

Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

A GENERAL SURVEY OF EDUCATION ON NIUE

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of
the requirements for the degree of
MASTER OF ARTS IN EDUCATION
at
Massey University

Niuaviu Tauevihi

1977

ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of the thesis is to survey the provisions for education which began with the London Missionary Society Schools and eventually in 1952 the Government Administration assumed responsibilities towards developing a full quota of primary education. Secondary education at Niue High School followed in 1956, with a Teachers Training Centre in 1958, both of which constituted provisions for post-primary education, supplemented by higher education made available in New Zealand and other overseas institutions.

Niue's educational provisions will continue to become dependent on New Zealand in opportunities for higher education, in educational policies, for financial aid and to a less extent for the vocational courses designed to furnish Niue's manpower requirements.

Part II deals with the relationships between education, manpower needs and economic development in which ideas are explored within the Niuean context. This scrutiny indicates that the education provisions are not well related to the manpower needs of Niue as a politically self-governed state. The Government Administration and in general the Niue Public Service are adequately catered for, but not so in economic development and manpower needs.

Irrelevancy in education provisions resulted in social disorganisation which is a direct effect of Nuieans emigrating to New Zealand to seek employment, and to a greater extent utilise the skills that were learnt in the classroom.

The key ideas in the series of education planning are examined and recommended for the future are proposed with particular respect to Agriculture, School Curriculum, and Adult Education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

No words can ever adequately express my indebtedness and gratitude to these people without whom this thesis would not have been submitted:

My Supervisor and mentor, Mr Don Bewley, Director of Extramural Studies, Massey University. Your dedication to my study went beyond all that a student could ever ask from his supervisor.

Professor C.G.N. Hill, School of Education, Massey University, for his suggestions, encouragements, guidance and his infinite patience.

Dr. Harry Beresford for his valuable comments in proof reading my work.

Dr. Douglas Bray, who came to Niue Island and helped with the final part of my thesis.

To my wife, Juliet and my two daughters, for being with me patiently, when I needed company.

Finally to many other people who have contributed in some ways towards the completion of this thesis.

PREFACE

The history of Niue's education system is a transplanted heritage from its colonial benefactor to whom it owed its development. The central theme of this investigation manifests itself on the claim that, because of the nature in the development of Niue's education system, the essence of development is political and social. In short, the problem to be considered is that: 'the ultimate goal of educational development is for the development of a political state!' It has taken Niue seventy-two years from the time of annexation to New Zealand on 11 June 1901 to October 17 1974 to achieve a self-governing status, and education has been the main contributor.

The investigation is divided into four parts, not necessarily in their order of importance. The decision is arbitrary, for the convenience of order rather than for the purpose of straightforward recording of facts.

Part I begins with an historical development of educational institutions. Brief mention will be made of Mission Schools from 1861 to 1952 and of the Administration School from 1909 to 1952. 1952 was a year which marked the beginning of a proper Government education programme. Development from this date will continue up to 1972, with references where appropriate to 1975.

A description of the entire system will follow of all institutions as at 1972, from pre-school education, to the Teachers Training College. The Scholarship Scheme and the New Zealand Training Scheme will also be included in Part I because although the Schemes do not operate in Niue, the fact that it is an extension of the system it justifies their inclusion.

Part II deals specifically with the relationship between education and economic development. It will be demonstrated that education's contribution to economic development is restricted mainly to manpower resources. In particular education and employment, or education for employment; the curriculum, especially the place of agriculture in the School syllabus; the effects of emigration on manpower resources and generally educational policies and planning pertaining to economic development.

A second problem is proposed to be investigated: "that far from representing an important role as a pre-condition for economic development, Niue's education system caters more for political and social development". It is hoped that this theme will become obvious by the end of Part II.

Part III will be shorter in content than Parts I or II because most of the statements would have made the relationship of education to political and social development obvious. A brief account of historical development will be followed by New Zealand's approach in administering Niue Affairs. More specific attention is required to examine educational policies in the light of political development.

Part IV is reserved for the conclusions and recommendations of all Parts of the investigation. It is hoped that Part IV is mainly analytical in view of future prospects for Niue, in terms of developmental programmes.

Research methods are straightforward consultation of literature material by a personal Report of a Field study in November 8th to November 22nd 1974. For the most part Ma'ia'i's unpublished M.A. Thesis provide valuable background material, otherwise this thesis would have been severely restricted in material before the 1960 year. All documents which relate to the 1963-1973 decade are Niue Island Government documents on education, at least those which are considered relevant to the study. Many more could have been obtained but the fact that Niue, in its quest for self-government, was reluctant to duplicate any further resource material other than those which have been 'dubiously' acquired.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

A. <u>Introduction</u>	Page
Part I: Educational Institutions on Niue	8-26
Phase I: (a) Mission Schools 1861-1952 (b) Government Schools 1909-1952	
Phase II: (a) The Scholarship Scheme 1949-1973 (b) Secondary Education 1956-1973 (c) Primary Schools 1952-1973 (d) Teachers College 1958-1973 (e) N.Z. Training Scheme 1966-1973	
Phase III: (a) Pre School Education 1969-1973 (b) Adult Education 1966-1973	
Part II: Education and Economic Development	27-49
Part III: Education, Political and Social Development	50-69
Part IV: 1. Conclusions and Recommendations 2. Appendices 3. Bibliography	70-97

A General Survey of Education on Niue

Introduction:

Briefly outlines these factors:-

- (a) The nature, scope and limitation of the study.
- (b) The statement of the problem to be considered.
- (c) The divisions within which each part belongs.
- (d) Data - e.g. Facts, figures, tables, etc.

The progress of Niue's education system was 'planned' in accordance with the growth of political development. In respect of this and in spite of the obviousness of the desire of the government to make education a dominant contributing factor to economic development this has not been the case up to the present time. Niue's education system has always been a major contributor to political development. This statement will bear out strongly the resemblances of political policies in the past and more specifically during the 1960's. In short this thesis will be involved with looking at developments in Education which have their parallel in political policies. In other words, during the 1960's localisation of positions of responsibility within the Government service was the main purpose behind education.

Introduction to the Institutions which make up Niue's education system.

(a) Historical Development of Education Institutions:
1861-1973

<u>Phase I:</u>	(i) The Mission Schools	1861-1952
	(ii) The Government Schools (Primary	1909-1952)
<u>Phase II:</u>	(i) Primary Schools	1952-1973
	(ii) Secondary Education	1956-1973
	(iii) Teachers Training College	1958-1973
	(iv) Scholarship Scheme	1949-1965
	N.Z. Training Scheme	1966-1973
	(v) Pre School Education	1969-1973
	(vi) Adult Education	1966-1973

These were the complete number of educational services on Niue up to 1973. Most of the changes coincide with Niue's relationship with New Zealand's policy and its administration.

PART I

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Historical Development of Educational Institutions

Niue's first administration school was established in Alofi on August 10 1909. Prior to that, the London Missionary Society founded in each of the twelve villages of Niue; 'schools' which were primarily for training of church leaders and ministers, but with provisions for instructions in reading, writing and some arithmetic. In 1920 a second administration school was founded at Hakupu village, and a third at Mutalau in 1940. Upon the recommendation of the Beeby Commission which visited Niue in 1945, and pending on the approval of the London Missionary Society to concede the control of all education to the Island Administration, implementation of the Report did not eventuate until 1952 when four more administration schools were built. By the end of that year proposals were approved for the establishment of the additional four primary schools.

In 1956 a post-primary school was founded at Halamhaga but was not conferred a secondary school status until 1958. A Teachers Training Centre was built the same year. Since 1958 no additional institutions were added to the building programme except additional classrooms adjoining the existing schools.

Staffing of the Primary Schools, quantitatively, has seldom been a problem. The first primary school at Alofi, Tufukia School, has European teachers, and at Tuatea School at Hakupu until 1929 when a Niuean teacher took charge. All primary schools at present are staffed by Niuean teachers, and in 1974 two New Zealand trained teachers were assigned to the primary schools. At the High School most of the teachers are imported from New Zealand and they continued to dominate instruction and held responsible teaching positions, a requirement necessitated by the fact that Niue High School was an accredited school for the New Zealand School Certificate. This trend will continue until sufficient New Zealand trained secondary school teachers become available.

The interesting aspect of the development of Niue's education system was the demand shown by the parents to establish schools in preference to mission schools. This fact was remarked on by Ma'ia'i (1957) who wrote:

"The story of the change over from mission schools to secular and Government education reads like an exciting novel. More exciting perhaps, is the fact that this was a result of complete co-operation between the people, administrative, and the professional side." (Ma'ia'i 1957, p. 133)

A similar observation was recorded by the Beeby Commission which visited Niue in 1945: 'We were met in almost every village by deputations of the village elders who asked that Government schools be established for their children!' (Beeby et al, p. 53)

More obscure than the public demand for secular education which was openly displayed by the people, the Island Administration was equally anxious to assume full responsibility for all education. This was evident by the prompt implementation of the Beeby Commission Report which resulted in the building of four additional schools in 1952 (Recommendation 97), a High School in 1956 (Recommendation 107) and a Teachers Training College in 1958. At this stage of the development no specific reference was made to the relationship of education to economic development. Initially education was provided to satisfy a social demand, and for political reasons to justify New Zealand's part in the development of the Niuean people.

For the rest of Part I attention now will be towards Niue's education system per se, briefly on the first ninety one years from 1861 to 1952, and from 1953 to 1973. The sections on pre-school education are based on the 1972 year.

(1) Mission Schools 1861-1952

Not much was known of the mission schools in Niue between 1861-1952 except that the London Missionary Society missionaries established schools in each of the twelve villages on Niue from about 1861 onwards. (Ma'i'ai 1957) Although their main objectives were primarily with teaching catechist subjects, particularly the Bible, and training of church ministers, a basic education in reading, writing, arithmetic, singing and various other elementary branches of learning. A pastor's training schools was not set up until the beginning of the 20th century at Alofi ⁽¹⁾, but for the main part the Lawes brothers, W.G. and F.E., Bible instruction, reading and writing were sufficient. Towards the end of the 1940's closure of the Mission schools was inevitable. The popularity of the Administration Schools and the lack of advancement prospects within the mission schools forced the Society to discontinue its educational work on Niue.

The success of the London Mission Society had been immense. Despite the swing for secular education it was apparent that its work in Niue was not to be forgotten. Most Niueans today still regard the Church with respect, after all, even more than a century since over 90 per cent of the population are baptised members of the church and membership was not by compulsory enactment of law but by choice.

An evaluation of the Missionaries' approach of their teaching methods is a worthwhile comparison to secular education. Only by a comparative outlook its value can be assessed against government sponsored education.

(1) Forman, C.W. (no date)

Theological Education in the South Pacific Islands:
a quiet revolution

in Bulletin de la Societe des Oceannistes
Part IV p. 153
2nd session of the House of Representatives

Continuity of key personnel of the Society in Niue was an important factor. For example, Reverends W.G. Lawes and his brother F.E. Lawes, between them spent nearly fifty years on Niue,* during which time they completed the translation of the Bible, in the New and Old Testaments. Unbroken periods of such magnitude enabled the Society to begin, implement and concluded major objectives before they left. The administrators on the other hand were, and still are, bonded to Niue by a contract of two to three years at any time, and more often than not were replaced by fresh recruitments. Generally any proposed projects intended for major development purposes take longer to mature. Short services by administrators do not see their 'pet idealisms' mature and often new recruits came with their own schemes.

The second aspect of missionary education concerns the extent to which they offer their education. It is their philosophy that no one is too old, or too young to learn - the entire spectrum of the population was invited to participate, from a newborn child to a respectable 'old man'. Secular education, on the other hand is divided into different age groups, which is compulsory for all children between the ages of six and fourteen years. Separate provisions were made for pre-school and adult education and there were a greater variety of different categories than in a 'shepherds-sheep' situation.

Thirdly, while it was also the Society's policy to use the vernacular as its main teaching approach, the Government schools spent a large proportion of their time debating whether the vernacular has a rightful place in the schools. After nearly sixty-one years the Government has not progressed any further than they did in 1909; in theory the vernacular is recognised; in practice instruction is mostly in English. The advantage of the vernacular is that it allows for the development of familiar thinking processes, then later diversification to another language will come more easily.

* W.G. Lawes arrived in Niue in 1861 but left for Papua in 1874. F.E. Lawes lived in Niue between 1868 till 1910 - a combined total of 49 years residence.

F.R.J. Davies, the Officer for Island's education recommended in 1948 that proficiency in the vernacular ".... will lead to more efficiency and I believe in the end better English" Ma'ia'i (1957) p. 143

The Society used this approach and have reaped optimal benefits.

Another important contribution the Society made to Niue was the reinforcement of reading and writing skills by providing opportunities for their uses. The translated Bible gave people the chance to use their reading skills, and in writing, encouragement to write their own sermons. Arithmetic became useful as traders began to arrive in Niue. Even if the variety of reading material was limited the opportunities to read were given. In the Government on the other hand schools variety of reading materials were not sufficient to promote reading skills, and because of the language in which they were printed, only a limited number of children benefitted from them.

There were many more virtues in the approaches of mission education; their only fault was the restrictive scope of the education they offered. It shared the same fate with the Government education in that when it came to manual tasks, like cultivating the land, co-operation diminished. This complaint is still prevalent in the field of education and it is not the fault in approach but of attitudes on the part of students' religious and secular aspirations in their quest for knowledge and understanding.

As a tribute to missionary education, it began a foundation upon which learning is based. Functional literacy, in reading and writing was already desired by the time the Administration began to divert education from religious philosophy.

(ii) The Government Schools - 1909-1952

Tufukia Schools, opened at Alofi on 10 August 1909, was attended by sixty-four pupils, out of two hundred who sought admission. It began as a boarding school, but by 1920, records showed (Ma'ia'i, 1957 p. 123, Ma'ia'i p. 125 Ma'ia'i 1957 pp. 123-125) two hundred and twenty one pupils, which suggested a change in status from boarding to a combination with day pupils. 1920 saw the opening of Tuatea School at Hakupu, built with voluntary labour and financed by the people of the village.

All they asked for was a European teacher in which Mr Hamilton officiated, and his salary was paid by the New Zealand Government.

The third Kofekofe school was opened at Mutalau village in 1940. Comparative figures of school rolls, in 1920 the mission school recorded 450 pupils to the two administration schools with 326 pupils. In 1945 the position was reversed: 656 children attended the three administration schools while the mission schools had declined to just over 400. (Beeby, et al 1945, p. 50)

The Beeby Commission Report in 1945 proposed recommendations for Niue. Recommendation (94) suggested complete control by Administration of all secular education, (95) proposals for sites and assistance with new school buildings; (96) that the nine remaining mission schools be replaced by four consolidated Administration schools, strategically placed so as to reduce travelling to a minimum and (97) staffing to be with teachers trained in the Administration schools. (Beeby, et al, 1945 pp 54-55)

The four proposed consolidated schools building programme began in 1951 and most were completed by 1954.

These schools were, in their respective order, Liolau School at Avatele, Matalave School at Tuapa, Halavai School at Liku and Lialagi School at Lakepa. Their combined roll in 1952 was 1,169 pupils.

Educational Institutions 1952-1972

Only three additional educational institutions were built between 1952-1972. A Side School for the children of expatriated staff was provided for in 1955, Niue High School in 1956 and a Teachers Training College in 1958. All the teachers initially employed were recruited from New Zealand.

1. Pre-School Education:

Play Centres for pre-school education was first mentioned in 1972 'A Review of Education on Niue by W.E. Christie, but expatriated parents opened a play-centre at Alofi in 1965. (Christie, 1972) Pre-school education has since been incorporated into the formal education system but full recognition was not given until the Select Committee Report on Educational Policy in 1973. Official non-recognition of pre-school education, according to the 1972 Christie Report, was due to problems of building provisions, the training of pre-school teachers, and the worthwhileness of financial investment.

As a result all pre-school play centres (three were operating fully in 1973)⁽⁵⁾ were run on a voluntary basis, financed by the parents and controlled by Pre-school committees. Accordingly they are independent, but assistance is available from the Department of Education if required. The Committee found many who were interested, during their meeting with various villages, but the stumbling blocks were finance, building provisions and lack of understanding of the concept of pre-school education. The Committees recommendations included: encouragement to establish play centres, and priority was given to villages without primary schools; financial aid and advice if required; emphasized local elements in all activities especially language, song and dance and other cultural pursuits; provision of milk and other protein food supplements as for primary schools, and that liason should be maintained with the Village Council, and the Village School Committees.

