, can a beer, anywhere.” Alcohol is something that he continues to struggle with to this day.

Akrittok viewed his adoption as both a blessing and a gift because he went to a good home where he was fed and clothed. His adoptive parents taught him how to live the way they grew up. He learned to split wood, haul water, and had spent quality family time up North where his adoptive mother grew up. This is where his family camped all summer.

As he looked back fondly upon his upbringing, he took pride in the fact that he had learned to adjust and survive in both the city and the bush. This is something that his adoptive father was very pleased about since he was able to stick it through the harsh rugged conditions when they tree planted up North.

Niigaani’s Story

Niigaani identified himself as Ojibwe and was in his late forties at the time of the interview. He was adopted as an infant to a White couple who had decided on the option of adoption, since they could not conceive a child of their own. His adoptive parents had also adopted another male Ojibwe child from another reserve.
Niigaani grew up aware that he was adopted. “And I grew up knowing from a very early age that I was adopted...didn't really, I wasn't under misconceptions.” He described his adoption experience as positive overall but noted that a lack of understanding of his own history and culture as the only negative aspect of his adoption. This was only noticeable to him at school when he was asked to speak on behalf of every Aboriginal person.

Growing up, he was quite athletic and had aspired to pursue a football scholarship in the United States. However, his dreams of pursuing a football scholarship were cut short in his final year of high school when he was involved in a motorcycle accident. Due to his injuries, Niigaani was forced to look at other career options. This is when he decided to apply to a police foundations program. He was inspired to apply to this program because of his adoptive father who had volunteered for eighteen years as an OPP auxiliary. However, since he submitted his application late, Niigaani was not selected as a student.

At this time, Niigaani started to really look at his life and the direction he was going. “And that caused me to look around me and I noticed that you know I wasn't in around the most positive of environments and you know I always concerned about... people lashing out at me.” He realized that he needed to break away from the crowd that he was in because they were not conducive to his future career plans in law enforcement. He remembered that a number of police officers he knew had also mentioned that they had been in the military.

Knowing this, Niigaani decided to join the military in 1988. He used the word “sobering” to describe his experiences in the military as all the fun and games in his life were over at that point. Although he struggled to adjust at first, he felt like he belonged in the military, as he was able to excel and succeed in this environment.
While living out West in the military, Niigaani experienced racism. “Diverse backgrounds, and I started meeting more Aboriginal people from the West coast to the East coast. And I experienced a greater amount of racism.” He mentioned that conflicts in the military were resolved “old school boy style” similar to how he resolved disputes and racism as a young man growing up in Kitchener. Having played in a full contact sport, Niigaani was able to defend himself physically in this type of environment. “I was able to hold my own.”

Despite this, Niigaani saw a pathway of success for himself in the military. He knew what he needed to do to succeed, which was to work hard every day, do his pushups, and make his bed. Within two and a half years, he was trained up to the rank of a sergeant. However, due to cutbacks in the 1980’s there were not many opportunities for further advancement. His trade, air defense artillery, was also cut. Although Niigaani was offered an opportunity for another trade, he asked to join the military police and was granted an opportunity to do so.

Due to his involvement in the military and now his employment as a police officer, Niigaani has become estranged with his adoptive brother. “He’s on the side of the fence as far as I’m on side of enforcement…Right?” He indicated that his adoptive brother has chosen his path in life and that it was best for them stay apart for each other’s sake.

On occasion, Niigaani connects with other Aboriginal veterans in his community where he partakes in powwows. He is a sun dancer and has danced for five years now.

His son is also currently contemplating in following his footsteps and considering a career in the military. When asked about this further, Niigaani laughed and enthusiastically replied, “He’s gonna try it out. Who knows?”
Animkii’s Story

Animkii identified as First Nation and was in his late forties when the interview was conducted. He started the interview by recalling the time when he was placed on a train as a young child and sent to a foster home far away from his home because his family could not control him as a young child.

The first foster home that he was placed in was an Aboriginal home. He experienced a lot of abuse there. His biological sister was also placed in this home. Animkii slowly came to learn that the foster father was also abusing his little sister, “There was a lot of abuse in the downstairs part too,” he said painfully. He remembered the time that he was thrown down a flight of stairs by his adoptive father. “That was when all hell began.”

Animkii described his foster father as “very mean.” He was scared of him. He indicated that his foster father got him to do what he wanted. His biological sister eventually ran away from this foster home informing Animkii that she would never come back.

Animkii also ran away from a subsequent foster care placement. Following this, he was sent to live in a non-Aboriginal home out in the country. He stated that he was beaten at least once a week along with the other foster children there. According to Animkii, they were just kids being hired out as slaves. He learned how to fix cars, and do things “that kids shouldn’t have to do.” Although this foster home was supposed to be a temporary placement, Animkii spent eight years there.

At the age of twelve or thirteen, Animkii tried to return to his reserve. He spent a year at home but was kicked out by his family. He learned to take care of himself and survive on his own ever since.

Soon after this, Animkii joined the railway. However, he was let go of his position at the Canadian railway because of a charge that he had acquired when he was about eight or nine
years of age. “And when it came back to haunt me, it gave me, it gave me a bad record and it cost me my career of CN of fifteen years.” He did not go into detail of the charge, but stated that he did not know what he was doing at the time. “I didn't know, I was just, it was the way I was, when I was taught.” The loss of his job devastated him greatly. He eventually turned to drugs soon after this as a way to cope.

Animkii was motivated to join the military by his father who was an air force pilot. He had a hard time adjusting to the military, which he attributed to his lack of discipline and abusive upbringing. His time in the military was short lived because of this. “It was the wrong time for me to join.”

As Animkii looked back on how his experiences being fostered out during the Sixties Scoop impacted his life as a whole, he stated:

For a while it helped me good because I was taught to work, and I learned to work at a young age. But basically it alienated me from my people. I’m not wanted on the reserves, like I don’t belong on the reserve where I, cuz I didn’t grow up on the reserve…

He became emotional as he discussed his struggle to belong in society. Animkii tried to go back to his reserve again as an adult but described that as a “fiasco.” His family shot his cousin at his expense because they felt that he did not belong.

Animkii is currently registered as a claimant for the current Sixties Scoop lawsuit in Ontario. He remains hopeful about this case. “I don't want to live. I want to live because I want to finish where I stood. [inaudible] Where I started with this lawsuit…”

Miigwaans’ Story

Miigwaans identified as Ojibwe and was in his early forties at the time of the interview. His adoption and foster care experiences began when his biological mother abandoned him at his
babysitter’s house. He was placed in the care of his babysitter after this incident and adopted into this home at seven days old.

Miigwaans indicated that he grew up hearing racist and derogatory names. “And it was always when they needed me for something. It was you little black bastard get your ass over here...Or you're nothing but a dirty Indian you should be over there doing that instead of over here...So it was a lot of stuff like that.” His adoptive parents also abused him physically and emotionally. “There was a lot of punishment handed down to me that the brother and sister were responsible for but they were blood.” As a result of this, Miigwaans felt like the black sheep of the family.

His relationship with his adoptive brother was strained mainly because his adoptive brother never really accepted him into the family. His adoptive brother made it a point to always refer to him as his “foster brother” and never just his brother. He also told him that he was never really a part of the family. Although this hurt Miigwaans, he learned to toughen up on this quickly.

Shortly after entering foster care, he joined the cadets at the age of nine as a way to avoid mischief. He was in cadets from the age of nine to seventeen years of age.

Since he enjoyed the military lifestyle, he decided to continue and enrolled in the Canadian Armed Forces. He served in the Canadian Armed Forces from the age of seventeen up until he was about twenty-three years old. He expressed both negative and positive experiences in the military. Miigwaans appreciated “learning how to live” and “the discipline” in the military. He discussed a negative experience, involving harassment from another member in the military.

I had one instance where a Chinese military person out in [location omitted] was doing training with and woke up two hours before my fire picket and I said no I'm not getting
up yet. And I was in my sleeping bag and he just constantly started punching me...punching me in the head. I couldn't get out. And then I got up and did my shift. Next day we had a live fire exercise and he was on the very far side of our lines and I ended up shooting him in the foot…

As he reflected back on what had transpired, he indicated that he got charged with an accidental discharge, which he said was a lot better than what it could have been. He had learned how to drink heavily in the military:

It seems that their way of thinking if you're older to serve your country, you're old enough to drink. And it just went hand in hand. And I dealt with drinking for a lot of years...Well actually it dealt with me. But it did...it did turn me into an alcoholic at that time too because there was nothing else to do but drink, sleep, and drink and that was it.

After leaving the military, Miigwaans realized that he had to make himself healthy again. So he turned to Aboriginal traditional healing methods because they were alcohol and drug free. He joined a group of men in his community after they had asked him to come out and sing with their drum. “It was singing, sweats, dancing, everything all in one.”

Due to his experiences growing up in foster care, Miigwaans said that he has “learned to do just for himself and nobody else.” Although he currently does not have any communication with his adoptive brother, he maintains a strong relationship with his adoptive sister and has improved his relationship with his adoptive parents.

Amaqjuaq’s Story

Amaqjuaq identified as First Nation and was in his late forties at the time of the interview. His story begins on a reservation in Western Canada, where he spent the first few years of his life. Due to a housing crisis, his family ended up moving to the city.
Amaquaq and his siblings lived with their grandparents who were both residential school survivors, since his mother was addicted to drugs. He described his home as an alcoholic household but acknowledged that they were together, adapted, and got by for the most part.

Every once in a while, he recalled child protective services would come to his home and take one of his siblings away. He found it strange that they would only select one child at a time when there was a whole household full of kids.

He was eventually placed in foster care. This experience was quite traumatic for him. He remembered his first experience in a foster home with a French couple that did not speak a word of English except for the word “shame”. He wondered about the effect that this type of communication had on a young child.

He described his experiences in foster care as pretty “hit or miss”, with one foster home even being sexually abusive. Amaquaq was eventually adopted into the last foster home he was placed in, which he described as a good placement. He described his adoptive parents as “very conscious.”

Since his adoptive father was a minister, Amaquaq moved often as they changed churches every three to five years. Once again he found himself in a situation where there was a lack of permanency in his life but he began to realize that it allowed him to see more environments. He realized that nothing in life was static and that he could adapt to anything. He carried this lesson with him throughout his life.