(5) Select Committee Report on Education Policy, 1973
Niue Island Government, Office of the Minister for Education

The main purpose behind pre-school education is to prepare children for formal school learning. This trend is only a recent development, based on the belief that pre-school years are of vital importance to the future academic ability of the individual; a policy endorsed by most countries as part of their overall educational 'inputs'. One suspects that in Niue's case it has political undertones to involve the parent into contact with school and child rearing practises. Pre-school Committees provided such examples and it was probably what Christie (1972) meant by 'the grassroots of political consciousness..... is found at the domestic level and it is here that the art of democracy should be practised. (7)' (Christie, 1972 pp. 2-3)

Field work in 1974, which involved a visit to the Alofi, Hakupu and Mutalau play-centres, experienced devoted efforts of parents to pre-school education. One feels however that too much emphasis was given to preparation for formal schooling judging by the wealth of New Zealand imported play materials, and not enough of Niuean culture as recommended in the Report. A work of caution on personal observations: Visitors are accorded the same privileges shown to all who are considered important, no matter how unscheduled the visits. People, especially Niueans, are anxious to show and to demonstrate the extent to which they have adopted "modern ways" (New Zealand's values, probably) to achieve progress. One wonders too how it will be possible to dictate pre-school education policy when 'assistance and guidance' and when pre-school institutions are voluntary organisations.

(b) Village Primary Schools

Niue's seven primary schools were strategically located to minimise travelling distance. Tufukia School (Alofi), Tuatea School (Hakupu) Halavai School (Liku), Lialagi School (Lakepa) are attended by pupils from their respective villages. Matalave School (Tuapa) is shared with pupils from Makefu, Namukulu, Tuapa and Hikutavake villages, Liolau School (Avatele) is shared with Tamakautoga and Vaiea, and Kofekofe School at Mutalau is shared with Toi Village children - all these schools are within three miles from the most distant village.

In accordance with New Zealand practise compulsory education can only be enforced when children are within walking distance of up to three miles. The other factor is determined by the number of children who could be adequately accommodated within the limits of classroom space.

Schooling is provided free, secular (with provisions for Bible instruction once weekly subject to parental approval for each child) and compulsory between six and fourteen years. Since 1970 admission is accepted after the child turns five (10) in February or in July. Classes have been redesignated since 1962 from Primers/Standards, to Classes 1 to 6. Class 7 was redesignated in 1970 to Form I. Since 1970 all children proceeded to High School as of right being the enactment of the policy regarding universal secondary education.

The syllabus for primary schools is that of the New Zealand Primary School, but provisions were made to allow flexibility, in including subjects suitable to and for Niuean environment. Instructions for primary education as recommended by the Select Committee Report 1973, was to be in Niuean for the first five years of schooling. English instruction on a progressive scale begins with oral English starting at Class 2, English reading at Class 4, writing at Class 5 and replacement by English for most subjects by Form II (see Tables for Syllabus Content).

Village School Committees were instituted in 1970 in accordance with New Zealand practice, the sole purpose being to involve parents with the affairs of the school. Control of school affairs had been the responsibility of the Education Department Director until 1973. As a consequence of Christie Report (1972 p. 20) requested Headmasters to be 'given freedom and real responsibility' of their respective schools.

All village primary schools provide primary education up to and including Form I.

- (10) Government of Niue 1969
Pupil Enrolment, Promotion and Termination Policies
Members of the Executive Committee, File E.C.P. 78(69)
31st October, 1969 (Confidential)

NIUE HIGH SCHOOL: SECONDARY EDUCATION

In 1945 the Beeby Commission recommended:

"that no attempt be made for the present to develop secondary education in Niue, but that as soon as the work of the top class is raised to the New Zealand Form II level a limited number of secondary scholarships and industrial scholarships be provided to enable specially able children to go overseas for further education and training"

An accelerate class intended for the brightest pupils in the government schools was established, on a suggestion by F.R.J. Davies, Officer for Islands Education, in 1949, under the supervision of a European teacher. The number accepted at the time was based on a one-teacher school basis although it became obvious by 1956 that a secondary school education was inevitable. The initial purpose of the class was to supply future teachers and nurses - a move to improve the quality of teachers and of nurses, and the surplus to be distributed among administration and other departments in the Niue Public Service.

The accelerate class was discontinued in 1957, and Niue High School was opened in 1958 as a proper secondary school with four classes and a roll of 114 pupils. In 1960 a fifth class was added, thereafter one further class was added until 1969 when there were 14 classes and a roll of 413.

Rapid growth of the High School resulted in an evaluation of consequences in 1969, in which three main conclusions emerged.* First, 40 per cent of pupils were not permitted to enter High School at all, and a further 20 per cent were admitted into the "special classes", after spending two years in the village schools in Classes 8 and 9. It was found that the "special classes" pupils were not benefitting at all from two years High School instruction.

* see (10) footnote above

Second, automatic promotion from Form III to form V of the "academic stream" pupils was having the effect that only inferior levels were attained, even at the Form V level. Minimum success by School Certificate candidates between 1966 and 1969 obviated the need for reassessment of the high school and the growth of general education in the Island had been exceeded by the numerical growth of the High School.

Third there was a growing concern of the number of pupils who were leaving the High School without employment, and at that time vacancies for paid employment on the Island were not expected to accommodate all, or at least most, school leavers with jobs appropriate to their level of education.

Universal secondary education was granted to take effect as from 1970 onwards, a direct consequence of the three conclusions above. All children are now entitled to at least two years secondary education, but promotion on merit to Form IV is kept to 40 per cent of each age group, and that half of these would be admitted to Form V with further provisions that potentially bright children would be offered a second year at Form V in preparation to sit for the New Zealand School Certificate examination. Niue High School has been an approved school for this examination since 1966. Continuity at the High School was dependant on two conditions:

- (a) satisfactory progress in learning, and,
- (b) the operation of an approved termination criteria *

In 1970 and 1971 respectively, 462 and 460 pupils were enrolled in sixteen classes, as a result of the proposed changes in admission status. The 1972 year saw a need for a second Form V class which was necessitated by the following factors:

- (a) competitiveness for scholarship places, now offered at the end of the School Certificate examination instead of Form II, as was the practise until 1966, and the level of education had improved considerably since 1969.

* Compulsory leaving age enforced after the child has reached 14 years of age. E.C.P. 78(69) p. 2

- (b) accelerating emigration, resulting in the decrease of pupils at the Form V level. It was necessary to maintain the number at this level, for the purpose of projected manpower forecasting.
- (c) the increase in emigration in the Public Service left vacancies which needed replenishing.

430 pupils were at the High School in 1972 in fifteen classes. The 1969 provision was extended so that all pupils now receive not less than two years secondary education instruction from expatriate and New Zealand qualified Niuean teachers.

TEACHERS TRAINING COLLEGE

Until a Teachers College, which opened in 1958, was established, Niue's primary school teaching service was provided mainly by a teacher-pupil system. Proposals to send trainees to train in other Pacific Countries did not eventuate in any significant degree until the emphasis to draw prospective teachers from accelerate classes from 1952 onwards. In fact the original purpose of establishing of the accelerate class was 'to give the Niuean students the benefits of a certificated teacher with New Zealand training and experience.' (Ma'ai'i, 1957 p. 153) Further provisions to improve the quality of teachers were implemented with the recommendation of the Officer for Islands Education in 1956 when an European teacher trainer and an European assistant education officer were appointed to assist training of teachers.

The Teachers Training College is the main source of Village Schools Primary Teachers, and will function in this capacity for as long as the need for teachers continue. Eventually New Zealand trained Niuean teachers would supplement the service, but the Hillary Report's recommendation to place such teachers in stragetic classes in the village schools had not been implemented by 1972, because of insufficient numbers of returnees from New Zealand and because priority was given to the staffing of Niue High School.

Fluctuations of annual outputs in the decade 1959-1969 have been determined by the number of teachers required, and provisions for flexibility in promotion within the teaching service. The table below shows intake/output for 1959-1969 period.

Table 1.

TEACHER OUTPUTS 1959-1969

1959	13
1960	9
1961	10
1962	Nil (no intake 1961)
1963	5
1964	6
1965	11
1966	12
1967	8
1968	Nil (no intake 1967)
1969	

The length of the course as at 1972 was a two year lecture and teaching practise, plus one yar probationary assistanceship. Minimum entry, standardised in 1962, was three years secondary education.

Trainees are at present selected by the Staff Training Committee, which since 1968 all entrants accepted must have at least four years secondary education at Niue High School, or at best, having attempted New Zealand School Certificate at the end of their Upper V year. It should be noted that there are opportunities available for further education overseas for pupils who intended to make teaching their career.

There are special features of the Teachers Training College. *

- (1) The function of the College and its staff is to guide and assist teachers in the schools, and to develop curricula and methods. The office of the Director is attached to the College but the Education Officer is responsible for all student assessments, instruction and direction. In this respect there is a very direct relationship between the college and the Education Centre.+
- (2) Since 1961, all teachers who have previously not had the advantage of attending a teacher's college, completed a one year inservice course. A Niue Public Service Senior Certificate was awarded which was the qualification for all present trainees who have completed the prescribed course of two years including a probationary year.
- (3) School teachers attend the College at least three times per term to review teaching programmes and to keep up with present development in their profession.

+ The Administrative side of Education and the schools in general.

- (4) A refresher course of one week duration in January is held for all primary school teachers.
- (5) Two places are set aside each year for an overseas observation term, of up to one year, sponsored by the New Zealand Training Scheme. This move has had successes in the past and will continue to function in remotivation of capable teachers in the schools.

All secondary teachers are trained in institutions outside Niue, mainly in New Zealand. Recently the University of the South Pacific in Fiji has become an alternative source of both primary and secondary teacher education. Niue has now sufficient teachers and has terminated the Training College as a separate institution as from 1976 onwards. All prospective teachers are sent to the University of the South Pacific where they can complete a three year Diploma of Education, or a degree including teacher education.

SCHOLARSHIP AND NEW ZEALAND TRAINING SCHEMES

(a) The Scholarship Scheme

The main function of the scheme, which extended to Niue in 1946, was to offer a standard of secondary education to selected pupils who, by the virtue of their academic abilities, were sent to New Zealand for secondary education. The advantage of the Scheme is that it allowed the student to extend his or her mental or academic abilities under the instruction of fully qualified New Zealand secondary teachers, and to prepare them for the School Certificate examination, a prerequisite for high level employment. Up to 1966 candidates were selected from Form II, but with the High School being an accepted institution for the New Zealand School Certificate examination, Form Upper V became the main source of scholarship candidates.

The Scheme has functioned in this capacity but with increasing number entering New Zealand secondary school at Form VI, instead of Form III, most responsibilities are now with the New Zealand Training Scheme fellowship awards.

(b) The New Zealand Training Scheme

The Scheme, proposed initially for the Cook Islands in 1964, included Niueans who have since used it to their advantage. It incorporated the former scholarship scheme and widened training opportunities which enabled a greater number to receive higher education and specialised training. Scholarships for secondary schools at fifth and sixth form level from 1966 (Niue-Cook Islands, 1964), provided bursaries for university education, and long-term fellowships for vocational training. Short-term fellowships were offered to Niue Public Servants in New Zealand where courses last from about 3 months to one year. All costs incurred were met by a special finance provided by the New Zealand Government.

In 1954 there were ten Niuean students pursuing further education and vocational training in New Zealand and Fiji. In 1966 there were fifth two long-term students in New Zealand and nine short-term inservice trainees. Thirteen others were in Fiji (5), Western Samoa (6), Solomon Islands (2)⁺ Because of the nature of the scheme, more emphasis were given to training of high level manpower. Accordingly the awards for further education at secondary schools in New Zealand had diminished, and replaced by vocational trainees and short-term inservice courses.

Eventually the Training Scheme functioned towards Niue's self-government status, just as it was intended for the Cook Islands in 1964, the year before the Cook Island self-government. Further implications will be discussed in the following chapters, specifically in Part III when attention will focus on political and social development programmes.

AJHR, A-3 1950
+ AJHR, A5, 1967

In 1971 the Maori Trade Apprentices Scheme accepted four boys for apprenticeship in carpentry, and 1973 provisions were extended to boys in the plumbing trade. The New Zealand Scheme is also partly responsible financially for students and trainees in Fiji, Samoa, Solomon Islands and Hawaii; who are in trade and vocational training courses.

THE NIUE SIDE SCHOOL

The status of the side school was not specified in the Select Committee on Education Policy Report in 1973. The School is a two teacher school, staffed by New Zealand trained expatriate teachers, which caters for children whose mother tongue is English, and who are English in thinking and speaking. It offers the same syllabus as the New Zealand Primary Schools up to Form II level. A recent change in policy was made to accommodate children of Niuean parents whose first language is English. Beyond Form II level Niue High School offers secondary education and the Niue Government reserve the right to extend the same scholarship privileges for further study in New Zealand, and under the same conditions. All expenditures of the school are appropriated out of the Niue Education Department budget allowance.

There is an ensuing controversy on the status of the Side School. First, expenditures are included in the Departmental allocation but its activities have no relation at all to Niuean education, excepting perhaps the allowance made for children of Niuean parentage. Dr Richard Benton, in his letter to the Niue Minister of Education,* wrote to suggest that the school should be financed by the parents of children who use it.

* Benton, R.A. 1973 - Letter to M.Y. Vivian, Member for Education, NIUE dated March, 1973 (Confidential)

His comments are influenced by the Christie Report (1972) which recommended that, 'English should be the medium of instruction right from the start' and for this reason the school should not be incorporated into the total Niuean education.

Since the Side School is not an integral part of the Niue School system, should it not be regarded as a private school? Remembering the recommendation by Mr Hillary (1963) that private schools should be discouraged, one wonders about the need to pass regulations without defining the schools status.

Administration: Education Centre

This is the pulse of Niuean Education through which all matters concerning education are processed. Staffing is balanced between expatriate and local Niueans, relative to their respective functions and responsibilities. For the most part New Zealand recruited officers hold the positions of responsibility in Directorship, Education Officer and Teacher-Trainer. Locally recruited officers include Inspector of Schools, Infant Organiser, Assistant Teacher Trainer, one clerk, four typists and one Libraries Assistant.

The main functions of the Centre are to:

- (i) Order, control and distribute schools supplies, teaching units, (materials, equipment, furniture and books)
- (ii) Design and print assignments for village schools .
- (iii) Design and implement syllabuses.
- (iv) Integrate with existing programmes, curriculum material from the Curriculum Development Unit in Fiji.
- (v) Be responsible for Teachers College Students.
- (vi) Guide and advise teachers in school practice.
- (vii) Supervise school examination and pupils' progress.
- (ix) Plan and administer in-service courses

These functions are wide and varied though it should be noted that the Niue High School does not come under the control of the Education Centre except in ordering of materials and supervision of examination.

Over the first seventy five years of formal education on Niue, a school system has been evolved which provided universal primary, some post-primary, education in reasonably accessible schools to the entire population, a secondary school providing sufficient places and teachers for all who aspire to reach New Zealand School Certificate, and a primary Teachers Training Centre to adequately staff the primary schools. Nevertheless, Niue remains dependent chiefly on New Zealand for education beyond School Certificate, for vocational education and for its senior secondary and administrative education staff.

The pattern in the development of Niue's education became clearer during the 1960's and early 1970's with New Zealand's insistence on the one hand to force the pace of Niue's constitutional development, and on the other Niue's reluctance to accept abrupt changes in political status. Educational policies and implementations passed between 1963 and 1973 were responsive to the changes in constitutional development. The Hilary Report in 1963 set out educational objectives for the 1963-1973 decade, ranging from Regulations and Ordinances governing the definitions of educational policies and the extent to which proposed policies affect the totality of Niue's educational structure. There were other implementations which took place before the decade was reached: Universal Secondary education for all; the establishment of pre-school institutions; conferment of Village School Committees; the New Zealand Training Scheme - all were responsible, in the end towards developing an education system suitable to and corresponding to changes both within and from outside Niue.

PART II

EDUCATION AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Introduction:- Definition of education's role in economic development. These are related to the:

- (a) Curriculum for primary and secondary education
- (b) Adult education programmes.

Background:- Niue's physical resources. This will make the position clear as to why education is an important compensatory alternative which gives rise to:

- A. Education as a 'consumption' item and education as a productive agent.
- B. Education and manpower resources.
- C. Education: Effects of Migration
 - (i) The Scholarship and the New Zealand Training Scheme
- D. Education: School Curriculum and Economic Development:
Is there a relationship?
- E. Education and Employment
- F. Agricultural Education

Education and Economic Development

Education's role in Niue's economic development programmes is mainly to develop the Island's manpower resources. Two objectives in the Hillary Report relate specifically to this aspect:

- "...(d) The people who remain in Niue to live will do so more effectively the better educated they are. More intelligent use can be made of economic resources because the rates of economic development depend very much on the level of education. An economic plan without an educational plan is unlikely to produce the best results; expenditure on education is therefore an investment.
- (e) The main task of education relative to economic development is to prepare people to learn, accept and implement new methods. What is needed is a broad general education to as high a level as possible, followed by a specialisation and continuous opportunity throughout life to acquire new skills, not forgetting the ability to use leisure time to advantage." (Hillary, 1963, 2)

These objectives would be facilitated, the Hillary Report (1963) suggests that by having better teachers and increases in numbers of teachers at certain levels; secondary schooling for all, and a longer period for some; postponement of specialist of vocational training in order to place an emphasis on English, Social Studies, General Science, Mathematics, Cultural Subjects and Physical Education.

There are other needs which require more specific consideration:

"learn English; develop community spirit and a sense of purpose; learn about and use democratic procedures; preparing for living and employment on Niue and/or in New Zealand; understand the modern world in order to combine its most useful and suitable practises with the best of Niuean Culture." (Hillary, 1963, 3)

To all intents and purposes, Niuean education, despite its appeal to economic development of the Island, is not functioning in a way that would enhance the rate of development. The three documents, mentioned in Part I,* endorse the principle of training manpower resources to cope with the changes both in Niue and the world. Their views on the preparation of manpower stop short of any real programme of economic development cater only for employment in the Government Public Services which in the main is an unproductive sector of the community.

New Zealand's part of the inheritance for the control of Niue's education from the reluctant but thankful London Missionary Society in 1952, was to embark on a venture, not only for the Island's educational development per se, but for Niue's economic, political and social development as well. Part II of this thesis will be devoted to economic development and the role which in education plays. Furthermore, as economic development is a crucial prerequisite to Niue's total development programmes, especially during the 1960's and the early part of the 1970's; it will be necessary to trace the development of education from 1952 onwards. In total, education and economic development will take place within the framework of divisions:

* Hillary Report 1963, Christie Report 1972,
Select Committee Report on Education Policy 1973

1. Niue's physical resources: a brief account of what are available as the basis for economic development.
2. Economic Development - Education's contribution. Essentially this section will concern the main ideas of education's contributions to economic development.
3. Education and Manpower Resources:
Manpower resources are a subject of interest in most countries which are on the path of planning for social, economic and political progress. In particular Niue's most pressing need is not only for skilled manpower, but for the 'right' kind of manpower, necessary to implement its quest for economic development. This perhaps would constitute the major part of the study, examining the relationship of the school curriculum and employment/salary and wage structure and the justification of spending more on education.*
4. Economic development and the School Curriculum.

Although the curriculum is mentioned and elaborated in the manpower requirements section, one who is in sympathy with an emphasis on Agriculture in the School Syllabus in a society which depends so much upon 'produce of the land,' cannot avoid questioning and even condemning the inadequacies of its present role in the curriculum. The writer condones neither the injustice to Agriculture nor the irrelevancy of the school curriculum in satisfying what are in essence Niue's "needs". Perhaps in this overview the writer may tentatively, with caution, offer some new, or even, radical approaches in terms of curriculum reform.

* In 1955 \$38,342 were spent on education. This figure represented 12 per cent of the national Budget. \$202,004 (about 10.4 per cent) ten years later (1964-1965) For the period 1972-3, \$353,211 were noted for education (12 per cent of the national budget). This shows an increase of ten times for a two decade period (See Appendix 5 for more detailed information)

1. PHYSICAL RESOURCES:

(a) Internal Resources and their Characteristics:

Unlike most Pacific "paradises" which eventually resort to tourism to supplement their economic resources, Niue is not endowed in any substantial quality or quantity, with substantial resources on which to base its economic development programmes. Natural resources are almost non-existent. There were claims that Niue possess deposits of bauxite and uranium, but the costs of extracting these minerals are prohibitive and uneconomical. The soil is thin and the rainfall although plentiful, (about 72 inches average per year) is unreliable. Moreover Niue lies on the hurricane belt, (evident by the two severe hurricanes which razed the Island in 1959, 1960 and in 1968) rendering the dependence on copra and banana produce unreliable to potential markets overseas. Generally the old name Nukututaha, or the Island-that-Stands-alone, is no myth; it had earned the term aptly referred to even by Niue's most patriotic sons, as the Gibraltar of the Pacific; the coral outcrop of rock which makes the Island's environment is as uneconomic as the Sahara Desert.

Niue's land tenure system is not conducive to modern methods of agricultural production. Traditionally family owned land is the last vestiges of Niuean culture which is valued highly by the family, even by those who have been residents in New Zealand for several years. Proceedings in the Niue Land Court at present are evidences of the Niue Government's desire to have land ownership, (once the boundaries are marked by recognisable landmarks such as trees, or rock outcrops) to be registered and formally designated as belonging to the family according to their respective ownership rights. Whatever the future developments envisaged in these proceedings and while the composition of soil fertility (or infertility as is the case) is such as it is, it is doubtful whether agricultural production on a large plantation basis will emerge as an economic proposition viable enough to attract large scale investment.

Furthermore Niue's soils yield very little produce that could maintain any long-term supply source without assurance of overseas markets. For example the vulnerability of the copra industry is not solely attributable to natural calamities such as the hurricanes and pests, and fortunately the Rhinoceros Beetle is not Niue's problem. The demand for coconut oil has been decreasing for many years owing to competitive, and more reliable vegetable products such as peanuts, and other sources. The actual fluctuations in demand and in world prices were crippling the copra industry until the oil crisis of the last three years. Even now the novelty is wearing off.

Kumara production which appeared to dominate the export production was doomed to failure, before the onset of the hurricanes, by the "black rot" weevil - it has not recovered sufficiently since to have any impact as an economic prospect.

Fresh fruit exports, such as bananas, and more recently, passionfruit and lime do have limited overseas markets. Past events rendered the supply of these products unreliable and even when the supply was good the shipping schedules were not operating to Niue's favour. More than often cargoes of fresh fruit destined for the New Zealand market perished because the ships, which provided most of the services, failed to arrive at an arranged time.

Livestock raising is yet to extend beyond its experimental stage. The initial proposal was to encourage people to raise beef cattle, but for reasons such as the prohibitive prices of live cattle or the traditional community commitments, made livestock farming, even on a small scale, unprofitable. The Development Board, instituted in 1967, for the purpose of co-ordinating economic development programmes, are selling fresh meat as an alternative to tinned and frozen meat from New Zealand.

(ii) External Influences:

Even if Niue was to produce large quantities of exportable commodities, the external influences of market sources, the elastic demand of consumers, competitive prices from similar products, price fluctuations, irregular transportation services - all contribute to Niue's already vulnerability in dependence on agriculture as its main base for economic development. What else could be done to alleviate these problems?

Fortunately the newly developed marketing of passionfruit, which since 1968, constituted a large portion of Niue's export, by preserving it in pulp which allows longer storage, is restoring a respectable balance in export products. Similarly the lime "industry" is being developed this way. The Honey "industry", initially a private enterprise which reached its peak in 1970, supplements export commodities.

One ought to mention the importance of Niue's handcraft export but as this will be dealt later under manpower resources, for reasons which will also become obvious, its place is not in this section. It may however be sufficient to say that handcraft wares have not been pursued with enthusiasm in the past because this industry was not fostered significantly as a potential income and a market resource.

Against this background of lack in natural physical resources, one now considers with some degree of caution the alternatives in its place: are Niue's manpower resources enough to develop as a fitting alternative? It appears that there is little choice but to cultivate the human resource, with education as its leading agent.

Education's Contribution:

Essentially, education's contribution to economic development, has long been a point of controversy between educationists and economists; the dilemma lay in the 'quality' and 'quantity' of education. Economists, such as P.H. Coombs (1968), complain that education needs new techniques; this view is endorsed by John Vaizey (1971),⁽³⁾ adding that new techniques are needed - so smaller number of highly qualified teachers can do the job now done by many teachers. Harbison (1971) proposes that educational costs could be reduced by new technologies of

teaching, and Benson (1971) reiterated the term ! popular among economists, that education is 'traditionally bound'. However unsure economists may be of the educationists role the question remains whether education could be operated on the same principles as would, say, a business, whose sole purpose is maximising profits? Would the proof of this, should it eventually be achieved and be justified for the Nation's increased expenditure in education? Would the "efficiency principle" a factor so popular amongst economists function without affecting the human factor which is an indispensable element of national development programmes?

Questions such as these, many of which unsettle the relationships between educationists and economists are actual postulations of the real problem - are we justified in investing up to about 20 per cent of our budget on education? The suggestion which appears to come out of the education - economic dichotomy is to postpone the real value of the issue at hand. That is to say the sentiments of the United Nations Human Right principle which leans heavily on the side of moral obligations to mankind, evident by its decolonisation programmes (Davidson 1971) is a cause for reconsideration of programmes for national development.

For example, foremost in Niue's objectives for development in the 1960's was not education; education provides the means for self-government, not vice versa.

To return to the point of issue at present: education as an 'investment' - is it justifiable that it is allotted up to 20 per cent of the national budget? There are two aspects of investment which will be the theme of this section: education as a "consumption item" and education as a "production" agent. The two aspects are both complementary and competitive, for one cannot function sufficiently without the other. This distinction will, hopefully, become obvious upon consideration of various examples which will be used to illustrate them.

(a) Education as a "consumption item"

The consumption dimension of education encompasses the "humanistic" aspects of education. Coombs (1968) states that the 'social demand, or the consumption aspect for education, grown faster than manpower requirements.' Its popularity increased because of the aspirations of parents, consequently their children's children, so the chain continues, for more education. This fact held for Niue during the Post War II period when the desire for secular education, in place of the missionary 'vision' (ma'ia'i 1957), pressed the Administration to build new schools.

Secondly, there had been a stress by newly developed nations of public policy towards educational development as an overall precondition for overall national development. Niue is not the only nation prone to this fact, most new nations have adopted similar motives which provide sufficient motivations for their implementation. An added incentive for Niue in this respect was a pressure on New Zealand on one hand by the United Nation's Decolonisation Policies, while on the other Niue attempting to justify the annual grants made on its behalf by the New Zealand Government.

Thirdly the quantitative increase in population, which was a world wide trend in the 1950's, resulted in increase of enrolments. In support of this Coombs (1968) claimed that 50 per cent increase in primary school enrolments and over 100 per cent increase in secondary and higher education illustrates this trend for increases in educational participation rates. In most instances of the demand for more education at higher levels experienced in the last decade was a result in early priority in primary education (see figures below for Niue's record in participation rates).

Coombs went on to say the education 'participation rates' increased because education demand, feeding on itself, creates its own demand.⁽⁹⁾, but social demands grow faster than the abilities of the education system to fulfil those aspirations.

What in fact is the core of the consumption aspect of education? Why does it appeal to the humanitarian aspect of educational investment?

Education is desired for its own sake as well as what it can produce. Dr Malcolm Adiseshiah (1965) had a pertinent point to make in clarifying this aspect.

"It is a source of never ending satisfaction, not subject to the law of diminishing returns. One can never have too much of it, in the sense that one is educated all one's life from the cradle to the grave. It is part of the total intellectual and moral equipment of man everywhere, and for that reason is enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Education is the inalienable right of every man, woman and child in each country. This is the UNESCO doctrine and ultimately all its activities relate to this high moral force." (Adiseshiah, 1965 p. 23)

One does not need to know the Universal Declaration of Human Rights to know that education is a marketable and a highly desirable commodity to those who see beyond its horizons, however unclear the future may be. It is an avenue for higher standards of living; for Niueans it is a source of security for themselves and for their children.

Unlike the "production" aspect of education the benefits of self-satisfaction and as a future insurance policy cannot be measured, except that somewhere in the distant future there could be prosperity perhaps, making this even now an 'investment' worthy of participation while it exists. To understand the consumption aspect of education one ought to look for its complimentary partner: education as a production agent.

(ii) The "Production" Aspect of Education

The more obvious contribution of educational 'investment' to economic development is that of its 'production' aspect. Education as a production agent contributes to the productivity of other factors: it provides and adds to human skills; it promotes innovations and inventions; it contributes to and facilitates change. Its expected effects are instrumental in the community, in the nation's increase in growth rates of the economy, and improvements in living standards. It complements the consumption aspect of education in that its purpose in the end is to increase consumption and human welfare - this purpose shows the double function of education. This double function of education presents a difficulty - how does one measure or even estimate its contribution to economic development? Furthermore, should allocations of national development resources be desideratum for non-economic purposes of education or for both; and if this is to the case how should it be decided that how much should be allocated towards education? To provide balance in such proposals calls for an investigation of other consequences for education as an agent for economic development. Hopefully tentative conclusions may be reached, offering, perhaps an insight for deciding the place of education as a basis for economic development.

Given the specific skills needed for the performance of a number of occupations, whether in the Government Public Service or in private enterprises, education acts on economic development by providing the labour force with new skills required by modern technology, by reorienting and adapting existing skills and providing new knowledge and techniques that are necessary in the production process. The change of emphasis in the New Zealand Scholarship Scheme, redesignated 'The New Zealand Training Scheme' in 1964, which indicates a redirection of education policy. For example, while the Scholarship Scheme provided the opportunities for further and higher education, the Training Scheme was adopted to continue further education in New Zealand, inservice training in New Zealand;

refresher courses for already employed personnel, to improve skills in furthering professional capacities, and adapting those skills to accommodate new knowledge and techniques.

Formal education in Niue at present under view (9) intends to include adult programmes which in time may influence the social and cultural conditions and institutions that make up the Island's socio-cultural infrastructure. The traditional infrastructure of Niue's socio-cultural institutions is at present under great stress from the effects of migration and a transitional stage of change from its tradition-bound attitudes. The onset of political change has been profound and rapid; culture-bound attitudes took generations to develop and may even take longer to readjust to new status in international standing. Progress must come from the people themselves for readjustment of change in attitudes if Niue's present manpower is to have impact on implementation of economic development programmes. Similarly, the Government must be stable enough to offer security in the future of Niue, in providing opportunities to apply the skills its adult population learned in the schools. In consideration of such programmes manpower skills and social change are important directives to future educational policy and practice.

3. Education and Manpower Resources

Considerations pertaining to manpower resources and its relationship to education is a world-wide accepted principle essential for economic development purposes.

9. See Select Committee Report on Education, 1973

D.F.A. Hillary (1963) made this point clear when he submitted his report:

- "...(d) Those people who remain on Niue to live will do so more effectively the better educated they are. More intelligent use can be made of economic resources because rates of economic development depend very much on the level of education. An economic plan without an educational plan is unlikely to produce the best results; expenditure on education is therefore an investment.
- (e) The main task of education relative to economic development is to prepare people to learn, accept and implement new methods. What is needed is a broad general education to as high a level as possible followed by specialisation and continuous opportunity throughout life to acquire new skills, not forgetting the ability to use leisure time to good advantage." (1)

Manpower resources, as it will be used to explain its application to Niue, includes the total spectrum of manpower - from the highly skilled person with a long record of advanced education, to the primary school leaver, who at fourteen years of age, left school because he could go no further, and because he could no longer hope to benefit from it.

The effects of migration to New Zealand and other Islands have been growing steadily since the end of World War II. The drift from the rural to urban areas in the African and Asian nations is characterised by many factors and Niue is not exempted from this phenomenon.

(1) Hillary, 1963 p. 2)

One of the most popular reasons which explains the Afro-Asian experience is that of finding employment or a suitable alternative to working on the land. Another reason is to live closer to cities where opportunities for further education are operating, with a longer term vision of investment for the following generations. The Pacific Islands responded with equal fervour, which, but for the great distances they had to travel involving international boundaries, numbers in New Zealand today would have been greater.

Expenditure in Niuean education has increased ten-fold between 1955* - and 1973. In 1955, 1073 children were enrolled in the seven primary schools. (10)

By 1972 (11) 1274 pupils enrolled at the primary schools (including Forms I and II).* Niue's total population in 1955 was 4734; in the 1971 Census, 4,900 persons lived on Niue, then a much reduced figure of the 1966 total of 5,194 because of migration. (12) With these figures in mind, one is curious about the increase in expenditure which is not matched by both equal increases in proportion to population and enrolments for the decades.