He joined the marines, as a way of, “being something, part of something…better bigger.” In the military, he learned the importance of being a part of the group and the benefits and securities it provided him in combat and in life in general.
While working in construction, he decided to return to school and study programming after realizing that it was not the career that he wanted to pursue for the rest of his life.

They call adaptability, working in construction to two years later working in a [name omitted] office doing programming for a phone company. It's the ability to change like that, it's...you know, it takes not just the smarts of it but the social adaptability to do that.

Amanqjuaq struggled with alcoholism for many years and said that it was period where he could not see the truth. He was able to get out of his addiction by finding his personal truth and realized that he was not alone in his troubles.

He has been able to reconnect with his biological family members and his culture as an adult. He referred to the Sixties Scoop as an attempt to isolate Aboriginal people, indicating that it took away the brightest in the community.

As an adult, he remains committed to staying connected to his community. He is actively involved with initiatives like Idle No More, which encourage others to speak up to make positive changes in indigenous communities.

Now I'm able to speak to many different peoples and circles, you know because of...

Making the best of a bad experience, I guess, and growing from it. It's like well no, actually you didn't break me down. I overcame it even better.

Tunerk’s Story

Tunerk identified as First Nation and was in his late forties at the time of the interview. Both Tunerk and his older biological brother were removed from their biological mother’s care by child protective services after she had been caught drinking. Following his biological mother’s murder and his biological father’s drowning, Tunerk was adopted at a very young age to a White couple living in Northern Canada. Regarding his adoption, he explained, “First of all
you have to understand that I'm transgender. And so I was raised as female. So, I was adopted because my adopted parents wanted a little girl.”

He grew up in a town that was divided by race. So, racism became very apparent to him at early age. As an Aboriginal adoptee, Tunerk also received differential treatment from his adoptive parents unlike his adoptive siblings because he was Aboriginal. He was excluded from family events and often compared to other Aboriginal children in the town attached to his community, where a lot of his biological cousins lived.

When his adoptive mother “wanted a break” or when his two older adoptive brothers had hockey tournaments in different communities, Tunerk was temporarily sent to a foster home. While at the foster home, he disclosed that another teenage foster child residing there sexually abused him. “He got every kid that was younger than him,”

The foster parent at this home dismissed Tunerk’s claims of sexual assault. “And we tried to explain to [foster mom] that you know he was hurting us. And she said nothing like that ever happened under her roof and she denied it.”

Tunerk realized at an early age that he had “no safe places.” He could not go to his adoptive mom and confide in her about what was happening at the foster home because he knew that she would blame him. Both of his adoptive parents were abusive and heavy drinkers. “I was abused badly. My backside was often black, blue, and red.”

He recognized that was a lot of baggage for him to carry at such a young age.

He struggled to fit in at school due to his gender. “And the kids in my community didn't know where to put me”. As a result of this, Tunerk was bullied at school.

Just before his fourteenth birthday, Tunerk acknowledged that he needed to make a change in his life or else he would not make it. So, he decided to run away from home. A couple
of days after he ran away, he was picked up by a social worker and was taken to a youth centre. He lived there for about a year and then moved into a foster home up until his nineteenth birthday.

After this, Tunerk moved in with a social worker for a year when he was nineteen years old since he was no longer a child in care. The social worker encouraged him to complete high school and to pursue post-secondary education. Tunerk was accepted and enrolled in Simon Fraser University but left his studies after a year. He decided to travel across Canada after this using his student VIA rail pass. He lived in Calgary for a bit where he assisted a friend with a youth in care conference, and then travelled further East to Regina.

And like I realized that I had to do something you know I just couldn't go back home.

And you know... and not doing anything...So, I kind of woke up in front of the military recruiting centre - The Canadian Armed Forces recruiting centre and [inaudible] You know... I can do this…

Although he wanted to be a tank driver, he was placed in communications due to his writing skills and also because he wore glasses. During military training, Tunerk revealed that he was sexually assaulted:

I ended up being sexually assaulted. I.... I was raped by this other guy (a private who had his stripe) and got pregnant because of it, and miscarried almost immediately. Actually, I didn't even know that I was pregnant until I miscarried...and you know, I had to have a medical procedure to clean that up.

Being transgender and Aboriginal in the military was not easy for Tunerk. He described his difficulties serving and assisting with the Oka crisis in Montreal, which involved a land dispute between the local Mohawk community regarding the expansion of golf course. He
experienced a lot of racism and homophobia during this time and eventually resulted in his decision to leave the military altogether.

After the military, Tunerk went back to Northern Canada where he became a teacher and taught for ten years. He left this position due to his mental health. He was eventually diagnosed with PTSD four years ago, which his psychiatrist and counselor were able to pinpoint to his experiences in military training and his childhood upbringing. “But that's - so I took a break from teaching and doing stuff about ten years because of the situation growing up, and the military, and you know the rape and stuff and yeah so…”

He remains a source of hope and lends his support to other family members coming out as gay or bisexual. “I now have family members who are, you know, coming up to me or...actually on Facebook a lot of time...who are coming out to me and saying you know what do I think I'm gay...what do you do...?”

Tunerk currently lives in Western Canada just ten minutes away from his older biological brother. He has gone back to school and is pursuing his passion of writing.

**Migiziins’ Story**

Migiziins was in his early thirties at the time of the interview. When first asked about what his experiences of being adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop have been, he replied, “It’s just kind of growing up.” Since he was adopted as a baby, he struggled with how to best answer this question because that was all he knew. “I got adopted into a White family.”

Both of his adoptive parents worked with Aboriginal people. His adoptive father worked with the provincial government with treaties. Migiziins’s adoptive mother worked with child and family services mainly on the reserve.

Migiziins older adoptive brother is also Aboriginal, but was adopted from another family.
He noted that his brother had fetal alcohol syndrome. Growing up, his adoptive brother was involved in gangs, drugs, and had spent some time in jail. “My mom couldn’t control him. He was beating my mom regularly.” His adoptive brother was also abusive towards him. As a result of this, his brother was sent to a group home.

Migiziins stated that his upbringing “was not the worst but also not the greatest.” His adopted father had left his family when he ten years old and his relationship with him as been strained ever since.

Growing up, Migiziins struggled a lot with who he was “culture wise”. He admitted that he did not actually know what his ethnicity or parentage was but identified as Métis.

“There’s no proof, no record, no evidence. I don't know who my parents are and there wasn't enough information to even find them. My mom said she might know the reverend that might know them.”

At times, fitting in as an Aboriginal was difficult for Migiziins. Aboriginals would not really accept him as a “half breed” and White people would not accept him as an Aboriginal. Since his adoptive brother was full Aboriginal, Migiziins noted that he was liked.

Migiziins became emotional as he discussed his experiences with racism and the impact it had on him when he was growing up. He also recalled his experiences with racism in the military and stereotypes directed at Aboriginals. Regarding this he explained, “Dirty Indian, stuff like that. There's...one guy from Barrie that I won't but... Not very offensive, but luckily I was in a different infantry at the time and so we didn't, never saw each other.”

As he discussed his experiences in the military, he spoke about the trauma he faced while deployed in Afghanistan, which included a blast that killed his boss and threw him under a vehicle. Migiziins has been diagnosed with PTSD and a traumatic brain injury as a result of this
Migiziins was released from the military in 2014. He noted that his adjustment to civilian life has been difficult and that he was briefly homeless living in his vehicle for six months. During this time, he struggled with his confidence, alcoholism, his weight, and financial burdens. His relationship with his adoptive brother and father remains strained.

Despite this, Migiziins articulated a willingness to do things on his own and not depend on his mother or anyone else to support him. He is sober and remains hopeful that he will be able to overcome his adversities and make a successful transition to civilian life.

**Giniw’s Story**

Giniw identified as Ojibwe and was in his early fifties at the time of the interview. He started the interview with his memories of the period before his adoption. He mentioned that he had been removed from his biological parents care because they had been addicted to drugs and alcohol.

I remember, the last thing that I don't have any real family members. I remember, we had hidden in the attic and we were hiding under the insulation because the police were coming to get us. And we were being pulled out from under the insulation by the police.

So, and that's really the only memories I have before we were taken away.

Giniw and his younger sister were then taken to a farm somewhere in Southern Ontario, which was an emergency home. Shortly after this, they were both adopted to a White couple in 1967. He was five years old at the time.

He was raised in a well-kept middle class neighbourhood in the Greater Toronto Area. “They were a rather well to do family, they lived in a neighbourhood that had like two cars, two dogs, you know...two kids.”
Growing up, Giniw always found himself in trouble. He struggled academically and had to repeat grade five. So every time there was a report card, he was disciplined. The strap was used quite regularly in his household. Giniw started to run away from home at the age of six as a way to avoid punishment. “I went down, hiked down the big hill behind our house. And I hiked up a ravine and through a creek and I lived in the mall for three days under a popcorn stand where I was hiding out there.” He chuckled, as he relayed the story because it took three days for the police to find him hiding under a popcorn stand.

At the age of fourteen, Giniw’s adoptive parents had arranged for him to live with a fellow at church who had agreed to take legal guardianship of him. This was a negative experience for him, as he stated that his guardian started to get into trouble. He lived in fear for two years while living with the man from his church, sleeping at night with his mattress up against the door and with a knife under his pillow. By the time he was sixteen, he had enough and decided to leave this home.

As a result, he became homeless and lived on the streets of Toronto. Giniw did everything he could to survive on his own and make it through this difficult period in his life. “I've eaten out of dumpsters. I've robbed people for money. Did second story work. Breaking into people's houses. Driven stolen cars across the border for cash. You know, just things that you got to do to live on the streets...”

At the age of eighteen he decided to join the military as a way to support his family and avoid incarceration. He enjoyed the first four years of the military when he was in the infantry. However, this changed once he punctured both cartilages in his knees. He was informed that he could no longer continue in the infantry because it was too physical. He commented sarcastically, “So, re-mustered to cook so I could stay on my feet all day on cement floors with
my busted up knees.” He was a cook for ten years in the military. This position was physically demanding for him especially with his injuries.

It was not until his sister got into an argument with his adoptive mother that the truth about his ethnicity was revealed. In the heat of the moment, this is when his adoptive mother told his sister that she was “nothing but a dirty Indian anyway.” Giniw found out the truth about his Aboriginal heritage in 1990, while he was serving in the military.