The employment/wages and salaries structure provides another interesting speculation. A consequence of education is that of fostering the white-collar employment reality,** and the undying faith of the parent that education is the key to the white man's knowledge.

* 1955 is an arbitrary choice to minimise distortion in educational expenditure. A more realistic date would have been 1963-1973.

(10) This figure excludes the accelerate and special classes as well as the Side School Children.

(11) AJHR E.14 March 1973 p. 28

* See tables for figures AJHR E.14 1973 p.6

** One a myth, now a reality. White collar occupations mean *social status*

In the words of W.E.F. Ward (1959)

".... students in colonies study European Culture, not because it is imposed on them, but because they want it. Knowledge is what they desire. Because of this knowledge the white is in a position of authority. If they can learn what he has learnt, if they can pass the same examinations and gain the same certificates, no doubt they will be able to succeed to his authority. Hence comes their indiscriminating thirst for knowledge.....* (Ward, 1959 p. 61)

Each year more and more children are leaving school, yet Niue is unable to offer employment to most of its school leavers. The problem would have become acute and pathologically crippling if it was not for the migration opportunities to New Zealand. Even if employment is preceded by education, there are needs in opportunities for school leavers to use the skills they have learnt. This, in Niue, and is true of any nation, by becoming employed in an occupation where salaries and wages provide a secure alternative to building up the land. Paid employment in agriculture is limited only to the capacity of the planter himself to produce above his means of subsistence, and incomes from agriculture are considerably less than in even a junior government job. Walsh (1971) estimated that for 1971 'per capita income derived from agriculture and weaving account for barely seven per cent of incomes, while wages accounted for 83 per cent and remittances from relatives in New Zealand for ten per cent. A tabulated account of Destination of pupils who left secondary school between 1965 and 1972 below reveals the actual job opportunities available. (see Appendix 3)

The tables reveal a pattern which is not common only to Niue. A.R. Jolly (1971) quoting more extreme cases in Africa: Nigeria, for example, has some 600,000 persons leaving school each year, while the number of new wage earning jobs created averaged about 10,000 to 20,000. Again, in Tanzania, 1.25 million school leavers were expected over the five year period, while wage earning employment was expected to rise by only about 55,000. (Jolly, 1971) While comparisons should be in terms of relativity the pattern is still similar.

There are other discrepancies equally important in Niuean education and economic development. Urban migration which has absorbed a large proportion of manpower resources there are gross imbalance of skilled manpower in use. Education and training, writes Jolly, (1971) 'far from making up for deficiencies in skills, are often fitting out the future generation with all the failings of the present.'

Educational policies, both in formal and adult education programmes of inservice training are future orientated ignoring the present needs when the need to keep manpower resources ahead of change and expected expansion. Niue's position at present is falling behind the policies for development. The Training Scheme, for example, should have been implemented long before the 1960's, and even then today's policies are but desires of the Government to rectify past promises.

Niuean education and employment has always had a relationship that is both consumption and productive in nature. Employment provides a means by which an individual realises that his education has not been wasted, and in terms of production his contribution to Niue's Government may perhaps only be minimal in the real sense of the word, but at least it is within the bounds of the Government economic policy of 'skilled' manpower.

What is left now to be done before tackling the issues of School Curriculum and Agricultural education, is to elaborate the points already made, and to illustrate where possible with citations of other researchers which may help to state Niue's position with more factual information.

EMIGRATION: Effects on Manpower Resources

In a research by Walsh, A.C. and Trlin, A.D. (1971) the fears from a somewhat rapid depopulation of Niue was indeed cause for alarm. The reasons for migration featured in the document Table VIII, a sample of Walsh's Actual Migrants 1971-72, showed that, where McCreary (1969) attributed employment (35 per cent of sample surveyed in 1964) as the main reason for leaving Niue, and 33 per cent have family reasons for coming to New Zealand, the nature of migration had shifted in emphasis. For Walsh, employment accounts for 15.5 per cent, and for family reasons, 62.1 per cent. What possible interpretations could be drawn from this?

At its worst the employment reasons are selective in nature, that is in terms of potential productive manpower. The deficit in the able-bodied manpower is not as disastrous as it may sound but when a family chain is involved, it affects also the social structure of Niuean Society to the extent that it severed the linkage between Niue and its future generations. The issue that is at hand is that not only the productive manpower is affected, future potential human resources are showing signs of degeneration. In 1966 John Woolf (1968) recorded a total of some 8,500 Niueans in New Zealand, or about 11 per cent of Pacific Islanders. Migration initially favoured men, to women, but in recent years the number of women has been increasing steadily since 1956. Woolf (1968) for example showed that in sex ratio, females per 100 males in 1956 was 64.

In 1961 and 1966, this number has increased to 84 and 87 respectively. * The reverse happened to another immigrant group. The Cook Islanders began with an initial preponderance of females 103 per 100 males in 1956, showed a decline by 1966 of 91 per 100 males. What do these figures mean in the total picture of Polynesian migration?

Niue's case is special in that unlike the Cook Islands and Samoa who are able to recover population losses within each generation, population replacements have not been easy. The Scholarship students, upon whom the Niue Government relied heavily in the past, a large proportion have decided to stay in New Zealand because of the lack of career opportunity advancement in Niue and because of higher wages which initially provide the main attraction in New Zealand.

Migration means, in manpower resource availability, fewer people left to work in agriculture. In the village of Mutalau alone, Walsh (1971) discovered that of the total number (523) of people there in 1971, "66 men, or under 13 per cent of the population comprised the total work-force of males aged 20 to 59 years; 45 men were employed by the Government leaving only 4 per cent to work full time in agriculture". This is the pattern which is repeated in most of Niue's twelve villages.

In the Economic Development Plan 1966-1973 it found that there were 1,000 males between the ages 16 and 60 years. For the 1966 year 15.7 per cent (157) were employed by the Administration; casual labour accounts for 36.9 per cent, (369), while the numbers due to leave High School and 'assured' of a job with Administration, plus Teachers College students make up the remaining 7 per cent (39). The figures above represent about 12 per cent of manpower in Niue older than 20 years and younger than 60 years. This means an enormous 88 per cent are considered 'unproductive'.

* Niueans only

By 1972 the proportion of "productive" to non-productive sector increased to 20/80 per cent differential.

Where have all the young men gone? Needless to say the deficit are in New Zealand, having left Niue with distant memories of the past and of the very place they sought to abandon at the first opportunity.

'Expenditure in education is an investment' recommended Hillary in 1961. Apart from scholarship education which was provided for under a special budget financed by the New Zealand Government, Niue in 1955 spent \$38,542 on developing its primary education; hence all expenditures in Niue are the Island's total internal commitment to education. By 1960, it had nearly doubled within a matter of five years. Understandably, increased expenditure was affected by the building of the Niue High School in 1956 and the Teachers College, and the Education Department Centre in 1958. The biggest increase was between 1970-1973 when figures were \$257,671 and \$353,211 respectively. Universal secondary education meant increased cost in education, averaging each year between 12 per cent and 15 per cent of the National budget.

In countries other than Niue, expenditures were growing at a much faster rate. In Belgium for example the 10.8 per cent allowed for in the 1955 National Budget has increased to 17.1 per cent in 1964; the Netherlands increased its budget from 11.3 per cent in 1956 to 20.7 per cent in 1964. (Coombs, 1968) Both these examples indicate a growing commitment to invest more in education. In the African countries investment in education has been more costly than it was to their industrial counterparts. The achievement of Japanese industry was a result of compulsory and universal primary education which practically eliminated illiteracy by the end of the nineteenth century. Again, the Folk High Schools of Denmark and its emphasis on universal education that prompted economic development while the rest of Europe was tottering under the impact of agricultural and land reforms.

In instances the basis for development lay in the expansion of educational institutions fostered with long term views of economic prosperity. Africa in its hour of greatest need poured up to 40 per cent of their national budget into building up their education. At the same time of making primary education universal, higher education and tertiary education were attempted at the same time. In real costs finance was being channelled into building programmes, providing better teachers and encouraging more participation rates.

Niue's demand for education needed no promptings and inducements. Increased costs would have resulted in greater investment rates but for the New Zealand Government which mobilized its financial aid into helping its Dependencies find their places in the world. The Training Scheme in 1964 and the inclusion of Island students into the Maori Training Scheme were two such gestures of goodwill. It is of great interest to pursue the matter of education and its relationship to gross national products of Niue, but the present writer feels it needs the competence of an economist to do real justice in explaining the kind of terminology that is important to its special field.

Participation Rates in Education: 1953-1963

But for the effects of emigration Niue's educational rolls all institutions would have reached uncompromising proportions at much higher cost rates. The changeover from mission control to total Administration control of education in 1952 matched the demand for secular education. In 1953 there were 1,113 children enrolled in Niue's seven primary schools, plus an odd thirty or so in the accelerate classes. By 1959 the number has increased slightly to 1,269. At this stage a secondary school had been established taking the roll up to nearly 1,300 children of school ages six years to 14 years.

Education by 1960 was compulsory which added another contributory factor. Ten years later in 1969, 1,474 children had enrolled, including Forms I and II at the High School; the High School itself had over 300 pupils*. Although no further building programme had occurred after 1959 the numbers continued to increase but added classrooms were built to accommodate extra classes.

The 1960's and early 1970's could be designated as the era of 'diversification'. The term is aptly justified, not by what follows which is the increase of opportunities and some diversification, that is schemes with different opportunities, in the range and the types of opportunity available. In 1963 for example the Cook Islands were given complete freedom in designing their own educational policies. Niue followed suit with the Hillary Report which suggested within the specified 10 year period that Niue aim for education which is compulsory, free and secular with the eventual goal of universal education attained in 1970. It meant that each child is to have at least two years secondary education at which time he may find himself a place in the labour market or other alternative employment.

In the adult education field diversification in education became a rule of thumb. The New Zealand Training Scheme offers opportunities for development of a sense of professionalism, by upgrading the public service but more important to give teachers and other public servants wider experiences relevant to their respective professions.

Within Niue the Public Service (senior and junior) Certificates provided incentives for promotion upon passing of examinations which enhanced both salary and social status in the community.

The Purpose of the New Zealand Training Scheme

The Scheme was intended for the Cook Islands initially because of the increasing desire of the Cook Island Administration to attain a self-governing status which was finally granted in 1965. The benefits of the scheme attracted Niue and since used it to its best advantage.

The New Zealand Training Scheme is financed by the New Zealand Government at no extra cost to the Island, except in cases of observation courses where the Island Government were prepared to pay the recipients part of their salaries. The Scheme incorporated the former Scholarship Scheme which widened training opportunities and enabled greater numbers to receive higher education and specialised training. Secondly, it offered short-term fellowship to public servants on observation and refresher courses lasting from three months to one year where appropriate. Scholarship for secondary school pupils, after 1966 for Niue, up to post-school Certificate classes in New Zealand, bursaries for university education and long term fellowships for vocational training.

The implications one would draw from the Scheme are numerous, the benefits and usefulness beyond measure. It allowed the Islands concerned to diversify their manpower skills, to develop better understanding of their profession and their aptitude to their work, and to give them better scope to better their skills where applicable. The value of the Scheme manifests itself on the fact that it is more specific in its purpose than the original 'hit and miss' scholarship Scheme where their immediate concern was on formal education and the New Zealand School Certificate. It is this sort of 'investment' on manpower skills that will eventually pay itself off within a short period of time.

4. Economic Development and the School Curriculum

The Syllabus, adopted and adapted for the Primary and Niue High Schools is that prescribed for the New Zealand schools. Modifications have been made to adapt it to Niue but generally the end product has not been adapted successfully. Education means more to Niuean as a passport to employment than it is to the self-satisfaction of the participant - like the Scholarship award and the future it promises the holder. A claim is proposed here that Niue has spent too long in its educational approach making the Curriculum an integral part of Niue's 'needs' and so far unsuccessful in its attempts to define precisely what these 'needs' were. The present outlook is not dissimilar to what has been in the past. Perhaps in looking for uniformity in education aims in order to make possible planning and forecastings accurate, a recommendation here is to adopt a pupil-oriented curriculum rather than a National oriented one. The advantage of this approach will eventually foster in the individual that the school cares for him and hopefully in the end bind him to the conviction that he has something of value to offer in return. Now that self government is achieved the child's needs should be given a more prominent place in educational planning.

Niue's curriculum is also largely overseas (New Zealand) oriented in nature. Its end product reflects the origin of the syllabus, and this has facilitated emigration. A classic example of this can be revealed in most educational documents but more specifically the Economic Development Plan 1966-1973 which mentioned briefly how education can take part in the proposed projects. There is need then to integrate educational and economic programmes in so far as they are possible, mere mentioning in the plans is not enough.

Educational, Political and Social Development

Education's role in political and social development is more indirect in relationship than direct, yet its contribution is profound in that during the period of increased educational influence from New Zealand the Hillary Report in 1963 made claims in the education towards these ends:

- (a) The fundament right of each child to receive a free elementary education. (United Nations Charter) Universal secondary education is also in keeping with the charter and is the aim of most countries.
- (b) Niuean children as New Zealand citizens must be given the same educational opportunities as New Zealand children, in accordance with the Convention Against Discrimination in Education which was ratified by New Zealand on 12 May 1963 (EXTERNAL Affairs Pulication No 270, New Zealand Treaty series, No 9, 1963)
- (c) New Zealand itself is becoming increasingly Polynesian. More Polynesians live in New Zealand than anywhere else and statistics show the full future impact of this population trend.

New Zealand is already aware of, and is very actively combating a discrepancy between levels of educational (and social) development of European New Zealanders and Maoris, though both are given equal educational opportunities. It is seen that in order to correct imbalance and its attendant problems, more energy and resources must be devoted to educational opportunity for Maoris and the guidance of that education. (Maori Education Foundation)

In the Kingstone Report on the High School in 1969, these principles have been adopted by that institution. In reality the High School itself serves an important function, just by its existence, insofar as political development was concerned. The Kingstone Report attributed the Prefect System, team captains and other developments later to be replaced by a School Council, as contributing factors towards political development.

It may be an essential feature of the High School as a training ground for future leaders of Niue, but the very fact that it is a meeting place of pupils from the whole Island which is the key factor. Whereas in the past, primary schools were essentially village based and they tended to reinforce traditional ties between a man and his village.

To quote the Christie Report 1972 in this respect:

"A Niuean is first and foremost a man of his village. His sense of village is stronger than his sense of Niue. The language has been and still is the best common coin oldest and best unifier but village parochiasism is still strong, though this is lessening as public servants work together in Alofi, pupils gather together at the High School and because of emigration, young people are increasingly obliged to look beyond their village for marriage partners."

The consequences of education on political development are numerous, but first its task is to unite villages through a common ground and common understanding. As already mentioned the High School will eventually achieve this objective. It will also help people through the understanding of a language associated with, and complimenting to, English.

Since the vernacular has no equivalent meanings encompassing constitutional terms, the English language will help achieve this end.

The educational plans, inherent in the Hillary and Christie Reports, also encourage people to look beyond the Island for diversified relationship with other countries in the Pacific by learning about them, communicating with them, and more so because they can learn from them as much as they have done from New Zealand.

With increasing contact with countries outside Niue, the Island during the past century has changed considerably. More profound perhaps is the change in social organisation as a result of emigration which, since the official opening of the aircraft service in 1971, have changed the structure of family organisation. For example, the Report in 1967 of Niue Island Economic Plan 1966-1973,* it was found that there were not more than one thousand males between the ages of sixteen and sixty, of which over half were engaged in non-agricultural production. Using this basis as an indication of the diminishing manpower resources, the family life should be re-organised given the stability in political and social relationships.

The effects of education on Niue's social organisation has been cumulative since the beginning of Government schools. Children went to school because their parents wanted them to have an education which would help them fit into their places in Niue's future. The curriculum in the schools made them aware of life beyond the Island, made them susceptible to changes with new demands and new aspirations. New Zealand was a choice and an alternative to life in the plantations. Above all education, like the proverbial air ticket from relatives in New Zealand must be used, and the only place where educational skills could be used lay in emigration.

* p. 2

The consequences were changes in the Islands social infrastructure. The age distribution of Niueans left in Niue is such that about 20 per cent are younger than twenty years of age or older than sixty (Christie, 1972 p. 2) Walsh and Trlin (1972) reported in 1972, that while population in Niue had dropped in number by about 4 per cent, the Niuean population in New Zealand increased by about 37 per cent, 'a number representing some 80 per cent of Niueans resident in Niue' (p. 3) In May 1971 to May 1972, the population dropped from 4654, compared with May 1971 total of 4986.