Both Giniw and his sister were surprised by the revelation and they did not how to react at the time. They soon found out they had a whole different family. Giniw was ecstatic to meet his older and younger brother through this disclosure of truth.

Regarding this experience, he stated, “…. I met my, my oldest brother that was still living. He passed away last year. And it was only two years ago that I met my youngest brother. And he was only a baby when we were adopted…”

As he looked back upon his adoption experience, Giniw acknowledged that the experience had made him into a tougher person. “Well, I learned not to trust people. I learned how to be independent. I learned how to run. I learned how to take care of myself. I learned that I didn't need other people to take care of me.”

4.4. Expressed Health Needs

The participants in this study expressed specific mental health needs relating to mental health care and support to fight substance abuse.

Six participants articulated a need for mental health resources, such as counseling and community based health resources. Animkii, Miigwaans, Amaqiuaq, and Tunerk described adverse impacts on their mental/emotional health as a result of their upbringing. Animkii and
Migizins recalled previous suicide attempts in their past. Migizins, Giniw, and Tunerk, have been diagnosed with PTSD. Giniw has also been diagnosed with MDD.

Five participants (Migizins, Animkii, Miigwaans, Amaqjuaq, and Akrittok) spoke about their struggles with substance abuse, mainly alcohol abuse. Three of these participants (Migizins, Miigwaans, Akrittok) stated that they had developed their addiction to alcohol while serving in the military. Amaqjuaq and Animkii indicated that they used their addictions as a way to help them deal with their problems and loss in their lives. Akrittok relayed a need for an inpatient alcohol rehabilitation centre with an Aboriginal focus to address this health need. Four out of five participants are now recovered from their addictions.

**How the participants are addressing their health needs.**

Tunerk, Migizins, and Giniw are receiving assistance through VAC for their health needs. Miigwaans uses mental health resources available at his place of employment (i.e. counseling and psychodramatic bodywork). Both Miigwaans and Amaqjuaq use traditional Aboriginal healing methods to address their health needs such as: sweat lodge, cedar baths, and bear grease. Animkii and Niigaani are currently not receiving any assistance for their health needs. Akrittok is currently at an inpatient treatment centre for his addiction to alcohol.

**4.5 Overarching Themes**

Three major themes were uncovered from the participants’ stories: a) sense of belonging, b) racism: experienced and perceived, and c) resilience: not giving up in the face of adversity. The first theme “sense of belonging” represents the participant’s positive feelings of belonging, their struggle/s to fit in, and their individual search to belong in various different contexts in their lives. The second theme “racism: experienced and perceived” discusses the participant’s experiences with racism and/or their awareness of the history and/or presence of racism towards
Canadian Aboriginal peoples. The third theme “resilience: not giving up in the face of adversity” describes the participants’ emphasis of their ability to survive on their own, overcome personal struggles, and adapt to change.

**Theme One: Sense of Belonging**

Positive feelings of belonging were expressed in four of the participants’ narratives as they discussed their belonging in the military, society, home, culture, and their biological family. Both Niigaani and Amanqjuaq took pride in the fact that they “fit in” and were “a part of” the military.

Amanqjuaq discussed how he was motivated to join the military, as a way of, “being something, part of something...better, bigger.” He wanted to join the marines in particular because it offered him an opportunity to do better as a minority. While serving in the military, he learned that the group was more important than the individual. He described how happy he was to be a part of group in the military in times of combat and how he has come to also learn that he belonged everywhere:

> It was strange how it dawned on me but I was, you know, after so long but I was so happy to be part of the group [inaudible] in that environment and stuff that... And we, we overcame that it was...you know, the whole thing about the Sixties Scoop is... They just made some of these, these things up, you don't belong here type of thing. Like well no, I belong everywhere. Look how great of a people we are; we can go anywhere.

Many of the participants relayed their difficulties fitting in as Aboriginal people adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop and their search to belong as individuals at home, school, their community and in society. Both Tunerk and Animkii used the analogy of “worlds” to describe their sense of belonging in the “White” and the “Aboriginal/Native” worlds. Animkii
spoke about how his experiences in foster care alienated him from the Aboriginal and the white world:

You're not an Indian, you're not, you're not in the White world, you know the acceptance there. You are not accepted by your own people. You're basically, you're all alone. It's like what foster care did to me, it put me in my own little world where you're not native. You're native but you're not native looking by your native people cuz you grew up in their world.

According to Tunerk, Aboriginal adoptees adopted during the Sixties Scoop “straddle” both the “White” and “Aboriginal” world, which he expressed as the following:

We straddled the Aboriginal world. We straddled the White world. So there is...you know, that area where we sit and stand and in that world like until we find another person like us we struggle with where do we belong. And we question that like daily, you know. And I walk very comfortable in both worlds. But in my home I'm very First Nations, you know...we make coloured jokes. But we joke around the same way.

Several participants also described their struggles fitting in amongst other Aboriginal people, peers, in their adoptive and/or foster homes, in the military, and school. Miigwaans, Tunerk, and Giniw said that they were treated differently by their adoptive and/or their foster parents and this made them feel different and inhibited their ability to fit in growing up. Tunerk also expressed difficulties fitting in at school as a result of a “gender barrier” because he was a transgender individual. In the military, Tunerk was also subject to both racism and homophobia, which also negatively influenced his sense of belonging. Niigaani and Migiziins both stated that as Aboriginal individuals they had experienced difficulties fitting in due to racism amongst peers and in the military.
Theme Two: Racism: Experienced and Perceived

Racism became very apparent to the participants at an early age. Five participants discussed direct personal experiences with racism. Four participants spoke about their awareness of racism, discrimination, and colonization of Aboriginal peoples in Canada, such as the impact of residential schools and the Sixties Scoop. Amaqjuaq’s biological grandparents were residential school survivors. Akrittok’s adoptive parents are also residential school survivors. Tunerk’s three older biological siblings were also sent to residential schools. None of the participants in this study had attended residential schools.

Akrittok made mention of his awareness of the residential school system in Canada, and how it impacted Aboriginals: “… Looking back in history what happened with the residential schools what they tried to do was make them non-native…Stripped them of everything. All their rights, their beliefs…But it didn’t work I guess….It just made things worse.”

Amanqjuaq spoke about how colonization was used to disrupt the interconnectedness of Aboriginal communities and groups:

…One of the first things they did was, you know, outlaw our way of life basically when they said no men are head of household. Well like no, our societal…whole societal structure is it’s grandmother led. Spreads out in circles. Interlocking circles and balance and woven in. You know the grandmothers and the clan system, the grandmas and the families, the grandmas from the different village…they all kind of kept things woven in together, even you meet different families in the same clan. You’re still together, you know.

Migizins emotionally recounted a situation in which he was socially excluded at a party because he was Aboriginal:

I remember getting kicked out of a party once because they thought I was going to
steal… Steal stuff, which was a White guys party, so I was like…And the guy later apologized to me years down the road so…Yeah, leaves an impact on you.

With regards to racism in the military, three participants described incidents in the military where they had personally experienced racism from peers and those higher in rank. As the interview progressed, Migiziins described his difficulty in breaking free from racial stereotypes while serving in the military.

Yeah, that’s, that my whole thing with the military too though. It’s I’ll be like, but then they’ll always say just make sure Migiziins doesn’t get into that alcohol.

In 1990, the military was deployed to assist with the Oka crisis, which involved a land dispute between the local Mohawk community and the town of Oka in Quebec. Tunerk recalled the situation:

…They got really tense. And the Mohawks got the warriors out. And they put a roadblock up. And police were called out, the SQ, the Sûreté du Quebec. And there was a shooting that happened and a member of the police force was shot. And they tried to blame it on the Mohawks but the guy was shot in the back right…He was shot by his own guys.

Deployed to assist with the Oka crisis, Tunerk explained the struggles he faced: “And there was a lot of racism thrown my way and there was also during basic training there was a lot of homophobia thrown your way." So it was like [inaudible], it was really tense situation.”

During this time, Tunerk faced both racism and homophobia as a transgender Aboriginal individual in the military: “Being in the military, being queer. Being queer and umm then being native with all this you know Oka thing happening… I ended getting out of the military.”
The participants discussed the overall impact of racism (experienced and perceived) in their lives. Migiziins, Niigaani, Tunerk, Miigwaans, and Giniw remembered events in which they had personally experienced racism. These incidents included: derogatory racial slurs and stereotypes, social exclusion, physical abuse, bullying, and differential treatment in their adoptive and/or foster homes. Tunerk, Amanjquaq, Animkii, and Akrittok relayed their perceptions of racism, colonization, and discrimination towards Aboriginal peoples in Canada. According to Amanjquaq, the Indian Act was in “direct contrast” to the Aboriginal way of life as it was used to “minimize” and “take away” the brightest in the Aboriginal community. Tunerk, Animkii, Akrittok, and Amanjquaq described how the removal of Aboriginal people from their families and communities and forced attendance to residential schools and/or the Sixties Scoop served as a form of discrimination and had long lasting negative effects on all Aboriginal individuals. Akrittok also acknowledged the unique nature of his adoption to an Aboriginal couple, since Aboriginals were generally not permitted to adopt other Aboriginal children during that time.

**Theme Three: Resilience – Not giving up in the face of adversity**

Some of the participants took pride in their independence and learned survival skills. Others stated that it was the personal circumstances such as childhood abuse, which had forced them to learn and assume these skills in order to cope. The participants discussed adversities in their lives such as: abuse (i.e. physical, mental, verbal, and sexual), substance abuse, and childhood and/or military trauma in which they did their best to persevere in light of these difficulties.

At the age of thirteen, Animkii returned home from foster care to his reserve but was kicked out a year later. He talked about his ability to survive on his own at such a young age: “I
was kicked out and I joined the railway after that. Finished high school on my own. And I joined the railway. And I have been on my own, I've been on my own...”

After leaving the military, Tunerk went back to school and got a degree in education. He taught for ten years but eventually had to leave due to mental health reasons:

And I continued to teach for another couple of years. I actually went home to my home community and taught there for a year I did college upgrading at the college there in the community. And by that, at the end of that I was not doing well at all. So, I ended up taking a break from work, and... But I did manage to do a lot of work anyhow....