The question which is now pertinent is how much in social disruptions of Niuean society has resulted, and what are those left in Niue doing about it? What does the Government intend to offer as a solution? Ideally the success of self-governing status lay in the stability of society organisation, and the community should be made aware of the fact that stability can best be gained under unification of future development plans and understanding of them.

Education and Political Development

Education has a function in political development that is to educate people to accept constitution changes because it became obvious by the 1960's that the need for new forms of Government if Niue was to pay more than a passing interest of the world around them. New Zealand's educational programme in her Islands Territories of Samoa, Cook Islands and Niue had concepts of democratic principles such as 'equal opportunity', built into it. Eventually Niue was to adopt this form of Government in its progress towards self-government, a status granted on October 19th, 1974. But first a look at constitutional developments from Niue's annexation to New Zealand in 1901, until 1974 when the ultimate in constitutional history was reached.

Clearly Niue will never become truly independent; association with New Zealand is still very much a part of future developments. The second part will discuss in detail the contribution of education to political development, and finally the consequences of this in relation to the people of Niue whether or not they would benefit from it, and by how much.

Niue's major social unit before the coming of the European was the family, the head of which is the Patu. Although oral history of the Island revealed the existence of a Patuiki (King) his recognition was one sided because his powers and influence were mainly local to the community he represented. In totality Niue had no chiefs in the true sense of the word; the Patu, or the head of the family, was the order.

From 1861 to annexation in 1901 the activities of the missionaries, notably those of the Lawes brothers, W.G. and F.E. Lawes the emphasis of the patu shifted towards the church. Generally church leaders were emerging as the nominal heads of each village to whom the family head looked for advice.

1901 saw the beginning of a long line of administrators whose duties were to look after the affairs of the Island. Legal provisions for the Administration of Niue was made under the Cook and other Islands Act in 1915. The Act provided for the appointment of a Resident Commissioner who was responsible for the administration of the executive Government, and an Island Council was formally instituted with twelve members (one from each village) appointed by the Governor General upon the recommendations submitted by the Minister for the Cook Islands. In practise they were nominated by the villagers themselves who by that time gently edging towards recognition of democratic right conferred upon them by the Act.

In 1956 Professor C.C. Aikman visited the Cook Islands and made recommendations which resulted in the Cook Islands Amendment Act passed by the New Zealand Government in 1957. Niue was included in the Act whereby provision was made to increase the membership of the Island Council, elected instead of being nominated as was the case in the 1915 Act. The Council's name was also changed to Niue Island Assembly together with a provision which vested the right of the Assembly to locally raised revenue. However, implementations of these provisions were not immediate. In 1959 the 1957 Amendment Act came into force; the Niue Island Assembly formally replaced the Island Council, and was given control over locally raised revenue.

At this stage in constitutional development the Councillors have not had previous experience in administration, let alone have much to do with control of finance. Nevertheless in 1960 a first secret ballot was held in the elections of that year * with all Niueans over 18 years of age. Further delays due to two severe hurricanes in at the end of 1959 and again in 1960 made it difficult to proceed with expected progress in constitutional development but for the intervention of the United Nations Niue would have probably been contented to leave things as they were. **

Resolution 1514 of the United Nations⁽¹⁾ stated that:

"3. Inadequacy of political, economic, social or educational preparedness should never serve as a pretext for delaying independence."

"5. Immediate steps shall be taken ... to transfer all powers to the people of these territories without any conditions or reservations in accordance with their freely expressed will and desire" (Parsons, (1967) p. 10)

* Parsons, R.S. (1967) (November)
The New Zealand Administration of Niue Island
Unpublished B.S.C. Honours Research Paper

** Ibid, p. 6

(1) United Nations A/Res/1514 (XV) December, 1960 in Parsons

Indeed New Zealand was given the "hard word" to relinquish its control of Niue's internal administration that it decided after 1960 to promote conditions in the Island conducive to constitutional development. Up until 1965 the progress towards constitutional development programmes were made in respect to the New Zealand Government, basically for proposed actions on its behalf, and for information purposes on the territories.

A constitutional Mission, consisting of Professor Aikman, Mr Jock McEwen, then the Secretary of Island Territories, visited Niue in 1965 and submitted a report 'based on the views of the Islanders.' (Parsons, 1967 : 10) Mr Frank Corner presented the findings of the Report to the United Nations Special Committee of Twenty Four on August 8th, 1966. Mr Corner reported on the progress of Niue in constitutional development, apparently concerned at the rate of progress which was 'very slow.'

"The speed of the proposed changes amounting virtually to full Cabinet Government by 1966, had raised considerable apprehensions in the Niue Assembly, which had asked for a team of constitutional experts to visit the Island and draw up a new series of recommendations based on the views of the Islanders."

(Parsons 1967 : 10)

A United Nations Mission which finally visited Niue in 1971 made submissions towards self-government proposals. However slow it might have been, Niue was reluctant from the start to accept the responsibility of managing its own affairs, unless they were satisfied with the promise that New Zealand's annual financial grant would not be withdrawn. In 1973 on October 9th, a self-government status was conferred on Niue with New Zealand legally bound by an act passed in 1973 stating its intentions to maintain aid grants which Niue had worked for its annual national budget.

It will be noted however that whatever political developments were made for Niue, implemented or otherwise, progress was made in isolation from educational policies. The implication was however that constitutional developments also co-incided with educational development as if that one is the cause and the other the effect. For example, the Hillary Report (1963) was the first major document in which educational objectives were made in, and by, the Director of Education upon the request of the Niue 'Government'. It is important to remember that the Report's A/4 recommend:

"A/4 That all previous regulations controlling education on Niue be revoked." (4)

"A/5 That ordinances be passed -

- (a) To define the broad responsibilities of the Director of Education and state the institutions to be managed.
- (b) To define a public school
- (c) To state ages of compulsory attendance
- (d) To state rules of admission and attendance
- (e) To state minimum number of days schools shall
- (f) be open in a year
- (f) To define a school week and to state the minimum hours of instruction per day

Recommendations A/1 to A/8 were implemented and passed in the Niue Act, 1966.⁽⁵⁾ The Hillary Report also recommended a planned and sound forecasting to be the purpose of the proposed developments and education for the decade 1963-1973.

In the teaching service teachers were given an added encouragement by the 1972 Christie Report which suggested that: 'the sense of professionalism should be encouraged in the ranks of teachers at every opportunity' ⁽⁶⁾ and headmasters were given 'freedom and real responsibility' in 1973 to organise and manage their own schools.

(4) Hillary, D.F.A. 1963, O. 12

(5) Christie, p. 1 Part I

(6) Christie, p. 20
Ibid, p. 20

In practise these developments can be viewed as a programme of professional and leadership training. As from 1973 the schools, normally the responsibility of the Education Centre, were the concern of the Headmaster.

At the High School, the Kingstone Report, functioned as a gathering centre for the Island's future citizens, supplemented with the use of the prefect system and the School Council, whose principal activities were based on democratic training in leadership roles.

Again the adult programme of the Government, and those of voluntary groups enhanced the understanding which led to closer unity. For example, the Women's Club activities and those of the Cultural Council have worked towards this end.

'A high level of education', Christie wrote in 1972, 'is not essential to the democratic processes in politics, but it does release the public from reliance on superstition, prejudice and slavish following of customary adherences' (p. 20)

Sometimes it is important for 'customary adherences' to exist, not because they have a contribution to make to society but they serve a stabilising factor in social control, and also a reminder of cultural inheritance associated with people who relish their past histories. The function of education in the school promoted what was generally accepted as an 'autonomy of the individual', or at best his ability to think for himself instead of relying on society to pass on values and beliefs to him, and he in return transmitted these to following generations.

The principle of autonomy which so much a part of a democratic process is still at an 'experimental' stage on Niue. It has not yet reached a stage where an individual could think for himself, without affecting the rest of the community. In comparison a New Zealand citizen is encouraged from the beginning to assume an autonomous role in his society; in Niue a person cannot without his family or his village.

This perhaps is the basic reason why parochialism still exists on Niue, it has its advantages but does it necessarily make autonomy a desired goal?

"For every subject in the curriculum a variety of teaching methods exist, some of which promote the development in children of the qualities of thoughtfulness, responsibility and willingness to serve the community."

(Christie, 1972 p. 20)

Without appealing to the sentiments of the 'curriculum and a variety of teaching methods', or that the curriculum itself is based on the New Zealand syllabus, and the 'teaching methods', education does tend to promote the qualities mentioned. In serving the community the objectives became contradictory because they were against the very principle of development of an autonomous personality and besides, the community itself were using its own means and methods to achieve whatever goals it needed.

The development and proposals for School Committees have undertones of a New Zealand based society and ideals. In an attempt to foster a relationship between the school and the community they are indeed necessary, and the operations of the Committee, such as elections for membership, shows the beginning of democratic voting.

The Constitutional Rules for village schools have been in effect since 1971 governed the activities of school Committees. During a visit in 1974 * it was found that while the village generally went through the motions of Committee procedures, there were still tendencies to regard the school as a separate institution from the community although functioned well as a practise for ballot voting exercises. Full understanding of their duties will eventuate with full responsibility.

* A visit was made by the investigator to Niue in November 1974.

Education and Employment

Education has a direct, as well as an indirect, relationship with Niue's employment structure. The direct relationship concerned are educational qualification; in that the higher the qualification, the mobility of the participant becomes greater. In addition qualifications portray essential differences in the degree of skilled and unskilled workers. The indirect relationships lie between educational output (that is the number of pupils leaving school each year) and employment opportunities available. This fact is made aware by the increasing number of pupils leaving school, (mainly secondary school level pupils) but the number of wage earning employment available were either decreasing, or as in the case of the 1965-1972 period, (see table for detailed figures) remained static. These two relationships are not to be considered separately as there is a mutual complimentary relationship which explains the nature and the characteristics of the employment structure.

For the purpose of convenience, rather than for their order of priority, the indirect relationship between education and employment opportunities must be dealt with first. Between 1965 and 1972 over 1,000 pupils left secondary school. Of this total 19.4 per cent found employment in the Government Public Service, while a further 2.18 per cent were absorbed into employment in the private sector. Opportunities for further education overseas accounted for 4.07 per cent, while 12.4 per cent who emigrated, did so to improve their education. The largest number, over 50 per cent (61.89 per cent) of school leavers could not find wage-earning employment at all.

Researchers, such as A.R. Jolly (1968), UNESCO teams, Rado E.R. (1967) Callaway, (1967) and many others found similar patterns in the parts of Africa they have studied.

Jolly (1968) for example, provided data for Nigeria and Tanzania which illustrated this pattern. In Nigeria, about 600,000 persons left school each year but the annual output of wage-earning jobs available amounted to only about 10,000 or 20,000. Similarly Tanzania's 1.2 million for the five year plan period could only create an expected 55,000 wage-earning jobs for school leavers. Generally speaking therefore, employment has grown more slowly than the number of school leavers each year. In turn, employment opportunities have grown more slowly than the output from the schools. The question which needs to be answered is 'How did the education system effect such a discrepancy and why in such a disproportionate scale?'

The immediate answer to this question reflects a social demand for education which after World War II, despite the careful planning of politically newly acquired nations, 'has a way of growing faster than manpower requirements' (Coombs, 1968). Niue responded accordingly by having established seven primary schools by 1954, one High School in 1956 and a Teachers Training Centre in 1958 to accommodate the increasing number of children whose parents desired secular education, with a long-term view of education for the 'alternative' security. This 'alternative security' meant wage-earning employment which was considered seriously because of the opportunities of bettering the individual's knowledge and skills and of the financial benefits from the reliable wage employment.

Bereday, G.Z.F., Lanwerys, J.A. and Blaug, M. (1967)

The World Year Book : Evans Bros Ltd, London

Articles in Chapter XVI By E.R. Rado 2

and Chapter XV by Archibald Calloway

Coombs, P.H. 1968 ibid

The second social demand factor for education is the stress by public policy which regarded education as a precondition for economic development. In particular Niue adopted this view with great fervour in the 1960's, but specifically for political objectives rather than for economic reasons. This fact can be supported by the evidence, or lack of, that although Niue could hope for increased self sufficiency in economic development there were no ways that it could become economically self sufficient. Hence the motive was essentially political, the desire to localise positions of responsibility held by New Zealand seconded officers. Again this pattern is similar to East Africa during the 1950's where politically motivated in the (Rado, 1967, 275) process of 'Africanisation'. The Niue Government proposed and implemented a series of manoeuvres to activate these aspects, even if to impress New Zealand or the United Nations, by introducing universal secondary education in 1970, and by accepting primary school enrolments to include five year olds. By increasing 'educational participation rates' (Coombs, 1967; 18) without increasing employment opportunities output created a bottleneck which the Government would have had an "unsolvable" problem, except for the fact that the pressure was lessened by the increase of migration to New Zealand. The problem may perhaps appear not in serious a proportion from a Government point of view, but for pupils who felt that their education should warrant at least opportunities for employment, can tear apart both the individual and his society through ambitioned dissatisfaction and sheer frustration.

One point worth noting as a result of the consequences stated above; it would be difficult to control the number leaving school each year but relatively simple to control the availability of the number of jobs available. Besides a growing difference between the numbers with jobs and the numbers without, the gap between the two groups in terms of earnings, standards of living and future prospects have also been widening rapidly.

To be able to see the point more clearly the statement 'that educational qualifications play a leading role in this respect.'

The level of an individual's qualifications as a consequence of his education, reflects upon many aspects regarding his employment prospects. The longer his term of education the better his qualifications, and the higher his standard of living, afforded by the income he earns which enhanced his future prospects. In this respect he is considered highly skilled and his mobility in the employment structure is also high. The general impression is clear as his educational qualifications command rapid increases in his earnings. Generally, those with jobs are also entitled to wage increases but in comparison with the semi-skilled and the unskilled agricultural sector's earnings are not subjected to considerable income increases. Walsh (1971) estimated that of a civil service of 'about 600, over a half are 'casual' (semi-skilled) workers.' Incomes from agriculture and weaving (that is, per capita) for 1971 accounted for barely seven per cent of incomes while wages accounted for 83 per cent, and remittances from relatives in New Zealand for ten per cent. (Walsh 1971, p. 6)

The unequal distribution in income per capita is a consequence of education which accordingly assign an individual to a station in the employment structure relative to his level of education. It is this widening gap in incomes that are the present possible causes for migration to New Zealand. The fact that remittances from relatives increased the conviction of 'keeping-up' by moving to New Zealand.

What then, given these figures and assertions, are the implications for economic development in view of planning for manpower resources?

Adult Education

Adult education is one of the two aspects of non-formal education (the other being pre-school education) which is at present becoming more important in terms of 'investment' in human resources. It is referred to under different names - 'continuing education,' 'on-the-job training', 'in-service courses', 'growers and planters re-orientation programmes', 'migrant education', and so on. These names suggest a vitality in Niue's programme for progress, on the one hand, by the Government to recover its invested resources, and on the other, by the people themselves who in the event of becoming a prospective migrant, may find the experience useful in New Zealand. Adult education for the purpose of this part of the investigation will restrict itself to Niue and its part in the Island's programme for development. It will be seen only as a supplement to Niue's total education effort, and while it defies simple categorisation and diagnosis adult education will be discussed along three defined lines. First, that the task of adult education will involve a vast number of people whose, after reaching the end of their formal school experience, skills learnt during their time will be used in one way or another. This will include those who are thinking seriously of becoming migrants but more so the planters and growers, the social groups, such as the womens club, whose activities are keeping Niueans informed of events and developments which may affect their lives and livelihood. In particular, the Womens Club which is of recent origins effected more for social activities and whose activities will illustrate its place in adult education.

Secondary, priority is now given by the Government to supplement its depleting personnel in the Public Services. This will mean upgrading of its partially qualified people - for example, teachers and other Government employees are offered opportunities both in Niue and overseas for in-service and overseas courses to increasing and improving the quality and efficiency of educational systems and of Government administrations.

Opportunities for on-the-job training also exist which at present, because they are less expensive to operate and they have more relevance to the Island's conditions, are of considerable importance.

Thirdly, adult education programmes are designed to prepare people for life and for expected social changes. In the event of a world which is constantly changing adult education helps to make the transition easier by making people susceptible, more aware and more adaptable to a society which is undergoing a tremendous sociological and physholigical change.

Adult Education and the Select Committee on Education

As with most documents on education, the Hillary Report, (1963) and the Christie Report (1972), adult education does not appear to feature as a priority objective for development. The Select Committee Report for example could only devote two pages out of its sixty page report on 'findings and recommendations'. Partly this may be what Christie (1972), claims in his evaluation of subsection H/2 'that the Education Department had seldom been invited to participate in adult programmes organised by the Community Development Section', and the fact that most adult programmes organised either by the Government, or devolved the initiative of the people themselves. One fact however remained was that while this may be the case, adult education has a relatively unimportant role to play within the structure of formal schooling, yet at the same time the Select Committee endorsed:

"... The School and the community should become allies in providing opportunities for learning regardless of age. The Committee realises that the barrier between the school and community is a very real one."

(Select Committee Report on Education, p. 13 Part III 1973)

At a compulsory leaving age set at fourteen years, most children, with exception of a few, left school without any hope of gaining any more than they did when they started. Three alternatives are open to them: one, they can be reabsorbed back into the community doing what their forfathers did before; two, engage in low paid occupations which were available from time to time either at the Government's or the private sector's instigation (initiative?) or; three, the opportunity to imigrate to New Zealand improved with the opening of a regular air service which started in 1971.

In 1970, for example, of one hundred and forty two children who attended High School 14.08 per cent found employment with the Government and a further 1.4 per cent were employed in the private sector. A massive 71.1 per cent could not find any employment at all, while 9.15 per cent found their way to New Zealand to look for employment relative to their level of education. The last 4.2 per cent gained scholarships to further their education overseas in New Zealand and, (a percentage representing Niue's estimate for future skilled manpower). The question which is now the issue, is what is happening to the other 71.08 per cent, and those before and after 1970? What could they do that would help them use the skills they have learnt while they were at school?

At the time of the Select Committee Report in 1973, Art, Woodwork and Cultural Council programmes appeared to comprise the total Government involvement in adult education. There was of course the controversial issue of imigrant education which is yet to be resolved, but for the majority of school leavers planting and growing produce for an income source, where before was a permanent occupation, today a temporary commitment.

It appears also that despite the best intentions of the Government, adult education programmes are still geared to interests outside the community interests for example, where the Cultural Council aimed at reviving the Island's traditional culture,

the opportunity coincided with the expansion of the tourist industry which resulted in culture being used for the tourists' benefits. During a visit to Niue in 1970, handicrafts were a popular money earner, the traditional war spear could be purchased, or made, for a high price.

The concept of being able to retain and speak English was originally to substantiate the level of education one reaches, it was a pre-condition for migrating and for conversation with prospective tourists.

Adult Education:

Agriculture Department; Agricultural Education

The Agriculture Department is influential in both formal and non-formal education. In the schools, advice in the forms of personnel and technical assistance are made available with the added incentive where the Western-Doip Shield is awarded to the School with the 'best' school garden. Agriculture, as a subject is offered only at Primary School level; more benefit could have been achieved had it continued at the High School as well.

The activities the Agriculture Department are committed to include new methods of cultivation, planting techniques, diversifying the export commodities, increase productivity with the use of new strain of crops, application of fertilizers, provide the necessary information on the market economy, plus numerous other relevant factors of agricultural production. These are transmitted through the means of practical demonstrations to interested participants, local newspaper with features relating to agriculture (it did have its own monthly pamphlet informing planters of other developments), the use of radio, regular film screenings, but more important a Field Day provided opportunities for both social and for information exchanges among planters and growers on Niue.

Another aspect of change came with exchange of information. Traditionally crop growing was dependent on availability of land and the secret formulas for planting the best taros jealously guarded. Today this information is readily shared as patterns of contact and communications improved.

However few the successes of the Department may have been, quantitatively, the fact is that its audience is easily convinced. For example, in response to market demand, in the need to diversify income sources, by introducing the passionfruit. Passionfruit pulping is currently Niue's leading export commodity. With success such as this no-one can deny the fact that the adaptability of the planters to cope with changing export patterns indicate some degree of successful participation it also showed that while people were aware of the needs to change, it made them realise that the 'proverbial' coconut economy is not the only export commodity worth pursuing.

The efforts of the Health Department are commendable. Health programmes are an integral part of the school curriculum in the primary schools. From personal childhood experiences and memories of standing in line with toothbrushes under the scrutiny of the teachers, children were taught to keep their teeth healthy. Regular inspections were held every day to ensure a sanitary degree of health. The Department operated a Health Scheme enforced by regular visits to the school.

In the community the Health Department operated Child Care Clinics both for children and for their mothers. Eventually it extended to their homes where health inspectors held talks on home hygiene, how to control mosquitos and other contagious diseases, showed films to illustrate their messages. Village inspections are held monthly and only recently incentives like published titles - "Village of the Month," were printed in the local newspaper which helped to induce people to become proud of their villages, and their homes.

Adult education programmes are more relevant to the community than the school curriculum. Achievements in community adult education are spontaneous, and the results often immediate. For example it takes nine years for a child to complete primary education, and a further four years to reach an educational goal, which even then, only a few could achieve. It takes nine months to reap the rewards of a planter's Kumara plants, or even less time to control mosquitos by keeping the level of grass down, or even to prepare a nutritious diet.

Adult education programmes have many virtues which unfortunately are being ignored because they do not operate on well defined principles and premises such as those of the schools. The Government cannot afford to run two different types of programmes at the same time, and incurring more expenses than it possibly could. Priorities in terms of reaping the benefits for all have been the revenue of what the early missionaries preached and strived for; to them the young and the old share the same goal and opportunities likewise were evenly shared in the community. There were no questions of dividing resources when both could be achieved using the same approaches.

PART IV: Conclusions and Recommendations

- A. Introduction
- B. Education Institutions
 - a. Pre-school Education
 - b. Village Primary Schools
 - c. The Niue High School
- C. Education, Political and Social Development
- D. Recommendations
 - a. Educational Institutions
 - b. Education and Manpower Development
 - Adult Education
 - c. Education and Political and Social Development

Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

Short of perfection, Niue's education system has achieved, in less than twenty-five years, most of its education objectives. To cope with the social demand for education, and to cater for the aspirations of children, parents and the community, a complement of seven village primary schools* were completed: by 1955, a High School in 1958, and a Teachers College in 1958. In addition provisions were made to offer higher education and various vocational education courses in New Zealand, Fiji and Western Samoa, to pupils who showed academic and vocational potential in preparation for Niue's future manpower requirements. These were the basic foundations which laid the pattern of educational development for the 1952-1962 and 1963-1973 decades.

New Zealand, the initial patron era in Education. The decade co-incided with New Zealand's insecurity with the United Nations in the organisations decolonisation programmes. It became apparent that Niue should be given more responsibility than it was already given in all matters relating to the Island's future development.

Educationally the "construction" era culminated in the Report on Education submitted and prepared by the then Director of Education, Mr D.F.A. Hillary in 1963. The proposals in the Report were to be implemented within the recommended period and the objectives ranged from Regulations to control Niue's education, to programmes designed for adult education. The implications of the Report affected areas of development relating to economic and social programmes, and drawn from both formal and informal types of education.

* Does not include the Niue Side School which was established for children whose first and only language is English.

Education on Niue was, and still is the principal influencing factor. Because of Niue's lack of natural resources, investment in human resources became the basic foundation for future development with the eventual hope that Niue will become more responsible in dealing with its own development programmes, and the direction in which it wanted to progress. This education became New Zealand's legacy to Niue - provisions were given in areas of adopting a philosophy suitable to the needs of the Island, and its human resource aspirations; the financial outlay required to maintain the education system: the curriculum and educational technology to promote knowledge and acquire the necessary manpower requirement skills; the initial employment of seconded New Zealand trained personnel to ensure that the system functioned within its defined limits; and finally, the implementation of extra education opportunities, in New Zealand and elsewhere, to prepare local Niueans in accepting responsibilities in different areas of National development.

From the "construction" era of the 1952-1962 decade, the period of ten years 1963-1973 was one which can be aptly described as a "dynamic" decade.

Unprecedented events in the 1963-1973 decade made Niue's education 'dynamic'. The increasing rate of annual emigration to New Zealand affected economic, political and social development programmes simultaneously.

Socially the cohesiveness of the village was drastically disrupted by the sudden depletion of a certain group of people, almost an entire generation in a period of five years immediately following the opening of the airport. Unsuitable village communities gave way to questioning of traditionally held values - where a family status was once based on products from the land, money, because it can be stored indefinitely, became a desirable mode of social status.

Education has made the community more aware of what traditional values are worth selecting to continue; yet, one cannot help but feel that perhaps by substituting tangible values for intangible ones needs careful consideration. The young people in the village feel restless because of the weakening elder control and whose numbers are decreasing with each Batch of fresh departures to New Zealand; their aspirations cultivated over years of forward education failed to materialise, and their autonomy acquired through the education process was lost in an environment which demands communal mores. All these plus the conveniences from being physically mobile to travel between villages may foster national unity yet the village parochialism still expect the young to keep what was traditional.

The economic implications of rapid emigration are enormous. Without adequate manpower resources Niue's economic development programmes, which depend so heavily on labour to make agricultural production viable, are reaching the state of immobility. The Economic Development Plan 1966-1973, for example reported an uneven distribution of available manpower on the Island. More than half of one thousand males on the Island economically unproductive units of labour leaving a small proportion to 'build up' agricultural production. Social instability from lack of productive manpower resources is tied to the Nuiean land tenure system, which practically made prospects of large land blocks for more intensive agricultural activity almost impossible. Machine operated agricultural production is virtually difficult, if again impossible, because of the physical nature of the land.

Two alternatives would help alleviate and perhaps, compensate for the lack of manpower resources. One, Niue's education would need to be more flexible in introducing a kind of syllabus which would cover much more than academic education.

Small scale entrepreneurship in agriculture would need to be fostered, practised and encouraged. The second alternative is to introduce agricultural products which have potential marketing qualities but also less labour intensive. Too often the Government introduce new methods of production and new crops which have a totally new meaning without explaining adequately to producers how to cope with them. The human aspects of economic development are equally as important as are the commodities they are expected to produce.

Population composition also affects economic development in the way that education's role is not only to provide a source of skills required, the socio-cultural framework is also an indispensable element of an infrastructure for development. If the social infrastructure is unstable and if people themselves are not adequately prepared to face imposing changes then economic development would find difficulty to progress from the subsistence to the monetary sector of agricultural production.

Given a stable political platform to direct Niue's national development programmes, progress would have been unhampered but for the instability of the village community, caused by social instability and general misunderstanding, on the benefits of education. During the decade under study, Niue's constitutional development was dependent on the education of its people and the implications in understanding prospects of becoming a self-governing nation. The pace for political development on Niue was forced upon its people because of New Zealand's delicate position in the United Nations regarding Decolonisation in the Pacific. Niue was expected to increase the speed of its constitutional development which consequently meant pressures in other sectors as well as in Education.

In the event of becoming depopulated, Niue's education had to serve a political purpose because everything seemed to suggest that constitutional development was perhaps the most sought after solution.

The New Zealand School Certificate, for example, was offered to Niue High School to enable students to sit for it without having to leave Niue at all. It appears that to suggest the fact the High School had reached a standard comparable to that of New Zealand, and that qualitatively the High School was ready for it. Again in 1970 Universal secondary education for all primary school leavers, as of right instead of being a selective process, up to two years at the High School.

The political assumptions that can be drawn from the instances are that Niue had to prove the quality of its education system, and it was the alternative solution since the New Zealand trained manpower requirements were not responding to return to Niue. Because too of the lack of skilled manpower resources, universal secondary education gave a larger scope in choice of suitably qualified manpower that were desperately needed to fulfil various positions in the Public Service destined for Niueanisation.

That Niue's education was primarily to satisfy political aspirations of constitutional development is justified. Niueanisation is not only involvement in replacing expatriated personnel; it helped create an aura of being able to do for oneself what others have done for one, and Niueans themselves do have a greater understanding of what needed to be done without knowing why. After all, it does make identification easier when one has a hand in deciding what one really ought to see decided.

This meant, as Christie's Report suggested that Niue is 'committed to a policy of bilingualism and bi-culturalism;' Education's role in these aspects have been clearly indicated - it will continue until such time as Niue would eventually implement its own school curriculum using New Zealand's school curriculum in practise and New Zealand's standards for guidance and evaluation of how the system is functioning.

Apart from the introduction of Niuean language and agriculture to the schools as part of its education programmes, the learning and teaching technologies of materials and teachers, Niuean education fostered New Zealand's educational objectives. The language alone in the classroom being foreign to Niuean pupils is an enormous hurdle to contend with. New Zealand's education philosophy functions to promote autonomy in the individual which in doing so enables him to contribute to the community in the way he feels capable and in the capacity of his ability. An 'autonomous' individual unfortunately is as foreign to the very character of communal living. In short 'autonomy' conflicts with, and is a contradiction of, a way of life Niueans have been used to and probably will last for a long time yet. Biculturalism should have provided enrichment, not eventual replacement, which Niue's present education intends to promote.

B. Education Institutions: Conclusions

(a) Pre-School Education

Niue's Play Centre movement is still shaky on its foundations, yet, in Villages where some are already established they are flourishing. Play-Centres are voluntary organisations with minimal interference from the Education Department and for as long as it remains to be so the institutionalisation of child-mother relationship will continue but at the same time benefit from experiences of play-learning and sharing of experiences which after all, play-centres should be promoting.

(b) Village Primary Schools

The tenure of primary education is seven years after which all primary school leavers, by the virtue of universal secondary education, are entitled to at least two years secondary education. The medium of instruction is in Niuean for the first five years with progressive replacement by English in preparation for secondary education.

All children are admitted free, at the age of five years, but compulsory admission has been attained at six years. All village primary schools are staffed by locally trained teachers, although, it was hoped that with the New Zealand trained teachers the 'quality of education' in the village schools would improve.

The rate of rapid emigration to New Zealand affected the rolls of primary schools. The figures below will illustrate best the point recently made:

Fig. 2 Village Schools Roll

1967 - 1971 *		
1967	-	1153
1968	--	1229
1969	-	1242
1970	-	1215
1971	-	1157

To exemplify the effect further; in 1967 classes 1, 2 and 3 recorded a sum total of 535 children. In 1971 the same number of pupils now in classes 5, 6 and 7 ⁺ have decreased to 465, representing a loss of 13 per cent in four years. In comparison, Niue's total population decreased 10 per cent between 1966 and 1970.

The teacher reserves for primary schools were also affected. The annual Report of the Education Department in 1972 recorded a 'faster than expected run-down in teacher reserves.' Whatever else these figures may imply the Teacher-pupil ratio in the primary schools have always been low often rarely exceeding a 1:20 average. Figure 3 will make this point clearer using Teacher-pupil ratio between 1964 and 1972.

* Classes 1 - 6 including Form I.

+ Redesignated Form I in 1970

Fig. 3 Village Primary Schools

Teacher-Pupil Ratio 1965-1971

1965	1 : 17
1966	1 : 19
1967	1 : 19
1968	1 : 18
1969	1 : 17
1970	1 : 17
1971	1 : 19

With an average teacher-pupil ratio of 1:18 any plans to expand building programmes would need reconsideration, and perhaps even the viability of continuing a Teachers College.

The status of Niuean language within the primary schools, although used in the first five years as the medium of instruction, is still yet to be regarded as a desired instruction/learning variable. Children, as far as parents are concerned, should be in school to learn English and the unfortunate consequence of this was that the primary schools, as are all formal education institutions were regarded apart from the village community. The School Committees, established in 1970-1971, were introduced in order to bridge the existing gap between the schools and their respective communities, but the preferred results have not been successfully achieved. School Committees function primarily as a transfer of maintenance function, for example, in choosing of a caretaker to care for the ground and buildings. The entire management of the school administration is still ultimately the responsibility of the Headmaster and his associated Department of Education.

Management of individual schools had been the responsibility of their respective Headmasters since 1971, and this move towards promoting leadership and autonomy in the schools was welcomed by Village School Teachers and their respective School Committees.

Niue's primary school system is adequate, given the fact that the kind of education offered matches both child and present aspirations. It is not, however, appropriate to the Niuean environment, in fact, far from it. With proposed plans to develop a curriculum suitable to child, community and National needs, in that order, perhaps the confusion over what Niue should promote in the schools will diminish.

(b) The Niue High School

The High School has important implications; economically it prepares pupils to fit into manpower objectives for development; politically it is a focal point of national integration which eventually will promote national unity; and socially as an agency in presenting opportunities for children from different villages to share companionship and promote contact with each other.

The High School is organised, very much the same way as any New Zealand secondary school, with modified variations. Staffing is maintained at New Zealand standards with most of the Senior Department positions of responsibility held by expatriated teachers. The Syllabus is similar to New Zealand secondary schools with emphasis after Fourth form level on School Certificate subjects made up of English, Geography, Mathematics and General Science. Additional school certificate subjects, such as Home Science and Technical Drawing were offered after 1972.