Niigaani spoke about his initial attempts to join the military in 1988:

So yeah, in January of 1988, I went to the recruitment office here in [location not disclosed] and I told them what my plan was and they told me to get out. And I remember walking out, and on my way home I was taking the bus I was really upset with myself…

Niigaani then described how he went back the next day:

...And it took half a day. I left a couple of times. I got lunch...I remember going and eating a gourmet hot dog, if there's such a thing right across from the recruiting office. I went over there. There were a couple of guys from the recruiting centre eating there as well. And I was talking to them, I said I'm just waiting and they looked at me right. I went back in finally they spoke to me and the application started then...

All of the participants’ stories displayed accounts in which they used their personal strength to help them deal and overcome situations that were not always ideal in their lives. Animkii, Akrittok, Amanqjuaq, Migiziins, and Miigwaans noted that they had overcome substance abuse at some point in their lives. Giniw, Tunerk, and Animkii ran away from home in
search of a better life at a young age and had learned to make it on their own as best they could given their circumstances. Giniw, Tunerk, Amanqjuaq, Migiziins, and Akrittok had struggled with homelessness and now have now found a place to call home. The participants shared with me not only their adversities, but also their stories of strength and their willingness to not give up in the face of adversity.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter included a brief overview of the participant demographic information. Brief life stories of each participant were also included. Three out of eight participants described their upbringing as positive, whereas the other participants stated that their experiences as mainly negative due to abuse and neglect they had endured growing up. Data analysis uncovered three overarching themes: sense of belonging, racism: experienced and perceived, and resilience: not giving up in the face of adversity.
Chapter 5: Discussion, Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the research findings obtained from the individual and collective stories of the eight participants involved in this study. The research questions are answered through further analysis of the overarching study themes and existing literature available on this topic. The strengths and limitations of this study, implications for future research in this area, and conclusions of this study are also presented in this chapter.

5.2 How has the experience of being adopted and/or fostered during the “Sixties Scoop” impacted the lives of Canadian Aboriginal Veterans?

As the participants discussed their life experiences, they focused on how it had impacted their sense of belonging in different contexts of their lives. In this study, the theme “sense of belonging” served as a major focus in their narratives and encompassed both positive and negative aspects of their stories.

According to Hagerty, Lynch-Sauer, Patusky, Bouwesma, and Collier (1992), sense of belonging can be categorized using two key criteria: “(1) valued involvement: the experience of feeling valued, needed, accepted; and (2) fit: the person’s perception that his or her characteristics articulate with or complement the system or environment” (p. 173). As a basic human need, it is not surprising that all of the participants chose to reflect upon their sense of belonging throughout their lives (Maslow, 1943). Aware of their unique upbringing, transracial adoption and foster care placements during the Sixties Scoop, the participants mainly spoke about their struggles to belong, their individual search to belong, and their positive feelings of
belonging, in their adopted/foster homes, school, the military, society, and amongst other Aboriginal people.

According to the transracial adoption literature, transracial adoptees are more likely to be confused about their identity and to have a “weaker ethnic identity” compared to those with same-race adoptions (Boivin & Hassan, 2015, p. 1085). Bagley, Young, and Scully (1993) indicate that “identity conflicts” may play a role in the poor adjustment of Aboriginal transracial adoptees (p. 226). They believe that these conflicts may occur with Aboriginal adoptees that perceive themselves as Caucasian and experience racism and stereotypes as an Aboriginal (Bagley, Young, & Scully, 1993). For the participants in this study, this did not appear to be the case as most (except for Giniw) were aware of their Aboriginal heritage early on in their lives. None of the participants in this study discussed confusion regarding their Aboriginal ethnicity in their narratives.

Rather, the majority of the participants (Animkii, Niigaani, Tunerk, Miigwaans, Migizins, and Amaqjuaq) expressed their difficulties integrating in their adopted/foster families and in society in general due to their bicultural identities as Aboriginal individuals adopted and/or fostered transracially into White homes. Very little literature is available examining how transracial adoptees perceive and integrate their bicultural identities (Manzi, Ferrari, Rosnati, & Bennet-Martinez, 2014). Although the participants in this study had identified culturally with their White adoptive/foster families and communities, they felt that they could not fit in because they were visibly racially different as Aboriginal individuals. They also struggled to belong amongst other non-adopted/fostered Aboriginal people due to their lack of cultural knowledge having been raised and socialized in a non-Aboriginal home/s. At the core of the participants’
struggles to fit in these groups were negative experiences related to their racial identity such as racism and a lack of understanding of the Aboriginal culture.

As indicated by social identity theory, “a social identity is a person’s knowledge that he or she belongs to a social category or group” (Stets & Burke, 2000, p. 225). The process of developing a social identity involves “self categorizations” and “self comparisons” made by an individual regarding their perceived similarities with other members of the same in-group and differences with out-group members (Stets & Burke, 2000, p. 225). For the participants in this study, the process of developing a social identity involved several factors related to their sense of belonging in social groups/categories, their bicultural identities, and their transracial adoption/foster care experiences. Although their sense of belonging in their ethnic group was something that they had attained automatically at birth, environmental/situational factors as well as broader processes of inclusion and exclusion relating to their familial/cultural upbringing also had an impact on how they or others perceived their belonging to their ethnic group (Manzi, Ferrari, Rosnati, & Bennet-Martinez, 2014). Despite sharing cultural identity and norms with their adoptive/foster families, they were still regarded as out-group members by their adoptive/foster families and/or other White people due to their racial and ethnic identity as Aboriginals.

Studies on Aboriginal transracial adoptees have shown similar findings to the results obtained in this study relating to the lack of a sense of belonging of Aboriginal transracial adoptees among White and Aboriginal racial groups (Arsenault, 2006; Nuttgens, 2004; Sinclair, 2007; Sindelar, 2004; Peterson, 2002, Westermeyer, 1977). Peterson’s (2002) doctoral dissertation used phenomenology to explore the experiences of 12 Native American and Canadian Aboriginal transracial adoptees through structured individual interviews. This study
focused on aspects related to the participants development and expression of their ethnic identity. The participants in Peterson’s (2002) study discussed their bicultural experiences as transracial adoptees and the adverse impact on their sense of belonging. Peterson (2002) states:

One of the main struggles emerging from transracial adoption resulted from a sense of belonging to either the Indian or non-Indian world. They described a perpetual sense of being caught in a position between two worlds having not been fully accepted by either their culture of origin or the culture represented by their adoptive families (p. 85).

In this study, both Tunerk and Animkii used the analogy of worlds to describe their position as Aboriginal transracial adoptees. Unable to fully gain acceptance and belonging in the “White” and/or “Aboriginal/native” world, they attributed their lack of belonging in these groups to their negative transracial adoption and foster care experiences and racism.

The participants spoke about racism either directly through their experiences and/or indirectly through their awareness of its presence in their lives and the lives of all Aboriginal people. Racism was a common experience in their narratives, even among the three participants who had indicated their adoptive experience was positive (Niigaani, Migiziins, and Akrittok). As they told their stories, many participants recalled experiences of “relational racism.” Reading (2013) states that, relational racism, “occurs when a person experiences discriminatory behaviour from people he/she encounters in his/her daily life” (p.4). This is the most obvious form of racism and for many of the participants; it was also considered as the most damaging to their sense of belonging. The experiences of the participants in this study with racism appeared to be in line with much of the literature conducted in the area of Aboriginal transracial adoption (Arsenault, 2006; Carriere, 2005; Sinclair, 2007; Sindelar, 2004; Nuttgens, 2004; Peterson, 2002).
Three participants, Migiziins, Miigwaans, and Giniw, noted their personal experiences with racial stereotypes. Migiziins emotionally recalled experiences in his past where he was subject to racial stereotypes directed towards Aboriginal relating to crime and alcoholism. In the military, he stated that some people were not accepting of his Aboriginal heritage, since he sometimes was called a “dirty Indian”. Miigwaans was also referred to as a “dirty Indian” by his adoptive parents whenever they wanted him to do something for them. Giniw discovered the truth about his ethnicity as an adult when his adoptive mother told his biological sister that she was nothing but a “dirty Indian anyway”. Previous to this, he was raised to believe that Aboriginals were nothing but “drunken scum.” For these participants, racial stereotypes and associated derogatory racial slurs were not just words, they were negative labels that they sometimes felt that they could not break free from no matter how hard they had tried. They were also a reminder of their racial differences as Aboriginals and negative representations of their ethnic group in society.

In addition to his experiences with racism, Tunerk experienced homophobia as a transgendered individual. According to Taylor (2009), Aboriginals that identify as transgender may experience more threats to their health due to compounding influences of both racism and “transphobia” (p.63). Taylor (2009) defines transphobia as the negative perceptions of individuals who do not conform to accepted definitions of gender roles, such as female (feminine traits) and male (masculine traits). Raised as female, Tunerk expressed that he did not fit into his adoptive parent’s gender expectations and also struggled to fit in at school and the military as a transgender individual. Tunerk’s experiences with homophobia are not unique as the literature displays that transgender individuals may experience hostility as a result of their identity (Taylor, 2009). From his narrative, it is clear that Tunerk’s identity as an Aboriginal, transgender
individual, and transracial adoptee were central to his struggles to belong when he was growing up and during his service in the military.

It should be noted that four participants (Amanqjuaq, Giniwi, Niigaani, and Akrittok) also provided examples and/or stories where they felt like they “fit in” and were “a part of” something, such as, the military, society, home, culture, and their biological family. These participants portrayed their feelings of belonging in a positive light as they influenced the positive development of their social identity in these social groups/categories.

Akrittok displayed positive feelings of belonging to his adoptive home, adoptive family, and Aboriginal traditional ways of life. Adoption brought not only stability in his life but also a loving home and an understanding of the meaning of home. He was the only participant that was adopted into an Aboriginal home and raised on a reserve. As an Aboriginal, his connection to his home may also be attributed to Aboriginal worldviews which relate the health of an individual to the, “family, community, and the land” (Vukik, Gregory, Misener, & Etowa, 2011, p. 69). Having been raised in a loving Aboriginal household, this likely explains why Akrittok developed Aboriginal worldviews resulting in his relational outlook and his deep connection to his home, family, and community regardless of departure from home.

Although adjusting to the military was initially a struggle for Niigaani, he indicated that he fit in the military “like a square peg in a square hole.” His feelings of belonging were instrumental to success within the military. Once he realized that he needed to be disciplined in order to succeed in the military, Niigaani was able to focus and see a pathway for himself in the military. He knew that with hard work and determination he could succeed in this military.

Amanqjuaq described the importance “being a part of the group.” It was interesting to see his conceptualization of “the group”, as the group represented not only his position in the
military but also in a wider cultural and social framework. His feelings of belonging appeared to be aligned with traditional Aboriginal worldviews. In a traditional Aboriginal worldview, “Sense of belonging as connectedness occurs through the dynamics of relationships between everything in the creation/universe” (Hill, 2006, p. 212). At the core of this worldview is an understanding that everything is related and part of one whole (Absolon, 2010; Vukik, et al., 2011). Amanquaq expressed that he felt like he was a “naturally a part of everything.” His placement in his cultural group and in the military as an Aboriginal and general belonging in society helped him realize that he was not alone in his issues and that he belonged to something bigger and greater than himself.

Giniw displayed feelings of belonging to his biological family, as he was able to reunite with his older biological brother and younger biological brother after being estranged due to his adoption. He was happy to find out the truth of his heritage and biological family. Giniw had many questions as a result of his adoption regarding of where he belonged in society. His questions regarding his birth culture and family are akin to the struggles faced by other transracial adoptees in this regard (Godon, Green, & Ramsey, 2014). According to Godon, Green, and Ramsey (2014) transracial adoptees not only have to deal with questions regarding their birth families, but also experience more uncertainty concerning their racial and cultural identity compared to same-race adoptees. As a result, transracial adoptees may feel more compelled to search for and reunite with their birth families as a way to help them answer critical questions regarding their ethnic identity and/or find individuals who are racially similar to them to aid them in their journey of understanding and developing their ethnic identity (Godon et al., 2014). For Giniw, the revelation of his Aboriginal background and biological family brought him closer to finding out more about who he was and where he came from.
Despite their personal struggles, all the participants’ provided examples of resilience in their stories. I was struck by the resilience of the participants dealing with difficult life circumstances, such as trauma, abuse, homelessness, substance abuse, and racism. According to Kirmayer et al. (2011), resilience is defined as, “the ability to do well despite adversity” (p.84). Although different definitions have been proposed to define resilience, there is a general consensus amongst researchers that in order for resilience to occur the experience of adversity is necessary (Dyer & McGuinness, 1996; Werner, 1994). Very little information is available concerning the topic of resilience amongst Aboriginals adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop. Resiliency in Aboriginal adoptees “is an area that beckons inquiry” (Sinclair, 2007, p. 75). I would add that more research is needed examining the resilience of Aboriginal veterans in general, especially given their military contributions and their possible exposure to traumatic experiences in the military.

Resilience is a “dynamic process” involving the interplay of various different factors (Dyer & McGuinness, 1996, p 277). “Protective factors” are believed to assist individuals in minimizing and/or deterring the harmful influence of adversities (Hooper, 2009, p. 21). Examples of protective factors include: a caring mentor in a child’s life, personality, endurance, and the support one receives socially (Hooper, 2009.

Akrittok, Niigaani, and Migizins mentioned the presence of loving parent/s as helping them navigate through their difficult life experiences. Akrittok’s adoptive parents taught him how to live in both the city and the bush, providing him with survival skills that aided him in his life travels and homelessness. It was clear from Migiziin’s story that he held his adoptive mother near to his heart. His mother remained a central figure in his life and was someone he turned to in the past for help in times of need. Niigaani’s adoptive father served as a positive role model
for him. Through his adoptive father’s volunteer work with the OPP auxiliary, Niigaani was exposed to different career opportunities. This helped him break away from the negative peer influences around him when he was growing up.

Five participants (Akrittok, Miigwaans, Animkii, Tunerk, and Amaqjuaq) noted that they were in foster care at some point in their childhood. For many of these participants, the memory of being moved from home to home was something they had clearly remembered as adults. Through their foster care experiences they had learned to adapt to their new surroundings despite a lack of permanency in their lives during this time. Many of the participants carried this lesson throughout their lives adapting to many different adversities and circumstances in their life.

Animkii, Giniw, and Tunerk had chosen to run away from their adoptive and/or foster homes as teenagers as a way to escape abuse in their homes. The majority of the participants in the secondary analysis had also run away from their adoptive homes as a way to escape poverty and abuse (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press). The theme “running away in search of where to belong” in the secondary analysis described the participants search for belonging (Ray & Abdulwasi, in press).

Animkii spoke about how he survived on his own at fourteen years of age by joining the Canadian railway and finishing high school. His ability to survive on his own without a social network and a home was quite remarkable given how young he was at the time. Animkii worked for the Canadian Railway for fifteen years after leaving his home. Despite his experiences of being abused (physically and mentally) as a child, he was able to overcome various odds and move forward accomplishing a high school degree and a career in the railway all on his own.

Giniw started running away from his adopted home at the age of six. As a child, he had learned how to “live quite comfortably in the bush” as a way to avoid punishment. At the age of
sixteen, he ran away from the care of a guardian. Once again, he found himself in a situation where he had to survive on his own and had nowhere to go for help. Giniw was homeless for two years on the streets of Toronto. He did everything he could to survive on his own and had learned how to take care of himself. He was able to overcome homelessness at eighteen years of age and move forward with his life despite the adversities he had endured as a child and on the streets.

Tunerk made the decision to run away from his abusive adopted home at the age of fourteen. He spent the following years in a youth centre and a group home until he was nineteen years old. Tunerk succeeded in graduating high school, briefly attended university after this, and joined the military. In the military he experienced sexual assault (rape), homophobia, and racism. Despite his traumatic experiences, he returned back to his community and completed a degree in education. Overcoming great odds, Tunerk then went on to teach in his community for ten years. His strength and determination to keep going against all odds was clearly visible in his narrative.

Amaqjuaq, Akrittok, and Migiziins had also experienced homelessness at some point in their lives and have been able to survive on their own and overcome homelessness. Akrittok described his travels, which also included his experiences at emergency shelters while he was homeless. Upon returning home from the military, the youngest participant, Migiziins, recently faced homelessness in January of 2014. Amaqjuaq briefly mentioned being homeless as an adult. These participants have been able to survive homelessness and now have a place to call home.

According to Dyer and McGuinnnes (1996), resilience results in the “toughening effect, a sense of having overcome one situation so that active mastery of other situations is possible” (p. 277). The ability to take control and overcome adverse situations was evident in all of the participants’ stories. Growing up, Miigwaans described how his adoptive brother continuously
bullied him and how he learned to “toughen up” on this as a result. Animkii remembered the time he was thrown into a lake and forced to learn how to swim by paddling like a dog. He was grateful knowing that he was able to swim successfully and avoid drowning. The skill to swim had saved him a couple of times after this incident from drowning. Five participants (Migizins, Animkii, Miigwaans, Amaqjaq, and Akrittok) also revealed their struggles with substance abuse, mainly alcohol abuse and how they worked to overcome their addictions. Many of the participants were also able to overcome and survive abuse (i.e. physical, mental, verbal, and sexual) as children and as adults.

5.4 Health Needs

Compared to the Aboriginal health literature which indicates chronic health conditions, such as obesity, heart disease, arthritis, and type 2 diabetes as primary causes of death of Canadian Aboriginals (Barton, 2008; Joseph et al., 2012; Short, Mushquash, & Bedard, 2014; Waldram, Herring, & Young, 2007; Wilson & Cardwell, 2012; Thurston et al., 2014; Young, 2012), the health needs expressed by the participants in this study differ in that they focused mainly on mental health issues. Although they are not the leading causes of death amongst Aboriginal populations, mental health is still a significant health concern in many Aboriginal communities across Canada. According to Kirmayer, Tait, and Simpson (2009), a history of colonization, oppression, and cultural suppression has resulted in increased rates of depression, alcoholism, violence, and suicide in many Canadian Aboriginal communities.

The health needs addressed by veterans in this study are also reflective of previous research, which show that military service increases veterans risk of developing PTSD, substance abuse, and depression (Ray & Heaslip, 2011). According to Veterans Affairs Canada,
approximately one-fifth of Canadian veterans have experienced a mental health disorder at some point in their lives (Government of Canada, 2015).

5.3 Implications

**Implications for practice.** The results of this study suggest a need for veteran health services and programs to be tailored with an understanding of the historical realities of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop. Like the residential school period, the Sixties Scoop is a “historically situated phenomenon” and one that is directly influenced by the Indian Act (Menzies, 2006; Smith, Varcoe, & Edwards, 2005, p. 40). It is important that health program service providers are knowledgeable of the unique experiences of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during this period and the impact this may have on their health and wellbeing as adults.

Although most of the participants in this study noted a preference for Western medical approaches, some mentioned a need for traditional Aboriginal ways of healing. Therefore, a “flexible approach to healing” is critical, and this should include options of both Western ways and/or traditional Aboriginal ways of doing (Vukik, et al., 2011, p. 70).

All CF, Regular, and reserve members are entitled to an interview with a case manager upon their release of the military to help them navigate and plan their transition from the military to civilian life (Veteran Affairs Canada, 2014). VAC case managers work in conjunction with a larger interdisciplinary team comprising of a pension officer, doctors, nurses, mental health and rehabilitation specialists (VAC, 2014). In their contact and practice with these veterans, it is critical that the interdisciplinary health team also include options such as: elders, traditional Aboriginal healers, Aboriginal counselors, Aboriginal social workers, Aboriginal health centres, Aboriginal treatment centres, and other Aboriginal community based health resources. Lesbian,
gay, bisexual, transgender, two-spirit, and queer (LGBTQQ) veterans should be provided with accessible support, services, and/or referrals by their VAC to resources/and health care professionals competent and informed by LGBTQQ veteran issues and health needs. The term two-spirit is used to refer to Aboriginal people who possess “both male and female spirit” and sexual identities (Garrett & Barret 2003, p. 133).

Mental health professionals working with Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop should also adopt a holistic approach in their analysis and care, focusing not only on individual health needs but also on the impact of government policies, “family”, “culture”, the “community” in their health outcomes (Menzies, 2006). This is important since holistic approaches attend to relational Aboriginal worldviews pertaining to health and wellbeing (Vukik et al., 2011). Understanding Aboriginal worldviews is critical to communicating and counseling Aboriginal clients (McCormick, 2009).