A Home Builders course, generally referred to as 'Special Courses' have had different designations up to 1969. Domestic Science, Woodwork and Homecraft, and Agriculture made up these "Special Courses" although it was found at the end of 1969 that there were little qualitative differences from the General academic course, consequently it was abandoned.

A universal secondary education in 1970 allowed all pupils at least two years secondary education at the High School.

The attempt to 'treat all pupils fairly in terms of both the old policies and the new' (Christie 1972) by giving at least a maximum of ten years education for all children, is still qualitatively similar to the pre-1969 policy of selection for admission, and streaming within the school. New Zealand secondary education allows for almost all secondary pupils to sit the New Zealand School Certificate. Built in promotions within the High School after Form III achieved the same results in that all initial admissions 40 per cent would reach Form IV, and half again (20 per cent) of that number into Form V. Upper fifth form contains a portion of the Form V entrants, (about 10 per cent, or those with a slight chance of School Certificate success) where admissions are based entirely on pupils' proficiency in School Certificate Examinations.

Streaming within the school is dependent on the pupils' ability in academic performance, especially in English. Pupils designated to the 'low stream' are given opportunities to pursue a course made up of agriculture, mathematics, domestic science, wood work/handcraft, and Niuean language. It is very difficult for low stream class pupils to dissociate from their designations as being 'academic failures', thereby reinforcing negative attitudes towards what should have been positively promoted. That is to say students in the lower stream classes became 'demotivated' educationally and most decided to give up trying long before they were ready to leave school.

But then, what is the solution? Are there fresh and stimulating approaches left? Because education has always been regarded as 'learning for employment,' the needs of the pupils were not accounted for in the High School. A work-experience approach where courses towards preparation for paid employment should have been implemented. Moreover oral English language would make pupils aware and confident in interview situations.

Additionally visual experiences through class visits to the labour market would give them alternative choices before they leave school.

Another approach would be to offer agriculture not only on the production aspects of growing and selling, but also on the marketing techniques, small scale business interests, supply and demand aspects of production, and making uses of cheap local building materials for use in livestock production, such as in building chicken and pig houses. This would mean restructuring the course content for the lower stream classes, and would mean extra staff, or else using the existing teachers who can co-ordinate these activities.

Niuean language, within the High School Syllabus, is not offered to pupils above form IV level, because of the popular belief that the vernacular would interfere with pupils' English-thinking patterns. The other normally held belief is that Niuean language above form IV level has little academic value other than its communication function. Both points are valid but only as long as references are being made to support the wider application of English, both for international communication and for expected technological changes. What cannot be excused is the fact that Niuean language has not been given its rightful place in the School Syllabus, and, furthermore made available to all pupils at all levels. Physical education and music, for example, are regarded as normal components of the syllabus and have not yet proved to impede intellectual capabilities. In addition Niuean language is subconsciously regarded by pupils as a negative progression, compared to the neutral status of music and physical education.

The Teachers Training College which opened in 1958 was responsible, for the training of the village school teachers. The course lasts for two years, at the college, under a New Zealand expatriated teacher, and a probationary period of one year in the school.

Intakes vary annually according to teacher requirements, (see figure above), but with present indications of diminishing school age population the continuity of the College is in doubt. Niue would need to consider other sources of teacher preparation, and if negotiations are possible with the University of the South Pacific, perhaps it would be more economical in the long term to do so.

The teaching service requires upgrading, not only in the quality of teacher intakes, but also the responsibility which will in the end promote professionalism in the teaching ranks. It has always been Government policy to "cream off" the most academically abled students from the High School to prepare them for proposed manpower requirements in other parts of the Public Services. Pupils who showed vocational potential were also "removed" with similar purposes. It left the Education Department with little choice but accept what could be regarded as 'second grade' teacher trainees. Sometimes in the past pupils who have not completed the fifth form level of education were accepted and the pattern has since continued. Not that one expected the 'poorness' in primary school teacher quality; rather its the principle of selection that was the issue.

Reference was made regarding the promotion of professionalism in the teaching ranks. Primary school teachers, even up to 1969, taught according to the Assignment system. Briefly, the Assignment System is a series of pre-arranged teaching units that a teacher had to teach step by step, week by week. Mathematics, English, Science, Nature Study, Reading and Social Studies were the main Assignment subjects. Under the system a teacher has to complete each assignment within a given period of time, normally one per week. Other subjects, such as music, agriculture, Niuean language and so on, remained the individual teacher's task to plan, teach and evaluate.

The most obvious weakness of the Assignment system was that it removed a teacher's initiative to make his own individual plans for all subjects, regardless of their nature, and the anxiety resulting if an assignment was not covered fully by the end of the specified time: An added problem was that teachers, working under pressure could not afford to allow for learning spontaneity which would have appealed both to them and the children they were teaching.

Autonomy of each school, under the leadership of local Headmasters, has partly promoted the desired professional attitudes of teachers. It will take time, given a suitable curriculum teachers and children understand, for further motivation to initiate learning and teaching units to occur.

The Scholarship System proposed to prepare pupils for further education overseas and eventually provide Niue with sufficiently skilled manpower resources to manage and initiate developmental programmes. The initial purpose of the Scholarship System served to satisfactorily maintain the quality of the teaching service, and to induce academically minded students to consider vocations related to the Niue Public Service. It became apparent however that with Niue's diversification in manpower requirements, the Scholarship System would also need to diversify in scope both quantitatively and qualitatively.

The New Zealand Overseas Training Scheme replaced the original Scholarship Scheme in 1964, which included higher education awards, vocational education in New Zealand, Fiji, Samoa and Honiara, observation courses both long-term and short-term for teachers and public servants, apprenticeship courses for mechanical, carpentry and plumbing; further training for existing employees in different departments such as Health, Treasury, Agriculture and Education - all of which indicated Niue's response to diversify its manpower resources.

Training of manpower requirement proved to be the least complicated part of the operation; the difficulty lay with the willingness of trainees to return to Niue at the completion of their respective courses. The fact that it cost New Zealand and Niue large amounts of financial investments to train the required manpower did little to disentangle the trainees's desires to remain in New Zealand. Remembering that Niue's educational philosophy co-incided with living and employment conditions in New Zealand, the choice to return to Niue with supposedly loyalty is extremely difficult. Attempts are now being made to bring long term trainees back to Niue annually in the hope that the ties with the Island are maintained. In the end the financial commitment will be still greater, more personal contact with the Niue Government, which is eventually the employer of all trainees, in the form of personal correspondence would be a better alternative. Trainees need reassurance, not threats with bonded agreements to return to serve Niue.

Finally, Niue's education system is still better than its neighbours in the Pacific. Good education is never cheap and the right kind of education costs time and money. Education's role must be defined in relation to the child's, the community's and to Niue's national needs. Politicians are eager to blame New Zealand's role in the past of educating its people; it would be much more to the point surely of planning an education system of the kind Niue will need instead of looking back at the faults which are characteristic of today's "politicians". Colonialism may have had its paternalistic attitudes but New Zealand's original role has always been welfare-orientated and had never pretended to be otherwise.

Conclusions

C. Education, Political and Social Development

Education affects the political institutions of a nation in more than one way. It helps to make people more aware of the need to have a locally orientated decision-making body who can decide national development policies bias to perspectives of national needs. Political development helps people to put some of their educational skills into better use as it is in their subconsciousness that there are desires to make use of some learning that they had acquired. Education is an agent towards integration and unity of Niue as a whole; the self-centredness of each village is no longer applicable to the changes the Island has been and is being subjected to. The Niue High School, the interchanging of teachers within the Island, the methods and teaching techniques of teachers being the constant variables of learning, the curriculum and syllabus content, all are unification factors in building up a nation.

Within the schools developed various skills; the building of attitudes to intercept, select and accept changes; the fostering and encouragement of leadership qualities among children and teachers; the School Committees' responsibilities towards the management of their schools; the Headmasters' increasing autonomy towards his school - all these play an important part in nurturing greater understanding towards the need for political development, and ultimately political stability.

With political stability, and given the fact that national objectives envisaged are for the benefit of all, social stability may eventuate. Socially people are increasingly more flexible in their way of living; better living standards improve as acceptance of what is defined and assimilated. Education acts on social development in a way that as people become more flexible in their thinking and in their living patterns where a state of equilibrium will be reached.

The feeling that one is 'educated' is sufficient to convince one of one's personal development, and as long as one has access to be able to use one's skills, such as achieving satisfaction in an employment, being able to read, write and to communicate in a world language, social justification is being achieved.

Education's role in these respects appeals to what people consider 'progress' is a social achievement; it provides ideals, objectives and motivation for progress, in changing attitudes, beliefs and practises which might hinder development, and in imparting the knowledge and skills needed to meet the demands of manpower requirements.

One however should be cautious of the process of 'Niueanisation' which is at present receiving priority in stabilising constitutional development objectives. 'Niueanisation' is partly the answer to achieving political and social stability; but Niueanisation for its own sake, without rational planning in utilising national resources, suggests an unsteady future. This is probably because the Government is more concerned with replacing expatriated personnel with suitably qualified local Niueans in key development positions of the Public Service. In doing so forgets about the individuals who occupy 'localised' positions - their egos may have been satisfied, but personal satisfaction in their respective occupations needs maturing, and maturation is a slow process.

'Localisation' or 'Niueanisation' may look respectable in terms political development, but the process should allow for education to produce sufficient manpower resources each of whom are skilled in respect of different capabilities, for replacement purposes should be responsible towards individuals who do not feel satisfied. This is a common feeling among 'localised' personnel - the need to be able to delegate responsibilities, in reality is sharring honours and problems. Back-up capable skilled manpower are equally important as providing maintenance services.

The Recommendation suggested here is that the "Niueanisation" process should be suspended temporarily until there are sufficient qualified local Niueans, but more generally to allow manpower requirements to catch up with political and employment aspirations.

Further developments in political and social organisations can be influenced in other ways by education. As well as providing for specific skills needed for performance of a number of occupations, education provides the socio-cultural framework which is an indispensable element of infrastructure for development in economic and further educational services. Education influences the social and cultural conditions and institutions, the land tenure systems, for example, which do not promote productivity, or promoting innovations; their local and central structures for self-government, and to encourage the shift from the subsistence to the monetary sector. It is further recommended that education practice and policy should be guided by promoting economic, political and social development through socio-cultural change broadly conceived.

It is very difficult for a newly emerged nation with a self-governing constitutional status to promote economic and social development policies, while the population is constantly changing in its numbers and in its composition. It was suggested by various studies of population movements in the Pacific (A.C. Walsh and Trlin A.D. for example) that education can and have produced unsettling effects on people. Niueans were not the exceptions to the rule of urban migration - the aspirations, produced by the kind of education practised, cannot be adequately satisfied in Niue. Consequently New Zealand became the focus for emigration, in large numbers, during the late 1960's. With the changes in composition and in size of the population, political stability remained to be the primary solution to social disorganisation. The education system and its policies will need to change structurally and functionally in order to promote social stabilisation. This would mean devising a kind of education curriculum suitable to social needs and a programme to reinforce social security by emphasizing customary patterns of behaviour that cannot be replaced by better ones.

Recommendations

1. Education Institutions

1. Niue should be involved in developing its own curriculum suitable to the needs of the child, of the community and of the Island.
2. An Education Research Unit to establish such needs should be implemented immediately because Niue must capitalise on opportunities while it is still in a stage of stability.
3. A Research Unit will save time, and money in the long run, if children, community and Island are not subjected to rapidly changing demands of society.
4. Localisation of the Department of Education is not the only solution to the problem of an unrelated curriculum. Political protocol must not be allowed to interfere too much with the education process; particularly of the learning process.
5. Pre-school education should be allowed to continue, and more effort from Government should be forthcoming in an advisory capacity with funds to establish necessary Play Centres.
6. Play Centres should be left to grow on its own initiatives and acceptance should be recognised that such centres, irrespective of where they are, normally reflect differences attributable to their respective communities.
7. Efforts should be made to retain cultural elements in all activities, and to take advantages of opportunities to visit other play centres with the purpose of appreciation and realising that there are differences in cultural activities.

8. Where possible Play Centres should use the language of the child's mother tongue.
9. That Play Centres should be a voluntary organisation, independent of formal education learning situations.
10. That Niuean should be retained as the medium of instruction in the first five years of schooling, so that children can develop fluency, familiarity and confidence in their mother tongue.
11. That the English learning programmes should be incidental in learning situations. It can either be introduced gradually as is the present practice, or a unified language approach where each child can progress from one stage to another according to his personal needs and capabilities.
12. Niuean culture and language not only should be taught and promoted, but reasons should be given for their purposes, and in pointing out significant aspects of their relevance in contribution to life in Niue.
13. An increasing amount of educational budget should be generated to research into, and application of, modern techniques of learning and teaching.
14. If a Niuean curriculum is to be developed the need to provide learning materials, such as books, maths equipment, and so on, will become greater. These learning and teaching techniques are only effective if their contents and presentation relate directly to and in the Niuean language.
15. The leaving age should be retained at 14 years as at present.
16. Niuean language and Niuean Culture should be offered at all levels of the education system and made available for all pupils at the High School.

17. That the present strict adherence to School Certificate subjects should be loosened so as to allow other subject areas relating directly to local environment to develop.
18. That the High School syllabus should reflect the 'needs' of the student. These needs include a Vocational Guidance Service relating to the labour market conditions; more frequent direct experience to reinforce employment aspirations, and vocational courses, such as home economics and woodwork, should be offered to both boys and girls.
19. The issuing of Leaving Certificates, as documents for prospective employers to refer to, should be maintained and continued.
20. Selection of students designated for planned manpower requirements should be taken according to student strengths not, as is the present policy, from successful candidates who sat the New Zealand School Certificate.
21. Recognising that the High School is an important agent for socio-cultural change and social integration, more effort be made to link the activities of the school with various village communities from where students came.
22. That agricultural education be offered to all pupils of the High School, and not as a last resort activity for 'lower'* class school leavers.
23. That agricultural education include practical demonstrations, integrated subject approach such as social science, mathematics, applied science, home economics and woodwork.

* Lower Stream classes.

24. That introductory courses leading to small-scale enterprises be included in the syllabus of the High School. Availability should be extended to all pupils of the school thereby decreasing the possibilities of Public Service monopoly of academically able students.
25. That a School Council, such as those of New Zealand Secondary School Councils be established for two important reasons:
 - (i) To promote potential leadership qualities in pupils which can later be useful in youth activities, and further extended to already familiar council patterns of Village Fono.*
 - (ii) The prefect system at present reinforces village loyalties which contradicts the very principle of social unity and integration of the school, and of national unity as well.
26. Since Niue cannot become self-sufficient in training all its manpower resource requirements locally, the present Overseas Training Scheme be retained. Selection of students for overseas courses should be based on two criterias: one, the student needs be recognised, and two, Niue's manpower needs should only assume secondary importance.
27. That the present proposal of retaining loyalties to the Island by bringing students back annually should be looked at more seriously. Overseas trainees in New Zealand require more personal contact directly with Niue Government and students should always be made to feel that the Island is important and are interested in how they are getting on. A personal letter to each, at least at monthly intervals, would be more than sufficient.

* Fono: Village meetings

28. Overseas Trainees should never be taken for granted. Bonding arrangements should be revised and better off discontinued. Continued loyalties are earned, not bought.
29. Agriculture trainees should be continued as is the present policy, but there are other places with worthwhile schemes than Western Samoa and Fiji could offer. Attention should also be drawn to training prospective manpower to cater for processing and marketing of agricultural produce.
30. The teaching service require extra incentives other than participation in observation and refresher courses. A tribute in adequate salary increments, on par with the rest of the Public Service, regardless of man hours worked, will improve teaching habits. There is an increasing awareness of teachers in the professional development of their respective careers, and while salaries and wage structures are biased towards other public servants, feelings of professional violation are detrimental to their attitudes towards teaching.
31. That the present teacher ratio, averaging about 1:18 per year, should be maintained. It does not necessarily mean however, that the schools are overloaded with teachers; the situation should be regarded as an ideal teacher-pupil learning situation and teaching relationship.