According to Jiwa, Kelly, and Pierre-Hansen (2008), “treating the whole community honours the holistic approach of the interrelatedness of individuals and their communities” (p. 1000e4). Community based approaches have been shown to be effective in the treatment of addiction disorders in Aboriginal populations (Jiwa, Kelly, & Pierre-Hansen, 2008). An example of an effective community based addiction treatment involving Aboriginal populations is the “community mobile treatment” model (Jiwa, Kelly, & Pierre-Hansen, 2008, p. 1000e4). Developed in 1984, this treatment approach involves a team of addiction health workers and the local community in the healing process requiring them to develop local solutions to substance abuse issues in their community (Jiwa, Kelly, & Pierre-Hansen, 2008). Further research is needed examining the efficacy of culturally appropriate forms of community based health
approaches, such as the community mobile treatment in the treatment of substance abuse health needs in the study population.

Many of the participants in this study described experiences of childhood abuse and the adverse impact it had on their lives. According to Whelan (2013), “Childhood trauma has been identified as a stable predictor of adult-onset psychological distress, including depression, sexual disturbances, PTSD, substance use disorders, high PTSD symptom severity, and poor treatment outcomes” (p. 182). Mental health assessments of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop should incorporate a “life course perspective” (Elder & Rockwell, 1979, p.1). This perspective includes a developmental analysis of an individual’s lifespan, connecting age to time (“history”) and space (“social structures”) (Elder & Rockwell, 1979, p.1). A life course perspective to mental health enables mental health professionals to explore topics such as childhood abuse, as well as any other contextual and/or developmental factors related to their clients health and wellbeing.

A coordinated effort must be made by the VAC, NAVA, RCL, AVA, as well as Aboriginal agencies and services, emergency shelters, to address the health needs of these veterans, relating to substance use and mental health. A framework for appropriate course of action needs to be developed through the engagement of all these organizations to address the health needs of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop. More research is needed in this area regarding best practices for addressing these issues.

**Implications for future research.** Given the lack of available research regarding the experience of Aboriginal veterans, it is difficult to compare health outcomes of different groups within the Aboriginal veteran community and non-Aboriginal Canadian veterans. More research is needed to examine the health needs of Aboriginal veterans across Canada, those living on
rural/reserve, and in urban settings. The experience of Aboriginal veterans and the resilience of those who have experienced other forms of intergenerational trauma, such as, forced attendance to residential schools also needs to be investigated. There is also a need for further future research to explore the experience of female Aboriginal veterans.

In this study, one participant identified as transgender. This participant noted experiences such as: homophobia, racism, and sexual assault in the military. The perspectives of lesbian, gay, bi-sexual, transgender, two-spirit, and queer Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop are yet to be explored.

This study highlighted two major health needs, mental health care and support to fight substance abuse. Research into different treatment options such as, Aboriginal traditional methods and/or Western biomedical approaches is needed to help determine the efficacy of these treatment options to address these identified health needs.

5.4 Strengths and limitations of this Study

As the first Canadian study examining the experience of the Sixties Scoop amongst Aboriginal veterans and their expressed health needs, a strength of the current study is that it addresses a gap in the current literature regarding this topic and reveals the health needs of this unique population of Canadian veterans. Another strength of this study is that it is includes the experiences of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop from other Canadian provinces (such as Manitoba and British Columbia) and is not only restricted to participants from Ontario. Lastly, the presence and contribution of the elder guiding this study also served as a strength, as the elder was instrumental in ensuring that this study was culturally sound and respectful of Aboriginal worldviews.
According to Absolon (2010), indigenous knowledge “…is lived knowledge, experiential knowledge and enacted knowledge” (p. 81). Despite all the rigour and quality measures that were taken, as a non-Aboriginal researcher, I am limited in my knowledge of the Aboriginal culture, traditions, and beliefs. I stand on the margins as an outsider as I have not lived within the sociocultural contexts and traditional Aboriginal ways of life. I am limited by my lack of lived experience, knowledge, contextual and cultural understanding, as a non-Aboriginal.

As an outsider I have also had to work hard to gain trust from the greater Aboriginal community. I view my position as an outsider as a limitation due to the barriers it presented me especially during the recruitment process, which took nearly half a year to complete. My role as a researcher has also added an additional barrier between some members of the Aboriginal community and myself who viewed this study with skepticism at times. This presented itself as a limitation for me as I had to work extra hard to overcome communication barriers, fear, and skepticism regarding my role and objectives for this study.

My previous experience with research was mainly quantitative and laboratory based. As a novel researcher, I am limited in my practice and knowledge of qualitative research, which may have impacted my interviewing skills, results, and analysis of this study. The entire research process has been a learning process for me. However, through the support of the elder guiding this study, my graduate supervisor/s, and academic committee member, I have been able to build upon my qualitative research skills to ensure that this thesis is representative of the participants’ individual and collective stories.

The majority (n=7) of the participants identified as male and all but two were recruited from Ontario. This study is mainly limited to the experiences of Aboriginal male veterans located mainly in Ontario. This presents a major limitation as the voices of female Aboriginal
veterans and/or those living in other provinces are also not included. This study does not include participants living in rural, reserve, and/or remote areas, since all of the veterans were recruited from major cities in Canada such as Kitchener, Waterloo, London, Ottawa, Winnipeg, and Vancouver.

5.5 Conclusion

This study used critical narrative inquiry to examine the health needs and lived experiences of eight Aboriginal Veterans adopted or fostered during the Sixties Scoop from Kitchener, Waterloo, Ottawa, London, Winnipeg, and Vancouver.

Three themes were uncovered from the participants’ stories: sense of belonging, racism: experienced and perceived, and resilience: not giving up in the face of adversity. The first theme “sense of belonging” represents the participants’ positive feelings of belonging, their search for belonging, and their struggles fitting in throughout their lives. The second theme “racism: experienced and perceived” describes the participants’ personal experiences with racism and/or their awareness and perceptions of racism towards Aboriginal peoples. The third theme “resilience: not giving up in the face of adversity” illustrates how they were able to overcome adversities in their lives.

The participants expressed a need for mental health care and support to fight substance abuse as their main health needs. Research is needed examining Aboriginal, life-course, and holistic approaches in the treatment of mental health issues in this population. Veteran health programs and services should also be inclusive of Aboriginal worldviews and ways of doing.

I will forever remain grateful to the participants who have entrusted me with their stories. They are the keepers of these stories and this study serves as but a vessel to the experiences they have shared with me. I hope that this study will serve as a launching pad for future research
endeavors in this area and the creation of health services and programs tailored to meet the health needs of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop.
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Appendix A: Ethics Approval Notice
Appendix B: List of Organizations that Aided in Recruitment

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<td>North Bay Indian Friendship Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>Anishnabeg Outreach</td>
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<td>Odawa Friendship Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wabano Centre for Aboriginal Health</td>
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<tr>
<td>N’Amerind London Friendship Centre.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Shawenjeagamik Aboriginal Drop-in Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wigwamen Terrace</td>
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<tr>
<td>Na-Me-Res (Adult Men’s Residence)</td>
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# Community Organizations

<table>
<thead>
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<tr>
<td>Charles Street Men’s Hostel</td>
<td>Kitchener</td>
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<tr>
<td>Shepherds of Good Hope</td>
<td>Ottawa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ottawa Booth Centre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unity Project</td>
<td>London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre of Hope (Salvation Army)</td>
<td>London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Shepherd of Hope</td>
<td>Toronto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London CAReS</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salvation Army: Ottawa Booth Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scott’s Mission</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Christopher House: The Meeting Place</td>
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Appendix C: Information Flyer

The “Sixties Scoop” among Aboriginal Veterans

Aboriginal Veterans living in Canada are needed to participate in a study exploring the experience of Aboriginal Veterans adopted or fostered during the Sixties Scoop, in a study conducted by researchers from Western University. We would like to hear about your experience of being adopted and/or fostered during this period (i.e. from 1960 to the late 1980’s) to discuss supports needed to address issues about health, health needs, and health challenges you face as a result of your experience or provide insight into how your experience has shaped your life as a whole. If you agree to participate in this study, an individual interview will be conducted once face-to-face or via Skype for approximately 60 to 90 minutes in the upcoming months. Your input would be very much appreciated and valued!

For more information contact: Munira Abdulwasi at [Redacted]; Email: [Redacted]
Appendix D: Information Poster

Are you an Aboriginal Veteran who was adopted or fostered during the “Sixties Scoop” (i.e. 1960’s, ‘70s, and ‘80s)?

If so, a study conducted by researchers from Western University is being conducted to hear about YOUR experience of being adopted or fostered during this period. We would like to discuss supports needed to address issues about health, health needs, and health challenges you face as a result of your experience to provide greater insight into how your experience has shaped your life as a whole. If you agree to participate in this study, an individual interview will be conducted once face-to-face or via Skype for approximately 60 to 90 minutes in the upcoming months. Your input would be very much appreciated and valued!

For more information please contact: Munira Abdulwasi at (xxx) xxx-xxxx; Or Email: xxxxxxx
## Appendix E: Ethics Approval Notice

**Western Research**

**Research Ethics**

**Use of Human Participants - Ethics Approval Notice**

**Principal Investigator:** Dr. Susan Ray  
**File Number:** [Redacted]  
**Protest Title:** The "Sales Skype" among Aboriginal Veterans: A Critical Narrative Inquiry  
**Department & Institution:** Health Sciences, Western University  
**Spokesperson:** [Redacted]  
**Ethics Approval Date:** March 31, 2014  
**Expiry Date:** June 30, 2014

### Documents Reviewed & Approved & Documents Received for Information:

<table>
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<th>Document Name</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Version Date</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Recruitment Items</strong></td>
<td>Information Poster: This document includes a revised information poster. The revisions now include the additional recruitment sites: Ottawa and North Bay. (March 18/14 amendment)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recruitment Items</strong></td>
<td>Advertisement Poster: This document includes a revised advertisement. The revisions in this advertisement are minimal, but now include the additional recruitment sites: Ottawa and North Bay. (March 18/14 amendment)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other</strong></td>
<td>The following document contains a list of veteran services, aboriginal services, community outreach services, and emergency shelters that have provided verbal (or pending) or agreement for us to advertise at their centers. ANAVETS, community outreach services, emergency shelters, and additional aboriginal services/organizations have been added onto this list. (March 18/14 amendment)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other</strong></td>
<td>Attached are contacts for community services (aboriginal health services, mental health, aboriginal community services) in the North Bay area. (March 18/14 amendment)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Revised Western University Protocol</strong></td>
<td>Attached is the edited protocol form. (Received March 18/14) - Changes to recruitment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instruments</strong></td>
<td>Interview Questions: The following attachment includes revisions to the interview questions as indicated. (March 19/14 amendment)</td>
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This is to notify you that the University of Western Ontario Research Ethics Board for Non-Medical Research involving Human Subjects (NMREB) which is organized and operates according to the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct of Research Involving Humans and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario has granted approval to the above referenced revision(s) or amendment(s) on the approval date noted above.

This approval shall remain valid until the expiry date noted above assuming timely and acceptable responses to the NMREB's periodic requests for surveillance and monitoring information.

Members of the NMREB who are involved in investigations of research studies, or declare a conflict of interest, do not participate in discussions related to, nor vote on, such studies when they are presented to the NMREB.

The Chair of the NMREB is Dr. [Redacted]. The NMREB is registered with the U.S. Department of Health & Human Services under the IRB registration number [Redacted].
Appendix F: Ethics Approval Notice

Principal Investigator: Dr. Susan Ray
File Number: D6497
Review Level (Delegated)
Protocol Title: The "Giboo Scoop" among Aboriginal Veterans: A Critical Narrative Inquiry
Department & Institution: Health Sciences/Nursing, Western University
Sponsor:
Ethics Approval Date: May 12, 2014 Expiry Date: June 30, 2014

Documents Reviewed & Approved & Documents Received for Information:

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<tr>
<td>Letter of Information &amp; Consent</td>
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This is to notify you that The University of Western Ontario Research Ethics Board for Non-Medical Research Involving Human Subjects (NMREB) which is organized and operates according to the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct of Research Involving Humans and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario has granted approval to the above referenced revision(s) or amendment(s) on the approval date noted above.

This approval shall remain valid until the expiry date noted above assuming timely and acceptable responses to the NMREB’s periodic requests for surveillance and monitoring information.

Members of the NMREB who are named as investigators in research studies, or declare a conflict of interest, do not participate in discussions related to, nor vote on, such studies when they are presented to the NMREB.

The Chair of the NMREB is Dr. Riley Hinton. The NMREB is registered with the U.S. Department of Health & Human Services under the IRB registration number IRB00000041.

Signature

[Contact Information]

Western University, Research, Support Services Bldg., Rm. 5650
London, ON, Canada N6A 3K7 1-519-661-3036 1-519-650-2466 www.uwo.ca/research/services/ethics
Appendix G: Ethics Approval Notice
Appendix H: Letter of Information (For Face-to-Face Interviews)

Letter of Information

The “Sixties Scoop” among Aboriginal Veterans

There is currently very little known about CF Aboriginal veterans that have been adopted or fostered out during the Sixties Scoop, despite their historical involvement in the military and the fact that Aboriginals continue to join the military and fight to preserve the rights of Canadians and peace around the world. As a result of this, you are being invited to participate in a research study to help the study investigators fill the current gap in the literature regarding the experience of Aboriginal Veterans adopted or fostered during the Sixties Scoop because you have been identified as an Aboriginal Veteran. We would like to hear about your experience of being adopted and/or fostered during this period to help address issues about health, health needs, and health challenges you face as a result of your experience to provide greater insight into how your experiences have shaped your life as a whole.

Through individual face-to-face in-depth interviews we hope to help further an understanding of the experience of Aboriginal Veterans adopted or fostered during the 1960’s into the late 1980’s, to examine how past and current power structures in society and government policies have impacted you.

The purpose of this study is to facilitate a greater understanding of the issues faced by Aboriginal Veterans adopted and/or fostered during this period. We hope that this study will be able to guide the implementation of services to help address health particular to Aboriginal veterans.

The study is conducted by researchers from the University of Western Ontario. The purpose of this letter is to provide you with information required for you to make an informed decision regarding participation in this research. Please take the time to read this carefully. Feel free to ask questions if anything is unclear or if there are words or phrases that you do not understand. This letter is yours to keep.

Objectives

Our primary objectives are to: Explore and understand the lived experience of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop; 2) Identify health needs expressed by Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop; and 3) Provide recommendations for the implementation of health services and/or programs to assist Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop to address their expressed health needs.

Inclusion Criteria
In order to participate in this study, you must be:

1. An Aboriginal Veteran who has served in the Canadian Forces (CF) regular, and/or reservists, and/or served in Special Duty Areas (SDA’s) and/or an Aboriginal Veteran who is a Canadian citizen who has served in the American Forces.
2. An Aboriginal CF Veteran who was adopted or fostered out during the “Sixties Scoop” to a Non-Aboriginal family during any period/s of their childhood.
3. An Aboriginal CF Veteran living off reserve with no or limited connection to their Aboriginal communities.
4. Able to speak and understand English to the degree necessary to engage in a conversation.
5. Able to read and write in English.
6. Able to give an informed consent related to the research.

**Exclusion Criteria**

1. Canadian Forces Aboriginal members who are currently serving in the military

**Procedure**

If you agree to participate, you will be interviewed and audiotaped individually once face-to-face at a safe location and time of your choice. Each interview is anticipated to last between 60 to 90 minutes. All interviews will be audio recorded. If you do not wish to be audio recorded during the interview process, you should not participate in this study. There will be a total of 8-10 Aboriginal Veterans participants in this study. Demographic information will be collected in the form of a questionnaire. The purpose of the questionnaire is to provide general background information of the participants involved in this study. This information may also be used to help researchers and readers of this study determine who the research findings can be generalized to. You will also be provided with a copy of the letter of intent and a signed consent form, which you will be required to sign in order to participate in this study.

Your initials, phone number, address, full postal code, telephone number, and/or email (if applicable) will be collected by the graduate student researcher with your permission on a piece of paper separate from the Consent form for your input and verification of the study results. This information will also be used to provide you with a copy of the potential study results.

**Compensation**

You will be compensated $20 for your participation in this study. If you attend the interview but choose not to partake in the interview process for any reason you will still be compensated at a pro-rated amount of $10 which you will be provided with immediately at the interview site to help pay for your time and/or related transportation costs. If you decide to partake in the interview process but decide to withdraw once the interview is in progress for any reason, you will still be compensated the full amount of $20. If you complete the interview process, you will be compensated the full amount of $20.

**Risks**
This study presents potential risks to participation. You may be at risk of experiencing emotional distress during and after the interview process as you recall personal experiences. Emotional distress has been described as a potential risk factor for participants in research who have experienced a traumatic experience in their past. Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) may also be a long-term reaction to warzone exposure. You have the option to discontinue your participation in the study at anytime if you experience any pain or discomfort at any time without penalty. At the end of the study, you will be provided with a list containing the contact/s of community resources or referrals to qualified professionals in the community. In the event that you experience any adverse reactions due to your participation in the study, we will do our best to connect you with the appropriate resources and services to help assist you.

**Benefits**

There is no guarantee that you will directly benefit from your participation in this study. You may directly benefit through your participation in this study as you may gain insight in disclosing your experiences of being adopted or fostered during the Sixties Scoop. You may indirectly benefit in knowing that your input may be used to help other Aboriginal veterans with similar life experiences and/or anyone else in the Aboriginal community adopted or fostered during this period. This increase in knowledge about Aboriginal veterans adopted or fostered during the Sixties Scoop and health issues they face may lead to the development of polices and health care services for this population.

**Confidentiality**

Interviews will be recorded using an audiotape and transcribed. All data collected will remain confidential and accessible only by the investigator of this study. However, if we find information we are required by law to disclose, we cannot guarantee confidentiality. The collected hard copy data and recordings will be stored in the following manner: locked in a cabinet in a secure office; audio recordings will be reviewed only by the Graduate student conducting the study and the Graduate student’s supervisor and they will be destroyed after 2 years.

The transcribed data from the interviews will be kept on a password-protected computer with no personal identifying details at the University of Western Ontario. A master list will be used with identifying information and will be kept separately from the data. A unique number will be used to code the data to keep responses confidential. The list of identifiers will be destroyed once data collection is complete. However, transcribed data with no identifying information will be retained for further analysis and will be destroyed within 5 years after completion of the study. The transcribed data will be destroyed within 5 years according to Western University Policy after completion of the study. All of the printed transcriptions and questionnaires will be shredded and recycled/thrown out. Recordings of the interviews will be securely deleted off devices and computers (i.e. computers have an option to securely delete items from the trash bin to ensure that all files have been fully deleted). If the results are published, your name will not be used. If you choose to withdraw from this study, your data will be removed and destroyed from our database. Representatives of The University of Western Ontario Health Sciences Research
Ethics Board may contact you or require access to your study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research.

**Voluntary Participation**

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions or withdraw from the study at any time with no effect on your future care. It will not involve any additional costs to you. You do not waive any legal rights by signing the consent form. If you are participating in another study at this time, please inform us right away to determine if it is appropriate for you to participate in our research.

If you require any further information regarding this research study or your participation in the study you may direct them to the Graduate student or the Graduate student Supervisor below responsible for this study:

Munira Abdulwasi  
Masters of Science, Health Promotion Graduate student  
University of Western Ontario,  
1151 Richmond Street  
London, N6A 3K7  
Email: [protected]

OR:

Susan L. Ray RN PhD, Principle Investigator  
Associate Professor in Nursing at University of Western Ontario  
Associate Scientist – Lawson Health Research Institute  
The University of Western Ontario, Health Sciences Addition- #32  
1151 Richmond Street  
Tel: [protected]  ext. [protected]  Fax: [protected]

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or the conduct of the study you may contact: The Office of Research Ethics at (519) 661-3036 or by email at ethics@uwo.ca
Appendix I: Letter of Information (For Skype Interviews)

Letter of Information

The “Sixties Scoop” among Aboriginal Veterans

There is currently very little known about CF Aboriginal veterans that have been adopted or fostered out during the Sixties Scoop, despite their historical involvement in the military and the fact that Aboriginals continue to join the military and fight to preserve the rights of Canadians and peace around the world. As a result of this, you are being invited to participate in a research study to help the study investigators fill the current gap in the literature regarding the experience of Aboriginal Veterans adopted or fostered during the Sixties Scoop because you have been identified as an Aboriginal Veteran. We would like to hear about your experience of being adopted and/or fostered during this period to help address issues about health, health needs, and health challenges you face as a result of your experience to provide greater insight into how your experiences have shaped your life as a whole.