B. Education and Manpower Development

1. There is a great need for a Manpower Research Unit; there is no substitute for some form of quantitative manpower plan, linked to the country's development plan and estimating the numbers and types of personnel needed, skilled and unskilled, and the education and training they require.
2. There is also a need to establish an Economic Research unit to examine ways and means of assessing Niue's economic resources that can be linked to the quantitative manpower plan. A 'trial and error' approach which has been the general rule for developing agricultural production is too expensive and time-consuming.
3. The economic role of education must not be isolated from the social role, since education is one of the most potent influences on the distribution of income and of opportunities. Education as a means for development must not detract from its importance as one of the ends of development.
4. Education must be related to agricultural development - this does not only mean production of sufficient field demonstrators, agronomists and other associated skilled personnel, the school system should be reformed so that it becomes a useful introduction rather than a perpetual deterrent to agricultural production.
5. The Departments of Education and Agriculture must work together and not in isolated units. The schools should be invited to field demonstration days held by the Department of Agriculture so that children become familiar with activities in agricultural production.

6. Incentives and opportunities to use the skills people acquired from their education must be implemented. This means crediting employment opportunities complemented by a wage and salary structure which reflects the needs for skills utilisation.
7. The recognition that effective employment is not solely a deployment of human resources - rather it has implications in political and social problems. Priorities must be given to areas of production which also create employment opportunities at the same time.
8. Self-employment opportunities in villages should become a priority objective for development, since self-government can promote more opportunities for employment. This would require Governmental backing for participants, not only in terms of capital loans, but in providing courses which entrepreneurs can learn basic accounting skills, improvement planning, investment and re-investing profits, understanding principles of supply and demand, of price fluctuations in world and local markets, business techniques and communication knowledge.
9. Ad hoc projects with the purposes of absorbing unemployed manpower should be organised and planned so that the projects have meaning in terms of development, rather than employment for the sake of it.
10. The level, structure and distribution of wages and incomes should not be divorced from planning objectives for employment. The structure of wages, for example, must reflect differentials which correspond with the priorities of growth and encourage people to prepare for and engage in productive occupations.

11. Greater participation on the people's part in planning crop planting, land preparation and general understanding of maintenance principles. Past practises have been such that while new agricultural methods of production appear to have some practical merit, lack of sufficient communication in explaining how they work discouraged continuity and extended interest on the part of the producer.
12. Monthly visits, or occasionally when the opportunity arises, to watch demonstrations are not sufficient in themselves. More use can be made of other communication medias, on a regular basis, primarily for the purposes of frequency and continuous re-inforcement.

Adult Education:

1. That adult education programmes need a full-time co-ordinator who would be responsible in organising activities for interested groups, and the longer the term he spends the more the likelihood of continuity.
2. Since adult education affects most people, including young people, attempts would be made to allow interaction between the youth and older adults.
3. More effort should be made to link the village communities with one another and with Government departments which are in the end affecting their lives both at village and national levels.
4. That programmes intended for adult education classes should come from the adults themselves, based on their needs and their interests.
5. That a Youth Council on a National level be established to co-ordinate youth activities at local and at national levels. Each youth leader at each village be responsible for 'mustering' and organising activities.
6. Provisions be made to make communications between Government Departments and adult groups more efficient and on a regular basis.
7. Demonstration Day be allocated, at least on a monthly basis, to allow adults with certain skills, like basket weaving, and boat making to be displayed for public viewing.
8. Further research into areas whereby adults can adopt a kind of philosophy that would compliment community activities and ways of contributions to general development objectives.

Footnote: Some of the Recommendations in Part IV of this survey do not have references in the main text. The reasons for these are that since the surveyed period ended in

1973, it was necessary to go beyond this date to record some of the points which are relevant to the text. For example, in 1973, the Teachers Training Centre was still operating. Closure in 1976 meant that Niue's future Teacher requirements will become the responsibility of the University of the South Pacific. Another example, is the establishment of the Industrial Arts Course at Niue High School which is also under the auspices of the University of the South Pacific.

		Compulsory Education - Ages 6-14 years															
Primary Schools	School Age	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	Classes 1963-1969		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10					
	Classes: 1970-1975	1	2	3	4	5	6	F.I									
Secondary School		<div> <div>F.I</div> <div>F.II</div> <div>F.III</div> <div>F.IV</div> <div>F.V</div> <div>U.V</div> </div> <div>Intermediate Senior Department</div>															
N.Z. Training Scheme	New Zealand Higher Education	1963-65								1966-75							
	Teachers College ⁽¹⁾	1963-69								1970-76							
	Trade Apprentices															1971-1975	
	University of the South Pacific															1974-1975	
	Western Samoa (Avele Tropical Agriculture College*)															1963-1969	
	Other Pacific Territories															1971-1975	

* Reintroduced 1973 - Alafua College

(1) Discontinued in 1976

Destinations of Pupils who left Secondary

School between 1965-1972

Destinations	1965		1966		1967		1968		1969		1970		1971		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Government Employment	32	39.5	37	60.6	27	33.7	25	23.1	23	13.06	20	14.08	5	2.99	26	13.02
Private employment	4	4.9	2	3.2	1	1.25	1	.92	4	2.30	2	1.4	3	1.19	5	2.0
Further education overseas	11	13.5	2	3.2	1	1.25	1	.92	4	2.30	6	4.2	8	4.79	8	4.04
Emigrated	10	12.3	9	14.7	12	15.0	12	11.0	12	6.25	13	9.15	26	15.5	31	16.02
Stayed home*	24	29.9	11	18.0	39	48.7	69	63.88	133	75.6	101	71.1	125	14.8	120	63.0
Total	81	98.31	61	99.7	80	99.54	103	98.73	176	99.97	142	99.30	167	100.00	190	98.08

\$ figures not 100% due to rounding off.

* Some may find employment in Niue during the year.

Source: Adapted from Niue Government Annual Reports: 1965 - 1973

Expenditure of Education *1955-1973

<u>Year</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Percentage of National Budget</u>
1955	38,542	12 %
1956	49,782	14 %
1958	48,586	14 %
1960 - 1961	76,398	10.8 %
1963 - 1964	163,636	9.54%
1964 - 1965	202,004	9.5 %
1965 - 1966	252,598	11.2 %
1966 - 1967	233,864	10.2 %
1967 - 1968	240,533	11.4 %
1968 - 1969	262,302	14.4 %
1969 - 1970	257,671	12 %
1970 - 1971	315,500	15 %
1972 - 1973	353,211	15.7 %

Source: A.J.H.R. 1955-1961, A-3
1962-1973

* Internal Expenditure only: Does not include costs which are founded out of the Scholarship and New Zealand Training Scheme by the New Zealand Government.

Note: All calculations are in Dollars and Cents.

No figures available for: 1959, 1962, 1963

Fig. 1

Appendix 4

Village: Primary School Roll 1963-1969

Classes	1963*	1964 +	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Class 1	Nil	-	175	183	189	191	188
Class 2	Nil	-	192	169	174	189	186
Class 3	Nil	-	198	189	172	170	186
Class 4	Nil	-	186	191	181	169	169
Class 5	Nil	-	103	133	186	176	164
Class 6	Nil	-	75	102	179	179	174
Class 7	Nil	-	100	75	72	155	175
(designated Form I in 1969		-					
Totals	1169	-	1029	1092	1153	1229	1242

Teacher-Pupil Ratio	-	-	19.05	17.06	17.2	18.9	18.8
------------------------	---	---	-------	-------	------	------	------

* Total only for 1963.

+ No figures available

Source: Christie W.E. 1969
Report on the Education Department 1969
Niue Government Paper No 13 (69)

Curriculum: 1949 and 1963

1949 <u>Subjects</u>	1963 <u>Subjects</u>
Developmental	Number and Arithmetic
Music	English (Spoken, spelling, reading, writing)
Writing/Printing	
Social Studies	Social Studies
Health/Phys. Education	Nature Study
Ninean language	Ninean language (oral, spelling, reading)
Art/Craft/Tech. Instruction	
Arithmetic	Art
Homecraft	Singing/Dancing
Building/Manual Training	Weaving/Sewing
Agriculture	Woodwork/Agriculture
English	

Fig. 3

Appendix 6

Curriculum, Time Allocation and Classes 1972

Subjects	Class 1	2	3	4	5	6	Form I 7
Developmental	2.1	2.5	2.1	1.0	-	-	-
Niuean language	9.7	8.7	5.7	5.2	1.6	.7	.7
English language		2.9	6.3	7.7	8.8	9.8	9.8
Mathematics	2.1	1.7	2.5	2.5	3.3	3.6	3.6
Social Studies			.5	.5	2.1	2.1	2.1
Science	.6	.5	.5	.5	1.0	.5	1.2
Handwriting	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.0	.3
Art/Craft			.8	1.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Physical Education	1.3	1.3	1.0	1.0			
Health	1.6	1.0	.7	.5	.5	.5	.5
Singing/Dancing	1.3	1.1	.5	1.1	.9	1.3	1.3
Agriculture/Sewing					.8	.8	.8

Figures express units of hours.

Niue High School Roll 1963 - 1969

Classes	1963	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
Form I	71	70	70	74	70	72
Form II	41	69	70	70	70	70
Form III A & B	40	60	62	72	70	66
Form III 'S'	37	35	33	31	33	22
Form IV A & B	32	30	56	61	67	60
Form IV 'S'	30	33	30	29	33	21
Form V	24	29	35	50	56	67
Upper V				30	25	25
Totals	275	356	356	417	424	383

No figures for 1964

Fig. 6

Curriculum: Senior Department Subjects 1969 + 1972

1969 Subjects	1972	Time P/Week		
		Form III	IV	V
English	English	4.0	4.0	4.0
Mathematics	Mathematics	4.0	4.0	4.0
Social Studies	Social Studies	4.0	4.0	4.0
Science	Science	4.0	4.0	4.0
Woodwork/Homecraft	Woodwork/Home Craft	2.7	2.7	4.0
	Tech. Drawing/ Crafts	1.3	1.3	
Weaving/Agriculture (Form III-IV only)	Music	.7	.7	.7
Physical Education	Art	1.3	1.3	1.3
Music	Physical Education	1.3	1.3	1.3

High School Roll 1965-1969 (No figures for 1963-1964)Senior Department

Classes		1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	Sub Total
Form III	A	24	28	36	35	34	
	B	36	34	36	35	32	
	'S'	35	33	31	33	22	
		95	95	103	103	108	Sub Total
Form IV	A	30	29	30	36	29	
	B	*	27	31	31	31	
	'S'	33	30	29	33	33	
		63	86	90	100	91	Sub Total
Form V	A	29	35	29	28	24	
	B	*	*	21	28	18	
	C	*	*	*	*	25	
Upper V		*	*	30	25	25	
		29	35	70	81	92	Sub Total
TOTALS		187	216	263	284	271	Total

* Reflects change of policy

Niue Government Report Paper No 18 1969

Curriculum: Classes 8 and 9 (Village Schools)Forms I and II (High School)

1959 Subjects	Compare with 1972 Intermediate Subjects	Time Allowed
Niuean (Nil at Forms I and II)		
English (Oral and Written at Classes 8 & 9)	English	9.0
Mathematics	Mathematics	3.4
Social Studies	Social Studies	2.0
Nature Study/Science	Science	1.4
Handwriting (Classes 8 & 9 only)	Woodwork/Homecraft	1.4
Art/Craft	Music/Singing	1.1
Physical Education (Forms I & II only)	Physical Education	1.7
Health (Classes 8 & 9 only)	Art	1.4
Singing/Dancing (Niuean Classes 8 & 9)	Weaving/Craft	1.4
Music (Forms I & II only)	Niuean Culture	.5
Agriculture/Sewing (Classes 8 & 9 only)		
Woodwork/Weaving		

(Time unit: Hours per week)

Expenditure on Education for Period 1963-1973

1963 - 1964	163,636)	
1964 - 1965	202,004)	
1965 - 1966	252,598)	1
1966 - 1967	233,864)	
1967 - 1968	240,533)	
1968 - 1969	262,302)	
1969 - 1970	257,671)	2
1970 - 1971	288,357)	
1971 - 1972	315,500)	
1972 - 1973	353,211)	3

Niue Island Assembly Annual Reports

(1) 31st March 1969

(2) 31st March 1972

Reports of Niue and the Tokelau Islands.

Maori & Island Affairs 31st March 1973

NZHR \$ 14. (p. 23)

Bibliography

- BAUER, P.T. and YAMEY, B.S. (1975)
The Economies of Underdeveloped Countries.
London, Cambridge University Press.
- BAZINET, J.M. 1970
Report of A Visit To Niue Island:
January 28th - February 25th
- BENTON, R.A. (March 1973)
Letter to M.Y. Vivian, EXCO Member for Education.
- BEREDAY, G.Z.F. and LAUWERYS, J.A. (1967)
Educational Planning: World Year Book of Education
London: Evans Brothers (ed)
- BLAUG, M. (ed)
Economics of Education, Volume I 1968
Economics of Education, Volume II 1969
Penguin Books
- BRAY, D.H. and HILL C.G.N. (1973)
- Polynesian and Pakeha Education in New Zealand: Volume I
- Polynesian and Pakeha Education in New Zealand: Volume II
Heinemann
- CHALLIS, R.L. 1953
Social Problems of Non-Maori Polynesians in New Zealand
in South Pacific Commission Technical Paper 41
- CHRISTIE, W.E. 1972
A Review of Education on Niue.
Niue Island Assembly, March 1972.

COOMBS, P.H. 1968

The World Educational Crisis; A Systems Analysis
New York, Oxford University Press

DAVIDSON, J.W. 1971

The Decolonisation of Oceania: A Survey, 1945-1970
N.Z. Institute of Internal Affairs, Wellington

DOMMEN, E.C. (September 1972)

Proposals for Launching Niue's Tourist Industry
Department of Maori and Island Affairs, Wellington

HILLARY, D.F.A. 1963

Report and Recommendations on the Development of Education
on Niue, 1963-1973
Niue Island Assembly, November 1963

JOLLY, A.R. (1971)

Manpower and Education
in Seers, D. and Joy, L. (1971 ed)
Development in a Divided World
Pelican Books

KINGSTONE, C.A. (1969)

Report on Niue High School
Niue: Department of Education

MA'IA'I, Fanaafi (1957)

A Study of Developing Pattern of Education and the
Factors Influencing that Development in New Zealand's
Pacific Dependencies
Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Victoria University of Wellington

McALLISTER, J. (1949)

The Niue Island Teachers' Handbook.
Department of Island Territories

PARSONS, R.G. (1967)

The New Zealand Administration of Niue Island
Unpublished Political Science Honours Research Paper
Victoria University of Wellington

PARSONS, R.G. (1969)

Self Determination and Political Development on Niue
in Journal of Polynesian Society: 77,
pp 242-259

WALSH, A.C. and TRILIN, A.D. (1971)

Niuean Migration: Socio-Economic Background,
Characteristics of Migrants and Settlement in
Auckland.

Massey University: Department of Geography, 1972

WARD, W.E.F. 1959

Educating Young Nations.
London; Allen and Unwin

WOOLF, J. 1968

Polynesians in New Zealand: Selected Demographic
Characteristics, 1945-1966
Massey University Reprint

VAIZEY, John (1966)

Education for Tomorrow
Pelican

NIUE: Government Papers and Annual Reports

(a) Government Annual Reports: 1969 - 1973

(b) Department of Education

- (1973) Select Committee Report on Educational Policies
- (1969-1973) Annual Reports
- (1971) A constitution for School Committees:
A Progress Report
- (1969) Pupil Enrolment, Promotion and Termination Policies

(c) Department of Administration

- (1967) Economic Development Plan, 1966-1973

(d) Department of Justice

1967 Census Information 1961-1966

Journals

Journal of Education: Papua and New Guinea.
July 1965, Volume 3, Number 2.

Articles by: Adishesaih, M.S.

(i) The Relationship of Education to Economic Development
(pp 49-62)

(ii) Hanson, J.W.

Imagination and Hallucination in African Education.
Part II.

Pacific Islands Education: (1963-1972)

A Newsletter for Teachers Serving in the Pacific:

Issued by: The Officer for Islands Education,
Department of Education, Wellington.

New Zealand House of Representatives

Appendices to the Journals: A-3

A-5

A-6

Annual Reports on the Cook Islands, Niue and Tokelau Islands.

Massey University Reprints:

Department of Education.

1. Economic and Social Development in Underdeveloped Countries
(69/107), 1971.
2. Tanzania and Education for Self-Reliance
(72/850) 1972.
3. Fanon, F.
The Wretched of the Earth
4. Nicholls, W.H. (1972)
The Place of Agriculture in Economic Development
(70/165)
5. Vaisey, J. (1967)
Education and Economic Development
6. Shirls, E.
The Intellectual in the Developing Nations.