Through individual Skype in-depth interviews we hope to help further an understanding of the experience of Aboriginal Veterans adopted or fostered during the 1960’s into the late 1980’s, to examine how past and current power structures in society and government policies have impacted you.

The purpose of this study is to facilitate a greater understanding of the issues faced by Aboriginal Veterans adopted and/or fostered during this period. We hope that this study will be able to guide the implementation of services to help address health particular to Aboriginal veterans.

The study is conducted by researchers from the University of Western Ontario. The purpose of this letter is to provide you with information required for you to make an informed decision regarding participation in this research. Please take the time to read this carefully. Feel free to ask questions if anything is unclear or if there are words or phrases that you do not understand. This letter is yours to keep.

Objectives

Our primary objectives are to: Explore and understand the lived experience of Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop; 2) Identify health needs expressed by Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop; and 3) Provide recommendations for the implementation of health services and/or programs to assist Aboriginal veterans adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop to address their expressed health needs.

Inclusion Criteria
In order to participate in this study, you must be:

1. An Aboriginal Veteran who has served in the Canadian Forces (CF) regular, and/or reservists, and/or served in Special Duty Areas (SDA’s) and/or an Aboriginal Veteran who is a Canadian citizen who has served in the American Forces.
2. An Aboriginal CF Veteran who was adopted or fostered out during the “Sixties Scoop” to a Non-Aboriginal family during any period/s of their childhood.
3. An Aboriginal CF Veteran living off reserve with no or limited connection to their Aboriginal communities.
4. Able to speak and understand English to the degree necessary to engage in a conversation.
5. Able to read and write in English.
6. Able to give an informed consent related to the research.

Exclusion Criteria

1. Canadian Forces Aboriginal members who are currently serving in the military

Procedure

If you agree to participate, you will be interviewed and audiotaped individually once via Skype at a safe location and time of your choice. Each interview is anticipated to last between 60 to 90 minutes. All interviews will be audio recorded. If you do not wish to be audio recorded during the interview process, you should not participate in this study. There will be a total of 8-10 Aboriginal Veterans participants in this study. Demographic information will be collected in the form of a questionnaire. The purpose of the questionnaire is to provide general background information of the participants involved in this study. This information may also be used to help researchers and readers of this study determine who the research findings can be generalized to. You will also be provided with a copy of the letter of intent and a signed consent form.

Your initials, phone number, address, full postal code, telephone number, and/or email (if applicable) will be collected by the graduate student researcher with your permission on a piece of paper separate from the Consent form for your input and verification of the study results. This information will also be used to provide you with a copy of the potential study results.

Compensation

You will be compensated $20 for your participation in this study. The honorarium will be distributed to you via email or money transfer by the researcher. If you attend the interview but choose not to partake in the interview process for any reason you will still be compensated at a pro-rated amount of $10 which you will sent to you immediately via email or money transfer to help pay for your time and/or related transportation costs. If you decide to partake in the interview process but decide to withdraw once the interview is in progress for any reason, you will still be compensated the full amount of $20. If you complete the interview process, you will be compensated the full amount of $20.

Risks
This study presents potential risks to participation. You may be at risk of experiencing emotional distress during and after the interview process as you recall personal experiences. Emotional distress has been described as a potential risk factor for participants in research who have experienced a traumatic experience in their past. Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) may also be a long-term reaction to warzone exposure. You have the option to discontinue your participation in the study at anytime if you experience any pain or discomfort at any time without penalty. At the end of the study, you will be provided with a list containing the contact/s of community resources or referrals to qualified professionals in the community. In the event that you experience any adverse reactions due to your participation in the study, we will do our best to connect you with the appropriate resources and services to help assist you.

Benefits

There is no guarantee that you will directly benefit from your participation in this study. You may directly benefit through your participation in this study as you may gain insight in disclosing your experiences of being adopted or fostered during the Sixties Scoop. You may indirectly benefit in knowing that your input may be used to help other Aboriginal veterans with similar life experiences and/or anyone else in the Aboriginal community adopted or fostered during this period. This increase in knowledge about Aboriginal veterans adopted or fostered during the Sixties Scoop and health issues they face may lead to the development of polices and health care services for this population.

Confidentiality

Interviews will be recorded using an audiotape and transcribed. All data collected will remain confidential and accessible only by the investigator of this study. However, if we find information we are required by law to disclose, we cannot guarantee confidentiality. The collected hard copy data and recordings will be stored in the following manner: locked in a cabinet in a secure office; audio recordings will be reviewed only by the Graduate student conducting the study and the Graduate student’s supervisor and they will be destroyed after 2 years.

The transcribed data from the interviews will be kept on a password-protected computer with no personal identifying details at the University of Western Ontario. A master list will be used with identifying information and will be kept separately from the data. A unique number will be used to code the data to keep responses confidential. The list of identifiers will be destroyed once data collection is complete. However, transcribed data with no identifying information will be retained for further analysis and will be destroyed within 5 years after completion of the study. The transcribed data will be destroyed within 5 years according to Western University Policy after completion of the study. All of the printed transcriptions and questionnaires will be shredded and recycled/thrown out. Recordings of the interviews will be securely deleted off devices and computers (i.e. computers have an option to securely delete items from the trash bin to ensure that all files have been fully deleted). If the results are published, your name will not be used. If you choose to withdraw from this study, your data will be removed and destroyed from our database. Representatives of The University of Western Ontario Health Sciences Research Ethics Board may contact you or require access to your study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research.
Voluntary Participation

Participation in this study is voluntary. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by responding to the questions. You may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions or withdraw from the study at any time with no effect on your future care. It will not involve any additional costs to you. You do not waive any legal rights by signing the consent form. If you are participating in another study at this time, please inform us right away to determine if it is appropriate for you to participate in our research.

If you require any further information regarding this research study or your participation in the study you may direct them to the Graduate student or the Graduate student Supervisor below responsible for this study:

Munira Abdulwasi  
Masters of Science, Health Promotion Graduate student  
University of Western Ontario,  
1151 Richmond Street  
London, N6A 3K7  
Email: [redacted]

OR:

Susan L. Ray RN PhD, Principle Investigator  
Associate Professor in Nursing at University of Western Ontario  
Associate Scientist – Lawson Health Research Institute  
The University of Western Ontario, Health Sciences Addition- #32  
1151 Richmond Street  
Tel: [redacted] ext. [redacted] Fax: [redacted]

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or the conduct of the study you may contact: The Office of Research Ethics at [redacted] or by email at ethics@uwo.ca
Appendix J: Consent Form

Consent Form

The “Sixties Scoop” among Aboriginal Veterans

I have read the Letter of Information, have had the nature of the study explained to me, and I agree to participate. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

☐ I give the researcher permission to use direct quotations for use in this study. All quotations will remain anonymous.

Name (Print):

_________________________

Signature:

_________________________

Date:  _____________________, 20___

Name of Person Responsible for Obtaining Informed Consent (Print):

_________________________

Signature of Person Responsible for Obtaining Informed Consent:

_________________________

Date:  _____________________, 20___
Appendix K: Interview Guide

Semi Structured Interview Guide

The “Sixties Scoop” among Aboriginal Veterans

The following is a list of beginning questions as actual issues and questions to be addressed will be raised by the participants.

1) What were your experiences of being adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop?

2) How have your experiences impacted you and your life as a whole?

3) What motivated you to join the military?

4) What was your experience like in the military?

5) How would you describe your current state of health?

6) Are there any health challenges you face as a result of being adopted and/or fostered out during the Sixties Scoop?

7) Are there any health challenges that you face as a result of your experience in the military?

8) Are you currently receiving any services or assistance to help you address your health needs and/or any health challenges?

9) If “yes” – Can you describe these services?

Do you feel that these services meet your health needs?

10) Do you currently participate in healing circles or Aboriginal healing practices?

11) Were you aware of Aboriginal healing practices previous to enlisting in the military?

12) What health services are needed to assist Aboriginal Veterans adopted or fostered during the Sixties Scoop?

13) Do you know of any other Aboriginal Veterans that were also adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop?
14) Are you a residential school survivor?

15) Do you have any other comments to make about your experience of being adopted and/or fostered during the Sixties Scoop?

16) Any other comments or suggestions?

Thank you for your time.
Appendix L: Demographic Questionnaire

Western
UNIVERSITY - CANADA

I. D. #__ __ __ __ __ __

Date: ______, 20__

Demographic Questionnaire

The “Sixties Scoop” among Aboriginal Veterans

What is your gender? _______________

Age: ____ years

Number of years in the Canadian Forces: __________

   Regular forces: __________

   Reservists in Special Duty Areas (SDA’s): __________

Number of years in the American Forces: __________

Deployed overseas: Yes______ No________

If Yes: Where deployed overseas: _________________

Year released from the Canadian Forces: __________

Year released from the American Forces: __________
Aboriginal: (Specify below):

First Nation___________________________

Metis_______________________________

Inuit_______________________________

Number of children: _____________

Marital Status:

Single/ Never Married (1) ___

Separated/ Divorced (2) ___

Widowed (3) ___

Married/ Common Law (4) ___

Other: (5) ___

Highest Level of Education: Grade School (1) ___

High School (2) ___

Community College/ University (3) ___
Curriculum Vitae

Name: Munira Abdulwasi

Post-secondary Education and Degrees:
University of Guelph
Guelph, Ontario, Canada
2005-2010 BSc honours

Nipissing University
North Bay, Ontario, Canada
2011-2012 B. Ed
Ontario Certified Teacher (OCT)

Western University
London, Ontario, Canada
2012-2015 MSc

Related Work Experience

Research Assistant, Social Planning Council of Cambridge and North Dumfries (2013)
- Assisted with the creation of the annual local trends report for the City of Cambridge of Cambridge and North Dumfries for the year 2013.

Health Promotion Assistant, University of Waterloo (2013-2014)
- Helped with the coordination of health programs and services at the University of Waterloo.

Health Promotion Intern, Kitchener Downtown Community Healthcare Centre (2015)
- Aided in the preparation, facilitation, and presentation of workshops to 28 local adult male and female newcomer participants from various different cultural communities in the Kitchener-Waterloo region.

Publications in process: