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AID IMPACT ON EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOLOMON ISLANDS:
A Case Study of the New Zealand Aid for Primary Education in the East - Central Guadalcanal constituency

Selwyn Kole Manetarai

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Aid Impact on Education Development in the Solomon Islands: A Case Study of the New Zealand Aid for Primary Education in the East - Central Guadalcanal constituency

Selwyn Kole Manetarai

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Development Studies

Development Studies program
Pacific Institute of Advanced Studies in Development and Governance
Faculty of Arts and Law
The University of the South Pacific
Suva
July 2008
A DECLARATION

I, Selwyn Kole Manetarai hereby declare that this is entirely my work, except for those sections explicitly acknowledged. Any other omissions and errors or otherwise, I acknowledge as my own and the main content of this thesis has not been previously submitted for a degree in any other university.

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ABSTRACT

Education is a way forward empowering people to become more self-reliant. It is assumed that an educated society is well-informed society that will in turn be resourceful and able to make constructive and sound decisions that would lead to development. Education especially the primary education is a fundamental component of development and a human right.

Achieving ‘Education for All’ is a challenge to most of the countries in the developing world. A rapid population growth and limited resources pose constraints in achieving the universal level of education by these countries. Most of the developing countries cannot mobilize their own resources to cope with the growing educational resource demands. They depend on external development assistance in bridging up the resource gap. The development aid is used by these countries as an instrument in meeting the educational resource demands. The Pacific countries depend heavily on development aid particularly from the Pacific Rim countries such as Australia and New Zealand. The Solomon Islands is no exception and it depends on the external sources of aid for meeting its education developmental needs. New Zealand Government started its educational aid Program to the Solomon Islands in 2002. The NZAID Program had allocated a total of NZ $ 33 million to support primary education in the Solomon Islands between 2003 and 2006. The NZ educational aid to the Solomon Islands is provided mainly to support the National Educational Strategic Education Plan, the primary education and tertiary training.

Despite substantial resource flow, the primary education in the Solomon Islands remains to be in poor state. The present thesis aimed at assessing the impacts of New Zealand aid on education development in the Solomon Islands especially on the primary education in the study area i.e. East –Central Guadalcanal constituency. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were adopted in the study to achieve the basic objectives. A primary survey was conducted in the study area using structured and semi-structured questionnaire schedules. Six New Zealand –aided primary schools were taken in the study. The main respondents in the primary survey included six head teachers and six teachers from the selected primary schools, forty two households located in the schools’ vicinities from where the children came to the schools. Apart from literacy rates at provinces some indicators such as
enrollment, trained teachers and their gender dimensions, and teacher-student ratios were analysed constituency-wise and school-wise in the study area to assess the primary education development.

The study found that the New Zealand education aid created new educational infrastructures such as class rooms, storage facilities, staff rooms and library resources and curriculum development in the study area. The aid was provided to primary schools in the form of fees/grants, curriculum materials and for educational infrastructure development. The study however, found wide disparities in terms of aid distribution, educational materials, curriculum and infrastructural development and teachers training. Of the six schools studied, all schools received aid in terms of fees/grants, half of them received curriculum materials, one-third schools received grants for infrastructure development and only one school received grants for library resources. However, despite failure in many fronts, the NZAID in primary education in the Solomon Islands has
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ABBREVIATIONS

ADB - Asian Development Bank
AUSAID - Australian Agency for International Development
AWP - Annual Work Plan
CBSI - Central Bank of Solomon Islands
CRRP- Curriculum Review and Reform Programme
DOES - Digest of Education Statistics
EEZ - Exclusive Economic Zone
ESIRP - Education Sector Investment and Reform Program
ESP – Education Sector Program
ESP - Education Strategic Plan
EU - European Union
FCAE - Fiji College of Advanced Education
FICs – Forum Island Countries
PIFCs – Pacific Islands Forum Countries
GDP - Gross Domestic Product
GPEA - Guadalcanal Province Education Division
GNP - Gross National Product
GP- Guadalcanal Province
GPEA - Guadalcanal Province Education Authority
IMF - International Monetary Fund
IFM - Isatabu Freedom Movement
IPU - Implementation and Planning Unit
MDG - Millennium Development Goal
MEF- Marau Eagle Force
MEHRD-Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development
MOU – Memorandum of Understanding.
NERRD - National Economic Recovery, Reform and Development Plan
NGO – Non-Governmental Organization
NIDP - National Infrastructure Development Programme
NRCO - National Resource Center Office
NTTC - National Teacher Training Coordinator
NTTDP - National Teacher Training and Development Programme
NZAID - New Zealand Agency for International Development
ODA - Official Development Assistance
OECD - Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PICs - Pacific Islands Countries
PNG - Papua New Guinea
PPP - Peoples Progressive Party
PRIDE - Pacific Regional Initiatives for the Delivery of Basic Education
RAMSI - Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands
ROC - Republic of China
SAP - Structural Adjustment Program
SBD - Solomon Dollar
SDA - Seventh Day Adventists
SIAC- Solomon Islands Alliance for Change Coalition
SICHE – Solomon Islands College of Higher Education
SIG - Solomon Islands Government
SIBC - Solomon Islands Broadcasting Cooperation
SINEAP - Solomon Islands National Education Action Plan
SSEC - South Seas Evangelical Church
UBE - Universal Basic Education
UN - United Nations
UNDP - United Nations Development Program
UNICEF - United Nations Children's Fund
USP - University of the South Pacific
WB - World Bank
WHO - World Health Organisation
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the importance and role of education in the developing countries. It briefly discusses some major aid donors and role of education in development and aid in the Pacific and the Solomon Islands. This chapter also outlines the objectives, rationale and the significance of the study.

1.1 Background

Education is a fundamental component of development. Most of the third World countries show disparities in terms of educational development. Some countries cannot cope with population growth and the demand for educational services. So education assistance is sought by most developing countries. Educational aid is provided to improve the educational services in order to address the social, political and economical needs of the society. It is generally assumed that education aid helps in human resource development and in turn the overall development in a country.

It is generally accepted that it is the human resource of a nation, and not its raw materials or capital, that determine and ultimately shape the pattern, and character of its economic, social and political development (Schumacher, 1976, Simmons, 1979, Psacharopoulos & Woodhall, 1995 cited in Luteru, 1991). When the colonial era came to an end and the world turned its attention to the problems of the poorer majority of mankind, the initial prognosis was perceived to be the lack of investment capacity to facilitate economic growth. This view was soon dispelled through the experiences of the developing countries and the subsequently discover that the problem lies elsewhere, prominently in the field of human resources (Singer, 1975:133). Development theorists shifted their attention to the human resource development rather than just economic growth. Harbison (1973), emphasies that
human resource - not capital, not income, or material resources- constitutes the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations. Capital and natural resources are only passive factors of production; human resources are the active elements which accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations, and carry forward national development. According to Harbison (1973), clearly a country that is unable to develop skills and knowledge of its people and utilize them effectively, the national economy will be unable to develop in the long run.

Aid has played a major role in Third World Countries. It is crucial in facilitating development goals in these countries. It is also influential in facilitating development to meet basic needs and the economic and social development. Development aid has greatly enhanced various governmental reform activities in many countries in the South and Southeast Asia. This is very obvious in the case of financial institutions such as the World Bank (WB), International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the Asian Development Bank (ADB). However development aid goes beyond development assistance.

Donor aid policy toward educational development cannot be totally divorced from overall aid programs. The allocation of aid and resources to the education sector affects the amounts available to the other sectors, in recipients’ economies.

How much and where aid resources are utilized in the education sector depends primarily on how much donors perceive such assistance as achieving their various motives for aid-giving and the priority recipients attach to education as opposed to the competing sectors for aid resources. Other factors that may impinge on this issue include the claim that educational aid, by its very nature, is hard to account for, administered, implemented and assessed. On the other hand, the familiar arguments in favour of educational aid cover such issues as high returns compared with investment in other areas, as its positive effects are on poverty alleviation and basic needs satisfactions (Luteru, 1991:61).

In the context of the Pacific Islands countries, aid is given to assist and fill up the resource gap that is caused due to limited availability of capital and skilled human resources. Many aid donors have argued that despite the continuous aid, there has been little improvement as expected. Hughes (2002), in an analysis states that aid has failed to achieve its objectives in
the Pacific. Since 1973, the Pacific countries have received a $100 billion aid. However, for most people’s life is no better than it was 25 years ago.

Hindson (1987) in a study on education aid to the Pacific has highlighted some of the difficulties that needed to be addressed. One of them, and a continuing problem and a difficult one to solve, is that of accountability of local administrators and educators. Many educational programs are fixed periods, with funding being carefully costed and controlled by donors, which raises the issue of sustainability and continuity and ability of the south Pacific. The other problem according to Hindson (1987), is the relevance of teacher’s resources and students materials. Learning materials that come as aid may only be relevant to the donor country. However, the biggest criticism about aid is that it can be paternalistic and promotes dependency (Hindson, 1987:39).

In Solomon Islands, aid given for education is not well monitored and properly supervised. The mismanagement of funds has gravely affected the education sector in Solomon Islands. This has been so in the provinces like Temotu, where buildings that were intended for classrooms were never completed under the World Bank Aid for education to the Solomon Islands in the early 1980s (Wiert, 1980). The incompletion of these buildings deprives primary - aged children the opportunity to access to decent learning classrooms. Such instances have seriously affected primary education in the rural communities.

Pacific countries have a varied economic and social development including education. Among the Pacific Countries, Solomon Islands have low Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita; high infant mortality, low literacy for both male and female, and a low human development. In the education sector in Solomon Islands, there exists a low level school enrolment as well very high female adult illiteracy. The current state of educational development in Solomon Islands in particular is very poor. The literacy rate is low compared to other Pacific island countries (see Table1.1). There exists in the country a gender imbalance in terms of educational levels and school enrolment patterns. In the provinces there is also a wide variation in educational development. For instance, in 2007, the number of registered primary schools in Malaita was 130, Western province was 104, Isabel 25 and Renbel only 9 (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (MEHRD, 2007).
Solomon Islands acknowledge that education plays a very important role in society. Like any other developing country, Solomon Islands value highly the education in the rural areas and spends a bulk of its income on school expenses (New Zealand Government, 2004). Under the Solomon Islands Government’s National Economic Recovery, Reform and Development Plan (NERRDP) the Ministry of Education help to alleviate poverty by contributing to economic growth, raising incomes, improving health, lowering fertility rates and better nutrition and contributing to improved governance and bridging disparities. An educated society enhances sound choices and decision - making by citizens. According to King (1991), educational development in the Third World is essential for economic stability and growth

The previous Solomon Islands Governments, through the Ministry of Education have tried to improve the literacy level by increasing the number of primary and secondary schools. The hope is to create more space to cater for the growing population. However, the literacy level and the literate population is still remain low according to the United Nation Development Programs Pacific Islands Human Development Report, 1999. The country’s population then stood at 417.8 thousand with literacy rate of 39 percent of the male population and 20 percent for the female population. A gender imbalance in the gross school enrolment did exist in Solomon Islands and it was about 38 percent and 31 percent for the male and female respectively (UNDP, 1999).
Table 1. 1 Social Development Indicators in Selected Pacific Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Pop. size (000)</th>
<th>Annual pop. growth Rate 1990-98 (%)</th>
<th>Life expectancy at birth (Yr)</th>
<th>IMR Per 1000 live birth</th>
<th>Adult literacy rate (%)</th>
<th>Combined gross school Enrollment (%)</th>
<th>GDP ($US)</th>
<th>HDI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fiji</td>
<td>797.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>M 65 F 69</td>
<td>M 16 F 95</td>
<td>M 80 F 83</td>
<td>2,684</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td>174.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>M 65 F 67</td>
<td>M 22 F 96</td>
<td>M 84 F 88</td>
<td>1,060</td>
<td>0.590</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td>417.8</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>M 64 F 66</td>
<td>M 38 F 39</td>
<td>M 38 F 31</td>
<td>926</td>
<td>0.371</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>182.5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>M 64 F 67</td>
<td>M 45 F 37</td>
<td>M 60 F 65</td>
<td>1,231</td>
<td>0.425</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In addition to these factors, population continues to increase in Solomon Islands. The teaching and learning resources in schools have not been equally provided to meet the demand of the growing population in the country as a whole. Besides, the lack of basic and necessary education infrastructure is also a hindering factor. These factors contribute significantly to the low literacy level and an imbalance in the enrolments in the schools in the country. The current poor state of educational development and resource scarcity in meeting the growing demand in Solomon Islands thus called for external aid assistance. The external educational assistance from donor partners is intended to assist Solomon Islands to improve its educational services. Education is a key component of the current Solomon Islands Government plan. Educational aid is primarily intended for national teacher’s training, curriculum and review and reform, schools materials and storage, infrastructure for all schools in Solomon Islands.

The European Union, the Australian Government and the New Zealand Government are the active and major aid donors to the education sector in Solomon Islands. New Zealand Government started educational aid package to Solomon Islands in 2002. Under the NZ Aid package for Solomon Islands for the period 2004 to 2006, one million dollars was ear -
marked for capacity building (New Zealand Government, 2004). This approach is expected to have positive effects on development in Solomon Islands and particularly, the educational development.

A refocusing of aid along lines suggested earlier will not magically provide solutions to the dilemmas of diversification, nor will it answer that aid of any sort is paternalistic and effectiveness and improve local curriculum materials and improve education opportunities. These are also some of the aims of educational Aid.

1.2 Rationale

Primary education is important for Solomon Islands. Increasingly, there has been a significant flow of educational aid to the primary education sector during the post-conflict period, especially by the New Zealand Government, the Australian government and the European Union. Despite the huge flow of aid money to the primary sector, there is little study done on assessing the effectiveness of educational aid on the overall educational development and primary education in particular. A systematic study to reflect on the impacts of educational aid on educational development in Solomon Islands is lacking. So there is a greater need for a systematic study to assess the impact of educational aid on primary education with particular attention to New Zealand aid at the primary school level in Solomon Islands. The present study intends to bridge up this knowledge gap and deals with New Zealand aid in Primary education in Solomon Islands.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objectives of the study is to assess the impact of New Zealand educational aid in educational development especially development in primary education in Solomon Islands.

More specifically the study aims:
- To study the level of education in provinces and by gender in the Solomon Islands.
- To give an overview of the state of primary education and educational development especially in Guadalcanal province in the Solomon Islands.
- To study the state of primary education in the east – central Guadalcanal constituency.
- To study the volume and nature of New Zealand educational aid especially in primary education in Solomon Islands since the year 2002.
- To examine the utilisation patterns of New Zealand aid in education sector and forms of NZAID to primary schools.
- To examine the constraints in educational development in east – central Guadalcanal constituency.
- To assess the impacts of New Zealand aid on primary education in Solomon Islands.
- To recommend some policy issues based on the study findings.

1.4 Data and Brief Methodology

The sources of data for this thesis are from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data were obtained from the fieldwork. A filed work research was carried out in the eastern part of the East- Central Guadalcanal Constituency. The filed work was carried out by questionnaire method covering six primary schools. Interviews were conducted with staff from Guadalcanal education division, the staff from the New Zealand High commission and the staff of the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (MEHRD) in Honiara. The secondary data sources were obtained from various government reports and publications and internet sources. Data obtained are then analysed and tabulated. The analysis involves descriptive and qualitative methods. A detailed explanation of methodology is dealt separately in chapter three.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study is expected to contribute to the existing body of knowledge by linking the educational aid and its impact on educational development, especially in the primary education in the small island countries of the Pacific and particularly in the Solomon Islands.
For the rural populace the study will help to realize the importance of accessing education and the possible benefits they received through aid. They should therefore embrace the assistance through better sense of ownership and high level of care for public goods and services.

The findings will assist educational planners and other policy makers to appreciate the nature, importance and factors that influence educational aid. It should give them more insight of how rural educational planning and aid should be further coordinated to maximize the benefits to the rural population.

For the donor, the study will help to further improve education aid programme fruitfully to serve the interests of the rural societies in the Pacific Islands, in particular the Solomon Islands where 12.5 million dollar educational aid project has been allocated for the year 2004 to 2006 (New Zealand Government, 2004).

1.6 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is divided in to six chapters. The first chapter is an introduction, which deals with the aid in relation to Solomon Islands context, objectives, rationale, methodology and the significant of the study.

The second chapter presents with the conceptual framework and the theoretical discussion on aid. It also deals with the review of inter – linkages of basic concepts with educational aid. The chapter also provides a detailed review of literature on works done previously on the education aid in the Pacific Island countries particularly in the context of Solomon Islands.

The third chapter outlines the research methodological approaches and detailed methodologies employed in carrying out the study. The chapter also deals with the study area, and the selection of the study area, time period and the limitations of the study.
Chapter four provides the background information on Solomon Islands with particular reference to geography, culture, demography, economy, education and human resource, and development aid and so on.

Chapter five interprets and analyses of data and findings obtained from fieldwork or research work on New Zealand aid to primary schools on East - Central Guadalcanal constituency.

Chapter six is the concluding chapter. It summarises the broad findings and implications of the thesis. It also provides some recommendations. Lastly, it provides some tips for future researchers by identifying lacunae in present research and future study areas on the subject.
CHAPTER TWO

AID AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the conceptual framework, it provides a review of literature and discussions on aid and education development. This chapter has two parts: The first part provides a framework for the idea of aid by exploring the linkages with development and education. It attempts to explain how aid is used as development strategy in developing countries in general and in Solomon Islands. The second part reviews the literature on education in the Pacific and Solomon Islands. This is important because it will set the context in which the study is to be analysed.

2.1 Development Aid

The Wikipedia (2007) defines development aid as: the aid given by bilateral government and multilateral agencies to support the economic, social and political development of developing countries. Development aid may come from developed or developing country governments as well as from international organizations such as the World Bank. Development aid is distinguished from humanitarian aid as being aimed at alleviating poverty in the long term, rather than alleviating suffering in the short term. Some governments include military assistance in the notion of "foreign aid". The countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), mainly made up of the developed nations of the world, have committed to providing a certain level of development assistance to underdeveloped countries. This is called Official Development Assistance (ODA), and is given by governments on certain concessional terms. It is given by governments through individual countries' international aid agencies (bilateral aid), through multilateral agencies such as the UN systems and World Bank, or through development NGOs such as for example Oxfam. However, for many Pacific islanders when the term aid is translated to their vernacular the resulting meanings imply notions of
assistance, generosity, respect, sharing and compassion, which in and of themselves tend to be the antithesis of ideas associated with the big business of aid (Sanga, 2005:20).

2.1.1 Types and Purposes of Aid

Foreign aid involves a transfer of financial resources or commodities (e.g., food or military equipment) or technical advice and training. The resources take the form of grants, loans or concessional credits (e.g. export credits). The most common type of foreign aid is official development assistance (ODA), which is assistance given to promote development and to combat poverty. The primary source of ODA is mainly bilateral, though some of the aid is in the form of loans, and sometimes the aid is channeled through nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). For example, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank, and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) have provided significant amounts of aid to countries and to NGOs involved in assistance activities.

Donor countries often provide aid to enhance their own security. Thus, economic assistance may be used to prevent friendly governments from falling under the influence of unfriendly ones or as payment for the right to establish or use military bases on foreign soil. Foreign aid can be used to achieve a country's diplomatic goals, enabling it to gain diplomatic recognition, to gain support for its positions in international organizations, or to increase its diplomats' access to foreign officials. A good example of this would be the Republic of Taiwan (ROC) relationship with Solomon Islands and other five Pacific Islands countries that supported its call for recognition in the UN Assembly. The countries received millions of dollars in financial assistance. For instance, the Solomon Islands Government received from ROC, 10-million dollars quarterly towards the Constituency and Rural Development Fund (Solomon Islands Broadcasting Cooperation News, 2007b).

Other purposes of foreign aid include promoting a country's exports (e.g., through programs that require the recipient country to use the aid to purchase the donor country's agricultural products or manufactured goods) and spreading its language, culture, or religion. Some donor countries provide aid to relieve suffering caused by natural or man-made disasters such as famine, disease, and war, to promote economic development, to help establish or
strengthen political institutions, and to address a variety of transnational problems including disease, terrorism and other crimes, and destruction of the environment. Most foreign aid programs are designed to serve several of these purposes simultaneously therefore it is difficult to identify any one of them as most important (Britannica, 2007).

2.2 Aid and Development

The flow of money or resources transferred from one country or a funding institution to another is not a new phenomenon. International development emerged as one of the strategies employed to achieve equal rights between men and women and between prosperous nations and poor countries. It was actively promoted with the framework of democratic principles of individual self-determination and equal rights and opportunities. In the 1950s and the post – world war II period of reconstruction, the western economic development planners were convinced that aid based strategic planning would enable developing countries to bridge up the gap that separated them from the industrial world. Developed nations committed themselves to monetary and technical aid channeled through the United Nations (UN) agencies, and later through direct and bilateral programs, based on the theory that this aid would foster economic growth that would trickle down to the masses. Neoclassical economic theorist and planners argued that this strategy would ultimately benefit the poor and transform the economies of developing countries (Taufe’ulunaki, 2002:7).

2.3 Development and Development Model

The contemporary idea of ‘development’ has become a topical and important only in the post – World War II period. It was a result of the growing awareness of the differences in the quality of life and degree of ‘development’ or modernisation between the nations of the World. This awareness gave rise to theories such as modernisation theory, which measures development in terms of comparison, and in this case a nation becomes developed depending on how similar to or different it is from the industrialised nations of the Western Europe and North America. This was associated with the rise in the 1960s and 1970s of the linear theory of development as advanced by Rostow (1960 cited in Kabutaulaka, 1993).
This school of thought views development as progression of growth from traditional society to that of a high mass consumption society found in the Western and North America. Today the development debate has taken many twists and turns (Kabutaulaka 1993:3).

So we could interpret that, development should be understood as a process, not a product. Societies are always changing, some improve, while others fail. Development theories aim at explaining both the processes. Development practice intends to provide tools that can be applied to entire societies or specific communities.

The idea of progress is nearly as old as human history. Human beings had always tried to improve technologically, psychologically and even physically. These improvements were catered for both human innovations as depicted in Darwin’s theory of human evolution, the ‘survival of the fittest’ (Cambell 1985, cited in Kabutaulaka, 1993). However, simple progression or change cannot be equated with development because the concept of development is much more complicated than a mere change (Kabutaulaka 1993). The modernisation theory represents several perspectives: the belief that societies undergo economic development in phases and development is linked to aspects of culture or values (Rostow, 1960, McClland, 1993: and Khan, 1993 cited in Kabutaulaka, 1993). Whatever the variation, central to the modernisation theory is the task of transforming traditional societies.

According to Isbister (cited in Kabutaulaka, 1993) the basic assumption of modernization theory is that developing countries are ‘traditional’ with values that are spiritual, stagnant, and not progressive. Consequently, the modernisation theory emphases changes in personal attitudes and behaviours. Kabutaulaka (1993), says that a traditional life is not necessarily negative and that ‘from an economic view point, however, it is a poor, subsistence life, a life that has no hope of accumulation, income and wealth’. The strategy to alleviate this situation, proponents of modernisation theory argue, is for Third World societies to change their traditional values to modern ones. This can be achieved through education (Sanga, 2005:26). However, the developing countries are faced with the problems of high population growth, inaccessibility to education services, high teacher - student ratio and lack of educational resources to have a quality education. Aid is therefore
needed by many Third World countries to help alleviate these difficulties. Education is closely linked to economic growth. As it is now widely accepted that it is the human resources of a nation, and not its raw materials or capital, that determine and ultimately shape the pattern, and character of its economic, social and political development (Schumacher, 1976, Simmons, 1979, Psacharopoulos & Woodall, 1995 cited in Luteru, 1991). Aid is used as catalyst to economic growth as well. It was assumed that once economic growth was achieved, the benefits would trickle down to the masses and therefore, poverty would be alleviated. This idea was the basis of America’s foreign aid in the 1950s (Martinussen & Pederersen, 2003:26). However, critiques argued that inequality persist and that modernization theorists failed to acknowledge that it was the lack of resources and not modernity that holds back many of the less developed countries.

The dependency theory was dominant in the 1970s. Economists like Andre Gunder Frank was one of the leading proponents of this theory. Dependency theorists argued that aid cerates conditions of it’s failure by the way it was delivered. For example, when aid is tied, it is a requirement that capital, technology and expertise from the donor country must be used to implement the projects. While this approach might produce the desired output, it undermines local population for the purpose of self – reliance. This gave rise to aid dependency, which has deepened the development problems more than simply lack of resources (Edgreen, 2002 cited in Lenga, 2006).

Since the 1980s onward – the approach of foreign aid has oriented to Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP). The focus was on transforming national and economic structures and institutions by reducing the role of the state whilst increasing the role of the private sector as a producer and supplier of goods and services. It was a means of increasing the efficiency of state owned enterprises to deliver efficient and effective services to the public. By the 1990s, democratization and good governance became the explicit goals of foreign aid. It was argued that democracy and good governance were the necessary preconditions for achieving economic growth and development (Martinussen & Pedersen, 2003:28). There are many ways the development theories and approaches shaped the way aid is conceptualized (Lenga, 2006: 39).
2.5 Aid Dependency in the Pacific

In the Pacific many ordinary citizens do not really understand the concept of aid: why aid is given and who gives aid? However, foreign aid has ensured human, infrastructure, social and economic progress in the Pacific countries. Bridges, roads, wharves, buildings and institutions all attributed to the development assistance. Many of the leaders in the region owe their education and their ideologies to the munificence of aid (Gibson, 2000). The economics of modernisation, of economic growth, of laissez faire and of small government encouraging export-led industrial expansion were learned by many leaders on aid scholarships or on aid sponsored courses (ibid.)

Gibson (2000) further stated that the Pacific Islands have behaved like a drunk in a brewery. Since the 1960s when countries began to attain political independence, the Pacific has guzzled huge and increasing volume of aid to the point where some countries have an annual aid per capita rate of around $4,000. This has not produced stable, steady socio-economic performance but has instead been associated with unsteady, unimpressive underdevelopment.

Despite high levels of external assistance to the pacific, poverty (of opportunity or income) is on the increase as is, crime, domestic violence, unemployment, environmental degradation and population growth. The 1999 Pacific Human Development Report reveals that eleven of the fourteen Pacific Island states have Human Development Index rankings of over 100 with Papua New Guinea, the most resource rich nation, scoring a miserable 164 rank.

Aid to the Pacific takes three main forms. First, is the bilateral aid, it is the aid given directly government-to-government. Second, is the multilateral aid, it is a form of aid that's channeled through international agencies like the United Nations and the World Health Organisation (WHO), and also through financial institutions such as the World Bank and Asian Development Bank. Thirdly, there is aid that is also channeled through non-government organizations (NGOs) of the North to the NGOs of the South.
2.5 Aid Effectiveness

Aid effectiveness refers to the degree to which development aid works, and is a subject of significant disagreement (Wikipedia, 2007). This section discusses effectiveness of global aid.

The average amount of foreign aid transferred to developing countries is small compared with the size of their economies – 2 percent to 3 percent of their gross national product. The international standard is set for the developed countries to reach ODA target of 0.7 percent of Gross National Income. In individual cases, that figure can exceed 60 percent in a given year. However, more assistance is not always more effective. Receiving too much foreign aid may overwhelm a country’s absorptive capacity and thereby undermine the overall effectiveness of aid. A small quantity can be useful in achieving results, depending on its purpose and how it is spent (Wikipedia, 2007).

Foreign aid has at times been a spectacular success. Botswana and the republic of Korea in the 1960s, Indonesia in the 1970s and Bolivia and Ghana in the late 1980s and Uganda and Vietnam in the 1990s are examples of countries where aid has contributed significantly and uplifted these countries from crisis to rapid development (World Bank, 1998: 1).

On the flip side, foreign aid has also been seen at times, as unmitigated failure. While the former Zaire’s Mobuto Se Se Seko was reported amassing one of the world’s largest personal fortunes (invested, naturally, outside his country), decades of large – scale foreign assistance left not a stress of progress (World Bank, 1998:1) Zaire is just one of several examples where steady flow of aid ignored, if not encouraged, incompetence, corruption and misguided policies. Consider Tanzania, where donors poured a colossal $ 2 billion into building roads, over 20 years. Roads were built but due to the lack of maintenance, roads deteriorated faster than they could be built (World Bank, 1998: 1). This indicates that the aid assistance was not a success.

In the Pacific context aid seems to have contributed both positively and negatively. Hughes (2002) argued that since 1970, the Pacific region has received US $ billion 50 - 100 aid. The life of the Pacific people was no different from the past 25 years. Hughes (2000) says populations are growing, while living standards are stagnating, and in some cases, even going
backwards. The problem with aid is that as Hughes (2000) says it's treated like income by the political elites who've inherited postcolonial Pacific nations.

### 2.6 Aid, Education and Development

Although the overarching development assumption that aid leads to reduction in poverty has remained, understanding about how this should happen have shifted considerably over time (Rindell, 1997:454 cited in Coxon and Tolley, 2005). Development theory and practise have been consistent to upheld the importance of economic growth to poverty; it is the relative importance of each, and the perception of the relationship between them, that has changed (Coxon and Tolley, 2005:31).

The modernisation and development theory states that one way forward for the developing countries is to quickly go through the five stages of development to be modernised. Development interventions are intended to move societies in which they are believed to be worse off to better off. Education is seen as the catalyst to fast track development. This idea was further supported by Buchert (1995) identifying that one of the obvious common attentions and features for the agencies is on the believe that human resource development is considered to be the central element to the solution of global poverty problems, as well as crucial potential resources in achieving economic growth, provision of environmental protection, increasing political participation, and mitigation of gender and other social inequalities.

Although the underlying motives of aid are debatable and sometimes questionable, aid is likely to remain critical in most contexts as one of the ways forward for financing education in many Third World countries. Lockheed and Verspoor (1991) supported the idea on improving primary education in developing countries said that:

"although few dispute the need to improve primary education systems in developing countries, the costs involved are formidable. In many countries domestic resources must – and can – be expanded and used more efficiently. But for real progress to be made in many countries, external assistance is critical”.

This implies that the Third World countries need the support from donor aid agencies to support them in their endeavours to move forward. Unfortunately, international aid, including
aid to education, seems to be changing intention, content and direction in the 1990s compare to previous decades. A key concern now expressed by many multinational and national donor agencies is the need for renewed international commitment and expanded international efforts to global poverty and inequalities between the North and the South, and among individual countries in both areas in order to create sustainable development in the south. This goal is accompanied by other, and often competing demands on aid – giving, for instance the establishment of multi – party democracies and governance, economic adjustment programme, protection of the environment, safe guarding international human rights, and improving women’s circumstances and participation in development (Buchert, 1995:1).

2.6.1 Primary Education and Development

Education is the corner stone of economic and social development and primary education is its foundation. It improves the productive capacity of societies and their political, economic, and scientific institutions. It also helps reduce poverty by mitigating its effects on population, health, nutrition and increase value and efficiency of the labour offered by the poor. As technology advances and new methods of production that depend on well trained and intellectual flexible labour force transform economies worldwide, education becomes more significant.

Primary education has two main purposes. First, to produce a literate and numerate population that can deal with problems encountered at home and at work. Second, it serves as foundation on which further education is built. In many countries in the developing world, education systems are unable to meet their basic objectives. Firstly, they do not teach children already in the core skills contained in their national curriculum. Secondly, they do not provide all school - aged children, particularly girls, with the opportunity to attend school. As a result, these primary education systems are ineffective and jeopardize national efforts to build a base for human capital for development (Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991: 1).
2.6.2 Education and Development

Lack of education is the root cause of several problems in many developing countries. While world has entered the 21st century, many Third World countries are lagging behind and have yet to enter the 20th century. They cannot meet the minimum needs of housing, water and sanitation and electricity. Their educational institutions lack essential learning materials and equipment due to abject poverty and neglect.

Education is the key to unlocking human potential. The acquisition of skills and knowledge enables people to overcome poverty. Education enables people to come out of oppression and alienation and take control of their lives. Education empowers communities and gives nations the confidence to shape their own future.

Education helps alleviate poverty and advances economic and social development. A diverse body of literature demonstrate that adults in the developing countries who have higher levels of educational attainment have more paid employment, higher earnings, greater agriculture productivity, low fertility, better health and nutritional status and more modern attitudes than adults who have lower educational attainment (Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991). They are also more likely to send their children to schools. These characteristics are dimensions of development. Education forges national unity and social cohesion by teaching common mores, ideologies, and languages. It also improves income distribution, increases saving and encourages more rational consumption, enhances the status of women, and promotes to technological change (ibid).

2.6.3. Education and Economic Development

Research and experience demonstrate that an educated labour force is necessary, albeit, condition for economic development (Schultz, 1961: Denision, 1962: McMahoon, 1984). The correlation between national investment in education and economic growth is striking. The industrialized economies of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were based on relatively well educated and skilled labour force. Peaslee (cited in Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991:2) examined the relationship between growth in primary school enrolment and national Gross National Product (GNP) per capita over a 10 year period (1950- 1960) for thirty-four
of the richest countries. He found that none had achieved significant economic growth before attaining universal primary education.

Benavot (1985) cited in Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991 in a study found that primary education had significant positive effect on the economic growth of 110 developed and developing countries. For the period 1945 – 80 studies have shown (Lau, Jamison, and Lout, 1991 cited in Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991:2) that economic growth powerfully affected by primary education in twenty –two East Asian and Latin American countries and secondary education in fifty- four East Asian, Latin American, African, and Middle Eastern countries. Virtually all the newly industrialised economies with dramatic growth in the past twenty five years, such as Hong Kong, Israel, Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Singapore, achieved universal or almost universal primary enrolment in secondary school and a labor force that almost universally literate just before rapid and sustained industrial growth began (World Bank, 1987 cited in Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991:2).

2.6.4. Education and Earnings

Education has significantly effect on earnings, and the rate of return to education is high. (McMahoon, 1984, Psacharopoulos 1985 and Ryoo 1988 cited in Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991), in their studies found very high social rates of return and estimated that the returns to completed primary education are 27 percent and the returns to secondary education 15 – 17 percent. Private returns to education are significantly higher than social returns, reaching 49 percent for primary and 26 percent for secondary education (McMahoon, 1984). The returns to education in developing countries are higher than those in more advanced countries, although they appear to diminish over time (Psacharopoulos, 1985: Ryoo 1988). Education remains profitable, how- ever, and its social rate of return still exceeds that of other investments by considerable margin. Ryoo (1988) stated that even informal nonfarm family enterprises that are engaged in so – called modern production realize the positive returns to education.
2.6.5 Education and Productivity

Earnings provide an indirect measure of productivity, but physical productivity is the best measure of education’s economic impact. Workers and farmers with more education are physically more productive than those with less education. Of particular importance is the productivity of farmers, since much labor force in developing countries works in subsistence agriculture. The effects of education on agriculture production can be assessed by comparing the output of farmers with different levels of educational attainment. Lockheed, Jamison, and Lau (1980) cited in Lockheed and Verspoor (1991) summarized the findings of eighteen studies containing thirty-one data sets from thirteen developing countries. They concluded that four years of primary education increased the productivity of farmers by 8.7 percent and overall 10 percent in countries undergoing modernization (largely Asia). Education increased the ability of farmers to allocate resources efficiently and enable them to improve their choices and estimate more effectively inputs on their overall productivity.

2.6.6 Education and Fertility

In many countries, rapid population growth has made raising the standard of living difficulty, and excessive fertility affected maternal health and child survival rates. A growing population of young people strains education budgets, and in many low – income countries an increasingly large number of young people often children of rural and low income- families receive no education at all. The disparity between urban and rural areas and between urban middle class and the poor seems to be growing. Reducing fertility rates must be an important part of any development program, and reduced fertility depends on heavily on educating women. Fertility levels are determined most immediately by age of marriage, length of breast feeding, and use of contraceptives, which are influenced in turn by socio - economic circumstances of individual. One of these circumstances is the education of the mother. Educating women ultimately reduces fertility: even though fertility in Africa and Asia apparently increases with a few years of education, and it declines thereafter with more schooling. One explanation for this pattern may be the types of skills learned at different levels. Elementary education improves hygiene and nutritional practices, which improve both child survival and fertility, while further education highlights the advantages of controlling

2.6.7 Education and Child Health and Nutrition

The education of women is also related to child health, as measured by nutrition status or by infant and child mortality. According to Cochrane, 1986 (cited in Lockheed and Verspoors, 1991), children of educated mothers live healthier and longer lives. One year of maternal education translates into a 9 percent decrease in child mortality. Apparently, the more education a woman attains, the more likely she is to seek professional health care, which diminishes child mortality. In Africa, a difference of one percentage point in the national literacy rate is associated with a two-year gain in life expectancy. One determinant of life expectancy and the major influence on mental and physical capacity is nutrition. The scant evidence available suggests a strong positive relationship between mother’s education and her child’s nutritional status. Education apparently changes the mother’s preference for food and also increases her influences in decisions about food distribution in the household.

2.6.8 Education and Attitudinal Modernity

A social consequence of greater education is the adoption of more modern attitudes. According to Inkeles and Smith 1974, Holsinger and Theisen cited in Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991) becoming modern involves adopting rational, empirical, egalitarian beliefs, which are precondition for functioning effectively in the political and economic institutions required for scored higher on attitudinal measures of individual modernity as their years of education increased. They stated that the influence of school on the adoption of modern practices was greater than experience. Although modern attitudes were initially believed to be transmitted through formal structure of schools, the influence of curriculum seems to be more direct. Lockheed and Verspoor (1991) stated that students attending schools with in a modern curriculum had more modern attitudes than those attending schools with traditional one. For example, students who were taught the arts and science held more modern attitudes than students who attend teacher education institutions, polytechnics or schools with limited religious curriculum.
2.7 Educational Aid to the Pacific

As for the colonised world, World War Two acted as something of a watershed, triggering significant political, economic, and social changes throughout the Pacific region. Following their independence, the governments of the new Pacific states were forced with many of the dilemmas and decisions regarding the establishment of an aid relationship with their former colonial masters, as were the newly emerging states throughout the developing world. As for developing countries, educational developments in Pacific countries were seen as the precondition for the wider development and understanding (Coxon and Tolley, 2005:37).

Education aid here refers to aid that goes to the formal education sector through the Ministry of Education. Education aid is a big business in the Pacific (Sanga, 2005). Other scholars also share the same thoughts on aid and education. Puamau (2005) also states that aid is an integral part of educational development in Pacific islands. However, for many of us it is not easy to write critically about something controversial as aid, particularly by people who themselves have benefited from it in one way or other. Aid is like sex: when it is good it is very, very good: when it is bad, it is still good, for a few any way (Thaman, 2005 cited in Sanga, 2005). This states that aid can be very good and can be bad or even dangerous.

Justifications for aid to education in the Pacific Island Forum Countries (PIFCs) are multifaceted. Educational aid is historical it came with colonialism and now accompanies newer forms of strategic and constitutional associations. For some countries, such as the Republic of Marshall Islands for example, aid from the United States constitutes 80 percent of its annual educational budget. For Tokelau, 80 percent of its budget is provided by New Zealand. Since the conflict began in Solomon Islands in 2000, aid donors including the European Union (EU), New Zealand, and the Republic of China, have provided its educational budget (Sanga, 2005:17).

2.7.1 Education Aid to the Pacific Island Forum Countries

Educational aid to the PIFCs is big business. According to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2004), aid from all donors to PIFCs in 2002 was US$ 565 million or 45 percent of the total aid to Oceania (which includes French Polynesia,
New Caledonia, and Walis and Futuna). Of the US $ 656 million to the PIFCs in 2002. Australia offered approximately US $ 270 million, representing 19 percent of total aid to the region. The New Zealand Agency for International Development (NZAID) is small by world standards, with a total annual budget of more than $ NZ 226 million (US $ 153 million), of which 47 percent is directed to the PIFCs (NZAID, 2002). NZAID’s links with Pacific Island Countries (PIFCs) are strong and more than 40 percent of the agency’s bilateral programme targets education within these countries. A new regional project called Pacific Regional Initiatives for the Delivery of Basic Education (PRIDE), totalling around NZ $ 21 (US$ 14) million, and financed by European Union and New Zealand, has recently been implemented (Sanga, 2005: 17-18).

International aid to education has been a long – established one in the PIFCs. The majority of the region’s educational leaders went to schools and universities overseas under aid programmes. Many were taught school subjects and used curriculum that were provided through aid programmes. Many began their careers as lecturers, teachers, and education officers, as counterparts of expatriate consultants in aid projects. In other words, educational aid has been an integral part of education in PIFCs settings and familiar phenomenon for educators, administrators, students and parents (Sanga, 2005: 19).

The Solomon Islands received more than 10 million Solomon Dollars of education aid which was received during the post - conflict period, from October 2001 when the Townville Peace agreement was singed to mid – 2003, when an external armed intervention force, the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI) was established. Educational aid was contributed approximately two - thirds of the Solomon Islands government’s spending on education during this period. This was a considerable investment, particularly when most of the government services ceased due to the economic constraints resulting from the impact of the conflict (Pollard, 2005: 155).

2.8 New Zealand Education Aid to the Solomon Islands (2003 - 2004)

In order to mitigate and reverse the scenario which caused serious deterioration in the security, and economy of Solomon Islands, the Solomon Islands government requested
international assistance to help restore the rule of law and to empower the Solomon Islands public.

The New Zealand Overseas Development Aid (NZODA) program had increased by 75 percent to $14 million making it the largest bilateral program in the history of the agency, and a strategy was developed and agreed by the Solomon Islands government and NZAID to underpin and direct ODA delivery for 2003 – 2006. In addition to substantial support for education and human resource development, NZAID continued to emphasis law and justice, good governance and economic development priorities in its program for Solomon Islands (NZAID, 2005).

The largest education program in the history of New Zealand’s development cooperation to the Solomon Islands is the Education Sector Investment and Reform Program (ESIRP) which commenced in January 2004. Through ESIRP, NZAID had provided up to NZ$ 30 million to the Solomon Islands government over the three years (2004 - 2006) in direct budget support, and a further $ 3million in technical assistance. The main purposes of this aid were improving access, equity and quality and management of Solomon Islands’ basic education in order to achieve the key policy goals and targets of the Solomon Islands government as expressed in its education Strategic Plan (2004 – 2006). NZAID also continued to support human resource development by funding at tertiary level for Solomon Islanders studying in – country, regionally and in New Zealand.

NZAID also funded a national teacher tracking to identify issues and weaknesses in the primary teacher recruitment, management, deployment and pay roll management. Findings from this study area will be used to inform the SI Government’s ‘Action Plan’ to improve the quality of teacher and management (NZAID, 2005).

**2.8.1 Education As a Human Right**

The New Zealand government sees education as a human right. The NZ Foreign Affairs and Trade Minister once echoed this in 2003 and said, access even to basic education is a human right, it is an investment in the future labour force – educational and employment go hand in
hand (Hobbs, 2003). The New Zealand Government also strongly believes that education helps eliminate poverty. NZAID places high value on the ability of education to provide people with opportunities for a better future. NZAID considers that knowledge is the key to a better life and helps people to:

- earn more
- enjoy better health
- be free from poverty
- live longer.

Good basic education establishes skills in literacy, speaking, reasoning and social interaction. These last a lifetime and lay the foundation for benefits to societies that include:

- Improve productivity and economic growth
- Better governance and less conflict
- Greater life expectations (NZAID, 2005)

Hobbs (2003) stated that if we want to build stronger wealthier communities, if we want to combat illness and poverty, if we want fairer and more equal societies, then education is the only way forward.

The impact of the New Zealand aid to education in Solomon Islands is discussed in detail in chapter five.

2.9 Conclusions

Development aid especially educational aid is important for developing countries to meet the resource gaps in the education sector. Development aid is aimed at alleviating poverty and to improve quality of life. In developing countries where there is a trend of fast growing population brings the problem of school aged - children having limited or no access to basic education. So the need for international education aid is required to improve the situation. Education plays a major role in the development process. It is said to be the cornerstone for social and economic development. The knowledge and skills acquisition enables people to
alleviate poverty; it empowers people to take control of their lives. The challenge is for both the donor and the recipients of aid to assess the needs of the society and design workable mechanisms where aid reaches and touches the lives of people whom aid is tailored for. The success of any aid program depends on the commitment of the donor, the receipt country and other stakeholders.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on how the research was conducted and administered for the study. It gives an account of how the research was designed. Then it discusses the methods used in the study area and how the data was collected. It further discusses the sample, the study area and the research limitations.

3.1 Research Methodological Approach

The following section briefly deals with general research methodological approaches. According to Wash (2005:79) a “research is an original, creative and systematic investigation and undertaken in order to add to the fund of general knowledge, both theoretical and practical. The research process is built on three key features: the formulation of research questions, the rationale for their selection, and the use of appropriate methodologies. Research outcomes vary considerably but all must be open to the scrutiny and evaluation of peers.

Research methodology is adopted to carry out a research. Thus, a research involves many and different kinds of approaches or methodologies that can be adopted in doing a research. Basically, there are three types or classes of research. First is a disciplinary research, designed to improve discipline. Second is a subject matter research, which focuses on a subject of interest, and third, is a problem solving research design to solve a practical problem (Walsh, 2005).

In any type of research as mentioned above, the sample is always an integral part and it represents the overall picture of the whole population. There are five sampling methods. The first is a random sample, which can be defined as unbiased type because any member
of the population has the same chance of being selected. The second is the systematic sample where by the population is sampled at pre-determined intervals. The third one is the stratified sampling. This method is intentionally biased, by selecting the sample based on predetermined characteristics of the population. It involves the breaking up of the population into various strata or sub-groups ensuring better representation in the sample. The fourth one is the unsystematic sample or catch-as-catch-can sample. This can only be used when it is not possible to use the above sampling techniques. Lastly is the line or transect sampling. This is particularly useful when a variety of features in a given area have to be included in the sample. Hence, the kind of research, the type of sampling chosen and the overall research methodological approach adopted must be an approach by which the required information can be obtained.

This research applies the subject matter approach. This is relevant in this case because it looks at the subject of aid and focused mainly on its impacts on education especially primary education in the Solomon Islands.

3.2 Research Methodology

The research design is a decision on the research parameters, constraints, and constructions of research questions, variables, hypothesis, sampling, and types of data, methods of data collection, data processing and types of analysis and research methods used. While Research methods are the actual operational techniques and procedure used by researchers to analyse and extract meaning from the data. This includes matters such as documentary search and analysis, actual samples used, questionnaire design and use, coding statistical and other analysis (Walsh, 2005:89)

The research design is important as it sets the guide or the plan for the researcher on how to carry out the research. Research if properly designed would help in avoiding the unnecessary over load of irrelevant data and information and should help in managing time as well.

This research was designed in the way that data and information regarding impact of aid on education development in the area could be easily obtained. The data for the study were
collected through face-to-face interview with questionnaires, field observation and from individual and group informal interviews / discussions.

3.2.1 Sources of Data

The sources of data as earlier stated were both from primary and secondary sources. The primary data were collected from the study area using structured and unstructured questionnaires and face-to-face interviews (see methods of data collection).

Many relevant documents and reports on education issues in the region and Solomon Islands in particular were taken from the’ Pacific Collection’ section in the USP library in Suva. Internet sources were also consulted for other relevant information such as news items from the SIBC.

3.2.2 Approaches to Data Collection

For this thesis, two sources of data were used to obtain the required and relevant data and information. One is the primary data, these are collected by observation or through an investigation such as a questionnaire. The other source of data was from secondary sources. This includes reports from the Ministry of Education and sources such as library documents and internet. This research was carried out in the area studied, East of the East central Guadalcanal constituency (Susu - to – Longu and the interior region).

Prior to the primary survey, some important tasks were made. First was that of questionnaire preparation and design. Three sets of questionnaires were prepared (see Appendix 1, Appendix 2 and Appendix 3) for three different groups of respondents. The first set was intended for the school head teachers. The second was for the class teachers and the thirdl was for the households. An important part of the preparation of the questionnaire was that to identify the kinds of questions to be asked so that relevant information were obtained, and unnecessary questions were avoided. Finally was to select a sample that is group of people to interview. Secondary data was important in any research and the required information for these purposes were collected from academic papers, reports, books, and other secondary sources.
The direct face-to-face interviews were done with the government officials from the Ministry of Education and officials at the New Zealand High Commission Office in Honiara.

Data taken from primary surveys and secondary sources were analysed and interpreted. Research methods were both descriptive and qualitative. Statistics were measurements to summarise quantitative information. Qualitative method, on the other hand, dealt with analyzing the content of the secondary sources. That is the reports, documents, newspapers and other written sources relevant to the topic were examined and interpreted. A number of materials on education impact in the Solomon Islands were consulted as well. This methodological approach was the basis of the data analysis and interpretation.

3.2.3 Methods of Data Collection

Data collection is an important aspect of any type of research study. Inaccurate data collection can impact the results of a study and ultimately lead to invalid results. Given the nature of the study, both qualitative and quantitative data are used. For this study the following methods were used:

3.2.3.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaire has become a common method in research for gathering data (Punch, 1998:180) and such, it is the principal method employed for the study. Both structured and unstructured interviews and open and closed ended questions were used in this study to obtain information from the target population.

The first set was designed to derive information from the head teachers selected in the study area (Appendix 1). The head teachers of the schools were interviewed since they are directly responsible for implementing of the NZAID funds at the school level.

The second set of questionnaire was for the primary school teachers (see Appendix 2). Six teachers were given the questionnaire, one from each primary schools. The teachers were
given time to answer the questions since they were also very much involved in the teaching and the use of the new curriculum materials under the NZAID package.

The third set of questionnaire was designed for the household (see Appendix 3). Parents are important in this study since their children were the beneficiaries of the NZ Aid and they should have fair knowledge of their children’s education before and after the aid was administered in schools. The questions were written in English but were translated toPidgin English and even translated to the dialects where necessary for the parents having no command of the English language. The households that were interviewed were selected on the basis of simple random method.

3.2.3.2. Unstructured and semi-structured interviews

In-depth face-to-face interview is one of the methods employed for the primary data collection in this study. It provides an avenue for the assessment of the respondent’s beliefs, values and attitudes and conviction on the study. The researcher used structured, semi structured, and unstructured interviews in this study. Such technique is employed because it provides an opportunity to actually meet people and extract primary information. Employing this method has the advantage of saving time and money as compared to other interviewing techniques such as sending questionnaires through mail or administering the interviews by phone. The other advantage is that, the people can clarify doubts and uncertainties of the researcher as lead on questions are used during this face to face interviews.

The face - to - face in-depth interviews were conducted with senior staff from the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (Solomon Isands), the first secretary and the aid coordinator at NZ High Commission Office and the Senior Education Officer form the Guadalcanal Education Authority in Honiara.
3.2.3.3 Field Observation

Field observation is another method used by the researcher in this study. It is an important source of evidence. This actually helped the researcher to see the physical aspects of the study area and to observe the social relationships and a moment to share the difficulties experienced in some of the remote schools in the study area. While on the field, the researcher spent three days in each school. This allowed the researcher to gauge the level of support and cooperation by communities towards their schools. Information was obtained from community leaders and the schoolteachers during the informal and formal discussions. Interaction and discussions were useful as people contributed freely during informal sessions.

Through observation, the researcher obtained first-hand information on the state of infrastructure development in the schools that have accessed the New Zealand aid. The researcher was also able to gather information on primary schools that are yet to receive their share of the aid from New Zealand.

3.2.3.4 Secondary Data

Some of the information for the study were collected from various offices. This includes the Implementation and Planning Unit (IPU) at MEHRD in Honiara. Other information and documents about the schools, teachers, and enrollment in Guadalcanal were taken from the Guadalcanal Education Division (GED) located in Honiara. The New Zealand High Commission Office in Honiara was very helpful in providing access to their aid reports. The documents obtained from these offices include, for example, the Solomon Islands Education Sector Investment and Reform Programme (EDSIRP), The Education Strategic Plan (ESP), The National Economic Recovery, Reform and Development Plan and the Education Action Plan (NERRDP). National Education Reviews and other education-related information concerning the Pacific countries and Solomon Islands were also accessed from the internet. The information from PRIDE office in Suva was useful especially Draft report on Solomon Islands National Educational Plan, 2007 – 2009.
3.3 Sample

Six primary schools were selected in the study area for the present study. These schools include: Babasu, Longu Kaoka, Nagali, Vatubulu, Bolale and Susu. The criterion used for the selection of informants was on their direct involvement with the New Zealand educational aid. The researcher selected three groups of informants: (i) head teachers (ii) teachers of the selected schools; and the households. A total number of fifty-four people were selected, as the primary informants in this study, of whom, six were head teachers, six were class teachers and forty - two households from East - Central constituency of Guadalcanal province. The MEHRD staff, the New Zealand High Commission staff and the Guadalcanal education staff were also consulted. The first group was the head teachers. They were the accounting officers in their respective schools for the materials that come under the New Zealand education aid package. They were the link between the community and the Ministry of education on New Zealand Aid

The second group was the class teachers. They were important since they were the ones actually teaching and using the Nguzu Nguzu (the primary curriculum materials produced under the NZ education package at the Solomon islands curriculum center) teacher and students learning materials that come under the education aid package.

The third group is the households (villagers themselves) and their children. They were the direct beneficiaries of the New Zealand education aid. For the students, they are the ones using the new curriculum materials and use the infrastructure; the classrooms, the library facilities and the new curriculum materials.

3.4 Study Area

The study was conducted in the eastern part of the East - Central Guadalcanal Constituency. The area covers the Susu, Valasi and the Longu wards on the island of Guadalcanal. A detailed discussion on the area is given in Chapter Five.

The East- Central constituency was chosen primarily because of the concentration of the NZ aided schools in the area. Another reason for choosing the area was that the schools and
infrastructure were affected during ethnic unrest and it shares the border with the Marau Are Are speakers, The Marau Eagle Force (MEF) who mounted several attacks on the nearby communities.

Another reason for the selection of the area for study was the fact the area has low level literacy and educational development compared to other areas in the province and in Solomon Islands, in general.

3.5 Study Period

The study covers the period 2002 to 2006. The selection of the period was influenced by two factors. First, the education sector continued to attract aid donors after the social unrest. Second, the New Zealand educational aid in Solomon Islands started in the year 2002. The fieldwork for the search was carried out during August and September, 2006.

3.6 Study limitations

3.6.1 Reliable data

The lack of required reliable secondary data or information is a limitation. Some of the government offices and authorities that the researcher visited lack the required and up-to-date information. For instance, the office of the National Teacher Training Coordinator (NTTC) at the MEHRD who is responsible for teacher training does not have up-to-date records on NZ aid which started in 2002.

3.6.2 School Location

Another limitation was the natural geographical setting of the area. The schools are located in the interior (Vatubulu, and Bolale) which can only be reached through walking along the bush tracks. This is a hurdle that has to be overcome by the researcher during the study.
3.6.3 Weather

The weather was not favourable in the first two weeks while out there in the field. The bad weather resulted in flooding rivers and the sea to be very rough which made travel difficult and put constraints in doing the fieldwork. So the research was limited to six primary schools on the eastern part of the East Central Constituency of Guadalcanal.

Besides, the time and financial constraints in conducting the research put serious limitation for an in – depth study.

3.7 Ethical Issues

For this study formal consent was sought from the different stakeholders in Honiara before the interviews were conducted. In the schools the consent was obtained from the primary head teachers and in their absent, the deputy head teachers were consulted. In the village, the village protocol was to be observed through the elders or the chiefs’ consent before conducting the interviews, carrying out observation and listening to their stories. The researcher is always mindful of the cultural and the ethical issues such as confidentiality and anonymity of respondents.

3.8 Conclusions

Research is a reliable way of obtaining relevant and reliable data. Therefore, it is necessary to employ relevant and appropriate methodologies that will possibly assist in obtaining required data and information. However, there are constraints that are confronted with while doing the research, both in the field and while conducting archival research. The obstacle of incomplete and unreliable data impedes better understanding of the issue. However, with the limited data available discussions are possible on the study. An overview of Solomon Islands’ geography, history, demography, political and economic system is important for the contextualisation of the current study. The next chapter provides this background information on the Solomon Islands.
CHAPTER FOUR

SOLOMON ISLANDS: A BACKGROUND

4.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines the background of the Solomon Islands in terms of its geography, history, demography, economy and economic development, government, human resources and educational development. These background information is required to better understand the state of primary education development and the impacts of aid on education in the Solomon Islands.

4.1 Geography

The Solomon Islands is a group of some 900 islands in the Southwestern Pacific, located between 5 and 12 degrees South latitude and 155 and 170 degrees East longitude. There are 147 inhabited islands scattered over some 1.34 million square kilometers of ocean. It has a total land area of about 29,800 square kilometers. The country has six large islands (Choiseul, Isabel, Malaita, New Georgia, Guadalcanal and Makira (formerly San Cristobal), plus numerous smaller islands including Santa Cruz, Rennel, Bellona, Duff and Reef groups, Gella and numerous more isolated individual islands such as Tikopia, Ontong Java and Sikaiana (see Figure 4.1). The largest island is Guadalcanal with an area of 5,340 square kilometers (Douglas and Douglas 1989). All the large islands are well watered by rivers, with steep courses over most of their length and many have a significant energy potential.

The Solomon Islands has a tropical climate. The cooler season is from April to November, dominated by the South- East trade wind. This is the period when destructive cyclones may occur. The mean daily temperature ranges from 21 degree C to 32 degree C, with an occasional maximum of 33 degree C (Harcombe, 1993:3).
Rainfall generally averages 3500mm a year. The rainfall varies considerably from place to place. The southern coast of Guadalcanal averages 12,500 mm with Honiara, the capital usually records the slightly lower rainfall. This type of climate is favourable for thick vegetation that covers most of the islands. The natural vegetation of the large islands was mainly tropical rain forest. Even though the climate is ideal for farming, the cyclones and heavy rainfalls put challenges to development especially educational development.

Many of the islands are covered with high mountain ranges. The countries highest peak, Mt Makarakoburu (2447 meters) is located in Guadalcanal. Less than 10 percent of the country’s total land area is flat and only 25 percent is considered arable land. Most of the islands are covered with mangrove swamps apart from the dense rain forest. The mountainous nature of some islands makes communication and transportation difficult and expensive. There are few roads however most areas are inaccessible, with small tracks suitable for walking. Inaccessibility is, thus a major impediment to educational development.
development. The country is part of the Pacific’s volcanic ring of fire and is located on the earthquake belt. The country is prone to seismic disturbances. The country is prone to natural hazard such as volcanic eruption, earthquake, tsunami and cyclones. The natural disaster will go a long away in the history of the Solomon Islands. Like any other small islands developing country, Solomon Islands is vulnerable to both man - made and natural disasters that further affects the process of education development.

The Solomon Islands’ geography thus presents often formidable challenges to educational development in the country.

### 4. 2. Brief History

The Solomon Islands history begins with the arrival of ancestors of the indigenous Melanesians and Polynesians who first settled the islands. Archaeological research has revealed that humans have occupied these islands for over 3000 years. Material excavated on Santa Cruz, Guadalcanal and Gawa in the Reef Islands has all been radiocarbon- date to about 1,000 BC. Red pottery, thought to be related to the proto Polynesian Lapita pottery, has been found on Santa Cruz, where it was estimated to have been used between 140 and 670 AD. Similarly pottery has been found in the Reef Islands (Douglas and Douglas, 1989:515).

#### 4.2.1 European contact

The first group of Europeans to visit Solomon Islands was a group of Spanish from Peru in 1567 led by explorer Alvaro de Mendana Y Neyra to seek the legendary isles where King Solomon was believed to have collected his gold (Gegeo, 1994). During the later part of the 18th century, European explorers such as Carter in 1767, Bouganville in 1768, Surville in 1769, La Porus and Shortland in 1788 came sailing around these islands. The main motives behind their exploration were gold and curiosity (ibid). By 1779, whalers came to Solomon Islands. Like the explorers, their main motive was to catch whales and trade with local
people. Goods such as clothes, metal tolls and tobacco were exchange for local products like beacher-der- mer and whale’s teeth (Gegeo, 1994).

The first group of Roman Catholic Missionaries, under the leadership of Bishop Epalle landed on Makira and tried to establish a mission station there in 1845. Their efforts however did not succeed, not only due to a number of missionaries being killed by the indigenous people, but also the climate was not suitable for them to survive (Gegeo, 1994). The Roman Catholic Missionaries later returned in 1898 while the Methodists missionaries came in 1902 and the Seventh Day Adventists (SDA) in 1914 (ibid).

The missionaries educated Solomon islanders to read, write and in the process convert them to Christians. The missionaries were responsible for peace amongst the islanders and others, and were pioneers of formal education, health services and Christianity. Their contributions to educational development and the process of nation-building in Solomon Islands were significant. The churches had played a major role in the transformation of Solomon Islands to the modern economy (Gegeo, 1994).

4.2.2 The British Colonial Administration

The political rivalry between the European powers for new territories, labor traffic in the south Pacific, and continuous pressure from the missionaries established in the Solomon Islands were some of the factors that drew Britain into declaring a British Protectorate over New Georgia and Southern part of the Solomon Islands (Guadalcanal, Malaiata, Makira [formally known as San Cristobal], and Savo in the 1883 (Gegeo, 1994). Later in 1889 and 1899, Santa Cruz Islands, including Utupua, Tikopia, Vanikoro, Anuta, Sikaiana, Rennell and Bellona were added to the protectorate. The northern part of the Solomon Islands (Choiseul and Shortlands), Ontong Java and Isabel, which were formerly administered by Germany, were later added on to the protectorate in 1900 (ibid).

Following the declaration of the protectorate in 1893, the British administrators assumed full political and economic control over commercial activities in the country. Between 1893
and 1992 Solomon Islands political administration was subjected to a system of ‘severely
direct’ rule by a small number of government acting on behalf of Fiji-based Western
Pacific Commission. By 1922, a system of village administration was established under a
Native Regulation, which gave power to British officials to directly, appoint a district and
village headmen and village constables. These officers were responsible for law and order,
collecting head taxes, keeping population records, maintain of health, and enforcing

4. 2. 3 Postwar Developments

Following the end of World War II, the colonial capital was moved from Tulagi to Honiara
in January 1953 to take advantage of the infrastructure left behind by the US military.
Meanwhile, elected local councils were established on most of the islands, and by 1966
almost the whole territory was covered by such councils (Europa, 2002 cited in Paia, 2003).
By March 1970, single Governing Council was established. In April 1974, a single
Legislative Assembly was instituted. The late Solomon Mamaloni, leader of the newly
founded Peoples Progressive Party (PPP) was appointed the first Chief Minister in August
1974. The territory was officially renamed the Solomon Islands in June 1975, although it

In January 1976 the Solomon Islands received internal self-government, with the
replacement of a Chief Ministers in the place of Governor. Solomon Islands became an
independent state, within the Commonwealth on 7 July 1978. The Legislative Assembly
became the National Parliament and designated Kenilorea the First Prime Minister (Europa

4. 3 Social Make Up and Demography

The size, distribution and rapid growth of population in Solomon Islands is of major
concern to development planners. The total population in 1999 was 409,042, compared to
285,175 in 1986. The 1999 census indicates that about 84 per cent of people live in rural
areas and the rest in urban centers. The annual population growth rate however, has
declined from 3.5 percent in 1986 to 2.8 percent in 1999 (Solomon Islands Government, 1999b). With this growth rate (2.8 percent) it is estimated that Solomon Islands population will be around 800,000 by 2024 (ibid). Despite the decline the population growth rate in Solomon Islands is considered as one of the highest in the world. Rural – urban migration is increasing, especially to Honiara and other provincial centers.

The ethnic groups that make up the population of Solomon Islands include the Melanesians, Polynesians, Micronesians and others. Out of the 1999 total population, 386,745 were Melanesians, 12,257 Polynesians, 4,906 Micronesian, 2870 of mixed descents, 669 Europeans, 464 Chinese, 435 others (including other Pacific islanders), and 696 have not stated their identity (Solomon Islands Government, 1999b).

Most of the Solomon Islanders are Christians (95 percent) and predominantly with the Anglican, Roman Catholic, South Seas Evangelical, and the Seventh - day Adventist faith. About 5 percent of the population maintains traditional beliefs.

Solomon Islands’ population has a high proportion of young people. The 1999 census revealed that 41.5 percent of the population was in the range 0 -14 percent, 53.5 percent were in the range 15 - 19 age group and 5 percent in the age group 60+ (Solomon Islands Government, 1999a).

In 1999, the most populated province in the Solomon Islands was Malaita with a population of 122,620, followed by Western province with population of 62,739 and Guadalcanal with 60,275. The least populated is Rennell- Bellona with only 2,377 people (Solomon Islands Government, 199a) . Melanesian occupy the larger Islands while the Polynesians are concentrated in the smaller outer islands such as Tikopia in the Temotu Province, Ontong Java and Sikaiana in the Malaita outré islands as well as the Rennell and Bellona province. The Micronesians are mostly Kiribati who migrated to the Solomon Islands during the colonial period, the other category consist mostly of the Chinese and European settlers.

The chief characteristics of the traditional Melanesian social structure includes: the recognition of bonds of kinship, with important obligations extending beyond the immediate family member group and generally egalitarian relationships, emphasizing
acquired rather than inherited status and strong attachment of the people to the land and the practice of subsistence economy. Most Solomon islanders maintain this traditional social structure and find their roots in village life (Paia, 2003: 94).

**4.4 Resources and Economy**

**4.4.1 Natural resource**

The Solomon Islands has total area of 29,800 square kilometers. It is one of the largest among the South Pacific nations. In spite of large land area, a large part of it is unsuitable for agricultural purposes. The terrain in many places is too steep or in some parts too swampy, and unsuitable for commercial agricultural production. Less than ten per cent of the land is flat land in the form of coastal plains or low atoll islands while the rest consists of hills and mountain ranges with rain forest (Douglas and Douglas, 1989 cited in Kabutaulaka, 1993:54). Tribes and kinship groups hold the greater majority of the land, under the customary arrangement, and it is on these lands that most of villagers live.

The country is endowed with a rich natural resources base in the smaller island of the eastern Pacific. These natural resources include minerals, forest, marine and land. Most of these resources are currently underdeveloped. Therefore, if there are no policies and proper planning in place, they would not be exploited in the future (Kabutaulaka, 1993:54).

Solomon Islands have a rich mineral resource base. There are gold deposits on the Shortland islands, Vella Lavella, Marovo, Santa Isabel and Choiseul. There are also nickel deposits on San George and Isabel Islands that are believed to contain 24 millions of tonnes of ore. Other mineral deposits such as bauxite deposit on Rennell and Bellona are considered to small to be commercial viable (Kabutaulaka, 1993: 53). However, the exploitation of this resource has been constrained by the difficulties in obtaining the access to the customary land and the capital finance needed to undertake such expensive industries. The only mining company that used to operate in the country is the Gold ridge on Guadalcanal, which temporarily halted as its operations due to the ethnic unrest. The cost of technology and mining operations puts constraints on the Government’s capabilities
to nationalize the mining. The capital and technical impediments have thus left the exploitation of mineral resources to foreign companies (Paia, 2003:109).

The forests covered some 2.4 million hectares of the country (Kabutaulaka, 1993:53). However, only about 20,000 to 25,000 hectares are considered to be exploitable using current logging techniques (Solomon Islands Government, 1984 cited in Maebuta 2003:14). The rural people depend on these resources for their subsistence livelihoods. In 2007, the International Monetary Fund urged the government to cut down on logging as harvesting rate is several times more than the sustainable rate. The sustainable rate as calculated by the forest division to be about 250 cubic meters a year. The logging rate was a chief concern. It was said that ‘at current felling rates the natural forests will be depleted much sooner than earlier envisaged and within the next five to six years’ (Solomon Times, 2007).

Many people in the Solomon Island regard the ocean as the most important natural resource in terms of its potential for development. The nation has a 200 mile Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) that covers an area of some 1.34 million square kilometer of Ocean and holds some of the world’s largest tuna fishing grounds. The lack of appropriate technology, qualified personnel, capital, poor surveillance and poaching by foreign fishing vessels are some of the problems in fisheries sector in Solomon Islands.

The Solomon Islands economy depends on the export of primary products such as palm oil, copra, and other agricultural produce, timber, fish and mineral resources. Forestry, fisheries, mining and the tourism sectors are the main sectors of Solomon Island’s economy. The forestry sector’s contribution to the national economy is very significant. Between 1997 and 2000 the average log production was 603,000 cubic meters (CBSI, 2000). Forestry, the mainstay of the economy performed quite well since 2002. This was evidenced when log production volume reached to 1.1 million cubic meters in 2004, the highest ever. Log exports generated SI$510 million in the foreign exchange earnings for the year 2005 which accounted for two-thirds of the total exports (CBSI, 2005).

The fisheries sector plays an important role in Solomon Islands’ economy. It is a dominant source of export earnings. The nation’s EEZ contains some of the world’s richest tuna fishing grounds and other sea resources. Fisheries hold greater potential for the Solomon
Islands but maximizing local exploitation of tuna resources is hampered by the lack of local capital and technical know (CBSI, 2005). Despite vast potential, the fishing industry continues to perform below capacity in the post social unrest period. In 2005, fish catch further contracted by 3,396 metric tons (12.5%) to 23,853 tons, following a decline in 2004. According to the CBSI report (2005), the country has still not been able to fully realize the benefits of its abundant marine resources. The Prime Minister of Solomon Islands, Mr. Manasseh Sogavare said that the country is earning only 48 million dollars from its fishing industry but could earn more than three billion once it ventured into down stream processing (SIBC News, 2007a).

At the present tourism is an industry in its infancy stage. However, the country’s scenic beauty presents a great potential for the development of a tourism industry with some benefits accruing to rural communities (Kabutaulaka, 2003: 68). The report of CBSI (2005) states that the sector continues to grapple with all hurdles such as in adequate facilities and infrastructures, poor transportation, lack of human resources, inadequate accommodation and lack of financial and technological assistance from government. The aggregate impact of all these factors were has made this industry lagging far behind the region. The level of tourist arrivals in the Solomon Islands out of the total number of tourists entering the Pacific region remains significant.

4.4.2 Subsistence Economy

The Solomon Islands’ rural population is predominantly dependent on subsistence livelihoods including gardening, fishing, and hunting, sustains the rural majority. Villagers have limited participation in the cash economy and mainly in the form of cash cropping (coconuts, cocoa) or fishing and garden production for local markets (Pollard, 2005:156).

The subsistence production of food and other produce by households forms an important part of the economy. The rural economy makes up a very important part of the country’s economy. The major economic constraints in rural areas include the shortage of trained and management staff, limited capital funds and steeply rising recurrent expenditure.
4.5. Political Developments

After independence, there was instability in the Solomon Islands’ politics, stemming from weak political alignments and loose allegiances (Maebuta, 2003: 21). The weak political party system with parliamentary coalitions in the national government, political instability in both national and provincial government systems characterise the Solomon Islands’ government. The political instability has created a great deal of uncertainty as well as lowering the public officers’ morale and bringing about a decline in work standards. This is because every time a new Government is formed the public officers have to discontinue implementing the previous governments’ policies (Maebuta, 2003:24).

4. 5.1 The Solomon Islands Civil Unrest, 1998 - 2003

Solomon Islands witnessed civil unrest in 1998, when men from the island of Guadalcanal - where the capital, Honiara, is located – started the militant Isatabu Freedom Movement (IFM) and harrashed settlers from the neighbouring islands, especially Malaita. By July 1999, about 20,000 people, mostly Malaitans had been evicted from their homes in Guadalcanal (Kabutaulaka, 2004a: 2). The first coup in the Solomon Islands’ political history was the military overthrow of the democratically elected Solomon Islands Alliance for Change Coalition (SIAC) led Government of Mr. Bartholomew Ulufa’alu on June 2000 (Maebuta, 2003:24).

There has been continuous flow of migrations from all parts of the country to the capital city of Honiara. The major sources of these migrants were from the nearby densely populated island of Malaita. The early migrants had settled on government – owned land. Due to population pressure on the limited supply of alienated land (removed from the customary tenure) many settlers sought alternatives and purchased land from the indigenous people of Guadalcanal. Kabutaulaka (2004a:3) highlighted that the increasing number of settlers has been a concern among indigenous Guadalcanal people for sometime. There has been a general acceptance of non – Guadalcanal people arriving to seek employment in Honiara. However, there has been growing Guadalcanal resettlement of those who come, not for employment, but to gain access to land – and those who come as

4.5.1.1 The Causes of the Civil Unrest

The causes of the Solomon Islands’ crisis are complex and multifaceted. According to Liloqula and Pollard 2000, one of the causes of the civil unrest in the Solomon Islands is the expansion of the squatter settlements in around Honiara, which led to disagreements and much opposition from the indigenous Guadalcanal people. Local villagers complained that migrants, especially Malaitans, were accruing some of their land illegally. They further argued that dominance of migrant businesses in the capital and surrounding areas through their own hard – work was the main cause of being resented by many indigenous Guadalcanal People. Kabutaulaka (2004b: 5) and Moore (2005: 95) however argued that the causes of the crisis were attributed to the failure of the central government to ‘offer any practical compromise to accommodate at the interests and concerns of land owners and settlers’ and failure in the principles of effective governance which are accountable, representative, effective and equitable.

4.5.1.2 The Effects of the Unrest

Whatever the causes may be, the unrest hit hard the Solomon Islands in all aspects. By October 2000, perhaps 8,000 jobs had been lost. Guadalcanal’s lost major foreign earners, the Gold Ridge Mine and the SIPL. Log exports fell by 13 percent in 2000, due to halt operations of Earthmovers and Pacific Timbers on Guadalcanal and the Eagon Resources in Choiseul. Solomon Taiyo, a Japanese – Solomon Islands government joint venture Pole line and line Fishing fleet and Cannery at Noro (Fraenkel, 2004:89). With the closer of these major industries the economy was badly affected. Deteriorating law and order situations in the country further worsened the situation. The essential services such as health and education are paralysed with the increase lawlessness.
4.6 Human Resources and Educational Development

This section discusses the problems and the potential of human resources in the Solomon Islands. It is very important to realise that people if properly trained and utilized could be very useful to their own development and to the country. However, if not properly managed, the human population could become a problem to development (Kabutaulaka, 1993: 56).

The increasing population is posing challenges on all sectors of development. In the education sector this would mean that there would not enough spaces in the formal school system if the Government does not seriously address this issue.

4.6.1 Education Development

The christian missionaries were the pioneers of the formal education system in the Solomon Islands. As part of the mission work the Christians missions opened up schools in various parts of the country during the first half of the 1900s. The churches needed educated people to extend its services and Solomon Islanders to see education as a desirable channel and the doorway to opportunity. The government clearly needed a pool of skilled people to administer government, to provide services and resource to the emerging private sector. The British colonial government started a secondary school after World War II on Auki on Malaita: the school was later moved to Honiara in the 1960s. In the 1976, the government took responsibility for education and almost all primary schools were handed over from churches to the government. Only a few national secondary schools remained under the management of the churches. Education in the Solomon Islands is seen as a step to employment in the formal sector and a pathway from village life to urban way of life.

In the years before and shortly after independence, secondary education was only for the elite. While primary education was accessible to most of children, largely in the form of day schools, secondary schooling was limited to the boarding places available at the national secondary schools. The increase in secondary education boarding schools however didn’t match the growing population (Pollard, 2005:159)
A World Bank supported initiative in the 1980s saw the creation of provincial secondary schools, which were junior boarding secondary schools with vocational emphasis. Parents objected to the fact that provincial secondary schools did not provide the opportunity for their children to continue academic education as in the national secondary schools. Consequently, the provincial secondary schools quickly adopted the national secondary school curriculum, diverging from the vocational emphasis. The obsession with the academic formal secondary education is understandable when up until early 1990’s virtually all school leavers from national secondary schools were unable to get formal employment (Pollard, 2005:159-160).

The community high schools evolved in the mid–1990s. These were created by communities insisting that children are provided with the opportunity for education beyond primary schooling. The community high schools provided the opportunity for the primary school children to continue education into the three years of secondary education. Although, as in all schools the government paid teacher’s salaries and provided them with small grants. The community high schools struggled to find qualified or trained teachers to teach the range of secondary subjects. In many cases the secondary teachers concentrated more on preparing students for the Form 3 examination in English and Mathematics since these subjects would determine their fate for furthering secondary education. By 2003, the number of community high schools was close to 100 (Pollard, 2005:160). Pollard (2005) further stated that unplanned growth and expansion of schools created a disjointed, complex and poorly linked administrative and management structures. The rapid expansion of secondary education has been based on the premise that formal academic schooling system provides access to formal employment and wealth.

The crisis period essentially compounded the existing educational issues. Access to education is limited for Solomon Islands children. Only 70 per cent of primary aged children attend primary school, and smaller proportions move to secondary, vocational, technical, or tertiary schooling. The crises in Solomon Islands closed a number of schools in Guadalcanal and the impact on the government finances disrupted most of the schools through out the country (UNDP, 2002: 67 – 73 cited in Pollard, 2005:161). With rapid population growth rate of 2.8 per cent, primary and secondary school-aged population enrolment was projected to reach 146, 00 by 2015 compared to 87,507 in 2002. The
demand for classrooms and trained teachers was overwhelming (UNDP, 2002 cited in Pollard, 2005:161).

The Government of Solomon Islands formally adopted the Education Strategic Plan for 2004 - 2006 with the financial support from the European Union (EU) and the New Zealand Agency for International Development (NZAID). The Education Strategic Plan, 2004 – 2006 was set out to provide equitable access to quality ‘basic education for all’ in the Solomon Islands. It sought to provide access to community, technical, vocational and tertiary education that will meet individual, national and regional needs for knowledgeable skilled and competent people. Finally, it aimed to ensure that resources were managed efficiently, effectively and in transparent manner (MEHRD & NZAID, 2004: 5).

4.6.2 State of Primary Education

Since 1981 most primary schools was directed by the MEHRD, although some schools in Solomon Islands remain in private hands. Prior to this the churches directed most primary and secondary schools in Solomon Islands (MEHRD & NZAID, 2004:39).

Primary education in the Solomon Islands covers a formal span of seven years. The “preparatory year” prior to standard one is regarded as part of primary education. In addition there are six years following the preparatory year, starting at standard one and ending at standard six with a terminal examination. The span makes a total of 7 years primary education in all. These seven constitutes the “basic education” programme for Solomon Islands. A child is expected to commerce at the age of six or seven and continues fro seven years.

The overall purpose for primary education the Solomon’s like any other country is to develop a child’s literacy and innumeracy skills (reading, writing, listening and computational skills) and other skills and understanding that prepare young people to take part in society. These skills and understandings include skills in science, and social sciences, community studies, agriculture, art, music, and physical education.
According to the Digest of Education Statistics, 2005 (cited in Catherwood, 2006:32), the Solomon Islands has a total of 533 primary schools, as well as 117 community high schools, making a total of 650 schools offering primary education. The total student enrollment in primary school children in the country is 100,356. This figure includes 21,982 pupils enrolled in the preparatory year. There were 3,964 primary school teachers in the provinces in 2005 and the teacher student ratio in 2005 was therefore 1:25.

There appeared to be sufficient teachers in the system to manage the number of enrolments in 2005. However, what needs to be monitored carefully and improved is the quality of the primary school teachers. A key issue is the number of unqualified primary school teachers in the Solomon Islands (Catherwood, 2006:32).

Table 4.1 Primary School Teachers by Gender and Province in Solomon Islands, 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Female Teacher</th>
<th>Male Teacher</th>
<th>Total Number of Teachers</th>
<th>% Qualified Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>79.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chioseul</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>62.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guadalcanal</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>655</td>
<td>64.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honiara</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>75.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isabel</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>92.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makira &amp; Ulawa</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>66.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaita</td>
<td>383</td>
<td>803</td>
<td>1186</td>
<td>59.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renbel</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>64.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temotu</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>76.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>557</td>
<td>68.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1595</td>
<td>2369</td>
<td>3964</td>
<td>67.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 4.1 shows that approximately one-third of the primary teachers in the country are unqualified. This figure is too high, and strategies needed to be developed to address how the untrained teachers will be unskilled. This issue requires immediate attention if the
quality of education in the Solomon Islands primary school is to be improved (Catherwood 2006: 35).

### 4.6.3 Access and Equity to Primary Education

Generally, primary education appears to be available to the majority of the children in the Solomon Islands. The Digest of Education Statistics 2005 reports a primary education school net enrolment ratio of 94.08 percent in 2005, a considerable improvement net ratio of just under 86 percent reported for 2004. Nevertheless, a net enrolment of 94 percent means that 6 percent of the primary school aged populations do not attend school, so there is no room for complacency. Efforts to ensure 100 percent enrolment of school aged children in primary school need to be continued.

#### Table 4.2 Enrolments and Teacher – student Ratios by gender and Province, 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>No of Teachers</th>
<th>Male Enrolment</th>
<th>Female Enrolment</th>
<th>Total Enrolment</th>
<th>Teacher - student ratios</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2772</td>
<td>2532</td>
<td>5304</td>
<td>1: 26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choiseul</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>2525</td>
<td>2368</td>
<td>4893</td>
<td>1: 22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guadalcanal</td>
<td>655</td>
<td>9018</td>
<td>8146</td>
<td>17164</td>
<td>1: 26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honiara</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>4640</td>
<td>4295</td>
<td>8935</td>
<td>1: 26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isabel</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>22361</td>
<td>2152</td>
<td>4513</td>
<td>1: 24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makira &amp; Ulawa</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>4042</td>
<td>3455</td>
<td>7497</td>
<td>1: 11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaita</td>
<td>1186</td>
<td>17539</td>
<td>14087</td>
<td>32346</td>
<td>1: 27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rennell &amp; Bellona</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>696</td>
<td>1: 10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temotu</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>2406</td>
<td>2184</td>
<td>4590</td>
<td>1: 22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western</td>
<td>557</td>
<td>7490</td>
<td>6928</td>
<td>14418</td>
<td>1: 25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3964</strong></td>
<td><strong>53146</strong></td>
<td><strong>47210</strong></td>
<td><strong>100356</strong></td>
<td><strong>1: 25.3</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Digest of Education Statistics 2005 Cited in Catherwood, 2006:32*

Of the enrolments in 2005, 53 percent were boys and 47 percent were girls. Gender equity does not appear to be major problem, although there is slight gender imbalance in favour of
boys. The reason for this imbalance may be attributed to some slight attrition of girls towards the end of primary schooling. The break down of enrolments figures by gender, however, is generally consistent with the distribution by gender in the primary school target age groups, as reflected in though census estimates for 2005 primary school - aged population (52.2% male and 47.8% female). Information was not available to determine if there are equity issues with respect to access to primary education for disabled (children are physically disabled, visually impaired, hearing impaired, intellectually disabled or those have the types of disability) (Catherwood, 2006:33).

The primary school enrolment in 2005 stands at, 100,356 and it is projected to increase over the next four years, to give an estimated total of 115,214 enrolments by 2009. The government, the provinces and the local communalities will need to plan now to ensure that another 9,160 places for primary education school aged children are available by 2009. There appears the need to identify the locations where primary school roll growth pressures are strongest (Catherwood, 2006: 38).

4.6.4 School Enrolment Patterns – (Province - wise)

The schools enrolment pattern in the country continues to increase every year according to the ESIRP: 2004 - 2006 and NEAP 2007 – 2009 respectively. The provincial enrollment pattern correlates with the population of school-aged children in each province. However, the enrolment pattern shows that more male students are attending primary education than the female (Catherwood, 2006:38).

With regard to provinces of Malaita and Guadalcanal, they have more than half of their school-aged populations not attending school in 1999. In Malaita over one - third (16,900) of the school - aged (5 - 14 year) children did not attend school. Guadalcanal has over 18 percent (8,800) children not attending school (SIG & NZAID, 2004:83).

With the exception of Choiseul and Western Province, all provinces have a higher proportion of females than males not attending schools in 1999. Guadalcanal, Malaita and Central have higher proportions of females than the national average not attending school.
Both Guadalcanal and Malaita have more than half of their female population not attending school. Guadalcanal also had more than half of its male population of school age population not attending school in 1999. The high proportion of the school age population is explained in part by the Guadalcanal ethnic conflict, which led to the closure of schools in Guadalcanal and displacement of Malaita students from Guadalcanal and Honiara schools who could not be absorbed in schools in Malaita (SIG & NZAID, 2004: 83).

4.6.5 Level of Education in Provinces in Solomon Islands, by Gender

Four provinces in Solomon Islands namely Western, Choiseul, Honiara and Rennell and Bellona are the most educated provinces in terms of overall literacy rate in the country with about more than 80 percent literacy rate. This is followed by Makira, Ulawa, Central, Guadalcanal, and Malaita which has 70 – 80 percent literacy rate compared to Temotu which has 60 –70 percent in overall literacy rate (SIG & NZAID 2004: 84). The 1999 census reported that the adult literacy rate for Solomon Islands was 76 percent. About eight out of every 10 males is reported as literate and for females less than seven out of ten are literate.

4.6.6 Female Literacy

Female literacy and development is positively correlated. Higher the development, higher would be the female literacy. In four provinces, namely, Western, Choiseul, Honiara and Rennell and Bellona are having more than 80 percent of female literacy (SIG &NZAID, 2004:84). In contrast, the lowest female literacy rate of less than 50 percent exists in Temotu province. The female illiteracy is very low in Temotu (less that 50 percent) followed by Malaita province, which has, between 50 – 60 percent. The female literacy rate at Makira Ulawa is between 70 –80 percent, while Guadalcanal, Central and Isabel’s female literacy rate stands between 60 –70 percent. Literacy among the males shows that Western Province has the highest literacy rate for males, and Malaita with the lowest rate (57. 8 percent) followed by Temotu. Among the female population, Western Province again has the highest literacy rate with 51 percent (ibid).
4.6.7 Education Infrastructure

Many of the schools buildings and infrastructure were built from local materials i.e buildings are thatched with sago palm leaves and other bush materials. The local materials last a life of only 4-5 years. Then the schools children and the parents will have to start building new ones again. However, there is no formal wide inventory of the state of school buildings is available. Nor there is accurate database that record the location, owner ship status, and condition of all school facilities, including water and sanitation facilities at each primary school. Good progress has been made with reporting on the state of water supply and sanitation facilities in the digest of education 2005. However, a more comprehensive and detailed inventory of primary school is required.

However, in workshop recently to discuss the provincial action plans reported that the physical condition of primary school buildings (classrooms, staff houses, and other buildings) in the majority of primary schools is poor (Catherwood and Associates, 2006:34).

4.6.8 Education Curriculum Materials

Teacher and students materials are very important to enhance effective learning. The Ministry of Education under the Curriculum Development Center was mandated in designing and producing the curriculum materials for schools. The subjects that were taught in primary schools are science, social sciences, community studies, agriculture, art, music, and physical education. These subjects serve the overall purpose for primary education that is to develop a child’s literacy and innumeracy skills (reading, writing, listening and computational skills).

The secondary level (Forms 1- 5) syllabus has put in place Mathematics, English, Science, and Social Science as the core subjects. Theses subjects were given more emphasis on as each subject was allocated six lessons a week while the following subjects New Testament studies, Agriculture, Home Economics, Industrial Arts were only allocated four lessons a week. The form six syllabus has placed more emphasis on students to be focused on either
doing Arts or Science subjects while the form seven curriculum is at the University of the South Pacific (USP) Foundation Programme.

Not all secondary school learning materials are produced locally. It is either due to the lack of local technical expertise or the lack of resources and the high cost producing them locally. Thus, some of the required textbooks produced have to be brought in from overseas, either Papua New Guinea (PNG), Fiji, Australia or New Zealand. For instance the Secondary English textbooks called Create and communicate were brought in from PNG, like wise for the Secondary English Target textbooks; they were brought in form Fiji. Some Mathematics textbooks were brought in from Australia and New Zealand.

There has been serious disruption of basic education services delivery in particular as a result of the conflict and its aftermath and subsequent in and continuing decline in financial resources available for education, deficient education facilities and in many schools instruction material are practically non-existent (SIG & NZAID 2004:7). However, under the current arrangements Curriculum development will remain centralized with in the Ministry of Education. The primary school curriculum is currently being reviewed, with work on primary mathematics and English for standards 1-6 underway. Development of other subjects will follow. Funding assistance is being provided by NZAID (Catherwood, 2006: 34).

4.7 Conclusions

Like many developing countries, Solomon Islands continue to struggle with increasing poverty, unemployment and population growth. The country has a narrow resource base, and the economy is dependent almost exclusively on a few agricultural products – cocoa, copra, palm oil and the exploitation of the natural resources both from the land and the sea.

The continuing political instability in the country has exacerbated the deteriorated social, economic, political burden coupled with high population growth rate and isolation from major export market. The political instability coupled with growing population and demands, poverty and unemployment resulting from economic crises along with the natural disasters such as cyclones put hurdles on the educational development in the Solomon
Islands. The Solomon Islands Government sees education as a corner stone of economic growth and social development and principal means of improving the welfare of individuals that will in turn help in the country in the long run. With the current state of primary education infrastructure and the growing demand for primary education and the continuous resource scarcity has forced the Government to depend more on foreign educational aid especially for primary education.
CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into two parts. Part One gives an overview of the state of primary education in Guadalcanal Province in Solomon Islands. The Second part discusses the New Zealand aid and then it goes on to analyse results. The analysis is done on New Zealand Education aid to the primary schools in the study area, East - Central Guadalcanal Constituency.

The analysis also attempts to show how and what influences the distribution patterns of the NZ education aid in the study area. This thesis assesses the NZAID impact on primary education in Solomon Islands.

5.2 State of Primary Education in Guadalcanal Province

This section discusses the state of primary education in the Guadalcanal province. It then goes on to discuss the state of primary education in the study area.

The total number of primary schools registered in Guadalcanal province was 77. The Guadalcanal Province Education Authority (GPEA) has 69 primary schools under its administration, the other 8 primary schools were administered by the Churches. The Authority was mandated to provide basic primary education to the children of Guadalcanal who reached the primary school age. However, the years of unrest in Solomon Islands from 1998 to 2003 had put pressure on the province for the provision of the essential basic services including education. Many schools were closed down due to the unrest. Some indicators such as gender inequality, teacher - student ratio, trained teaching staff are used to assess the state of primary education in the study area.
5.2.1 Gender Inequality in Primary Education in Guadalcanal

The table 5.1 below shows the gender inequality in primary schools in the Guadalcanal constituencies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constituency</th>
<th>Head Teachers</th>
<th>Trained Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M  F  Total</td>
<td>Female/ Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East-Central</td>
<td>7 5 12</td>
<td>1:1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East</td>
<td>9 1 10</td>
<td>1:9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>6 0 6</td>
<td>_</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>10 0 10</td>
<td>_</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North-West</td>
<td>6 1 7</td>
<td>1:6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>9 0 9</td>
<td>_</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>6 1 7</td>
<td>1:6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North-East</td>
<td>6 1 7</td>
<td>1:6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59 9 68</td>
<td>1:6.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Guadalcanal Province Education Authority, 2006.*

There exist gender inequalities in primary education sector in the Guadalcanal constituencies. The Guadalcanal constituencies show a gender inequality in terms of headships in primary schools. The female to male head teacher ratio in the primary schools in Guadalcanal province shows nearly 1: 7 which means 7 male head teacher to one female head teacher in the province as whole. In the constituencies of South, West and North, there is no female head teacher. The gender inequality is much narrower in the East –Central constituency as the male and female ratio is almost 1:1. In other constituencies in the province, there exists a wide disparity in terms of the ratio of female to male head teacher ship. Similarly, data for female-male ratios for trained teachers in the constituencies show that highest ratio value of 1: 5 exists in South constituency followed by East – Central and East constituency. The lowest ratio is seen in North West constituency. This suggests that
the gender inequality in terms of trained teachers in Guadalcanal is higher in Southern, East – Central and Eastern constituencies and lower in Northern, Central, North - West and North – east constituencies.

5.2.2 Teacher - Student Ratio

The quality of primary education depends on the staffing and quality of teachers as well as proportion of students to each teacher. Some indicators used for measuring the quality of primary education in this study include the teacher - student ratio, trained / untrained patterns of teaching staff in schools.

Table 5. 2 Number of Primary Schools and Teacher - Student Ratios in Guadalcanal Constituencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constituency</th>
<th>No of Schools</th>
<th>Total Student enrolment</th>
<th>Total Teachers</th>
<th>Total Teacher-student Ratio</th>
<th>Total trained teachers</th>
<th>Trained Teacher-Student Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>East Central</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2479</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>1: 29.9</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>1: 52.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2080</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>1: 29.9</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1: 52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1063</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1:31.2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1: 59.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2547</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>1: 27.9</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1: 44.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1596</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>1: 22.8</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>1: 29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1935</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>1: 29.8</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1: 33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1740</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>1: 25.2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1: 49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North East</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1222</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1: 25.4</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1: 37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>68</strong></td>
<td><strong>14662</strong></td>
<td><strong>431</strong></td>
<td><strong>1: 34.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>385</strong></td>
<td><strong>1: 43.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Guadalcanal Province Education Authority, 2006.*

The table 5.2 shows the teacher - student ratio in the primary schools in Guadalcanal constituencies. There are 68 primary schools in Guadalcanal province with student enrollment of above 14,600. The total teacher – student ratio in the Guadalcanal province as whole was 1: 34. The trained teacher student ratio in the area was as high as 1: 43. The East- Central Guadalcanal constituency (the study area) is showing a higher value (1: 30).
suggesting a poor staffing or inadequate number of teachers. In contrast, the North - West constituency has the lowest ratio value (1: 23) showing relatively better staffing among the primary schools.

5.2.3 Quality of Teaching Staff

The quality of teachers in the schools depends upon the number of teachers that are trained.

Table 5.3 Proportion of Trained Teachers in Guadalcanal Constituencies by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constituency</th>
<th>% of Trained Teachers</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East - Central</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North - West</td>
<td>74.1</td>
<td>79.4</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>87.0</td>
<td>88.2</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>67.8</td>
<td>60.9</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North - East</td>
<td>64.2</td>
<td>75.0:1</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Guadalcanal Province Education Authority, 2006.*

Table 5.3 shows that 65.6 percent of the teachers in Guadalcanal province were trained. In this regard schools in North constituency had largest proportion of trained teachers followed by North- West constituency. In the study area i.e. East - Central constituency, about 58 percent teachers was trained and the rest were untrained. There existed a higher gender imbalance in terms of proportions of male and female trained teachers in the province. There were more male trained teachers, 55.8 percent as compared to 43.8 percent female trained teachers. North Guadalcanal constituency has a better scenario in terms of proportion of male and female trained teachers as compared to other constituencies. The South constituency had the lowest proportion of trained teachers (43.7 percent) and also lowest female trained teachers in the whole Guadalcanal province.
5.2.4 The State of Primary Education in East - Central Guadalcanal Constituency

Education is regarded as a very important need of the villagers in the East – Central constituency like any other Solomon Islands communities. This was reflected on the 100 percent yes responses by the households to the question on how they value education. The benefits of children having access to education are highlighted as a necessity. As one parent state:

“oloketa man an woman skul guti nao save garem guti wak an bae helpem iumi lo sampala wei yia” (well educated men and women will certainly have well secured jobs and that they will help us in one way or the other).

However, there is wide disparity in the primary schools in the study area. The table 5.4 below shows the educational disparities in the study area. i.e. East - Central constituency.

Table 5. 4. Selected Educational Indicators in East – Central Guadalcanal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Primary School</th>
<th>Gender of Head of School</th>
<th>Student Enrollment</th>
<th>Total Teachers</th>
<th>Teacher: Student Ratio</th>
<th>Total Trained Teachers</th>
<th>Trained Teacher student Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Babasu</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1: 16.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1: 50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boloale</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1: 21.7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1: 32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L/Kaoaka</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1: 24.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1: 30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nangali</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1: 33.7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1: 70.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susu</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1: 28.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1: 65.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vatubulu</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1: 41.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1: 69.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>2,479</strong></td>
<td><strong>83</strong></td>
<td><strong>1: 29.9</strong></td>
<td><strong>48</strong></td>
<td><strong>1: 51.6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Guadalcanal Province Education Authority, 2006.*

As mentioned earlier, six primary schools were taken for the study in the East – Central constituency. Indicators such as gender disparity, teacher – student ratio were taken to have a comparative analysis among primary schools. In terms of gender of headship in schools only one school i.e Babasu was a female - headed school while the other schools in the area
had male head teachers. In three schools namely, Babasu, Boloale and Kaoka, the teacher - student ratios were low, suggesting that they were better off in terms of staffing compared to other schools in the constituencies. The staffing situation was worse in Vatubulu primary school where the teacher student ratio value was as high as 1:42. Similarly, in terms of trained teacher – student ratio, the schools such as Kaoka, Bolale and Babasu were better off. Nangali and Vatubulu Schools were worse - off in terms of availability of trained teachers.

Table 5.5 Trained Teachers in Primary Schools in the Study Area by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary School</th>
<th>Trained Teacher (%)</th>
<th>Untrained Teachers (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babasu</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boloale</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Longu Kaoka</td>
<td>85.7</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nangali</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susu</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vatubulu</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>58.6</strong></td>
<td><strong>56.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Guadalcanal Province Education Authority, 2006.*

Table 5.5 shows trained and untrained teachers by gender in the six primary schools in the study area. It indicates that 58.6 percent of teachers in the primary schools in the study area were trained and about 42 percent were untrained. Longu Kaoka school had highest proportion of trained teachers (80 percent) followed by Boloale (67 percent) and Vatubulu (60 percent). Nangali and Susu had inadequate trained teachers, each with 43 percent. The three schools namely Babasu, Bolale, and Nangali had 100 percent female teachers that were untrained.
5.3 New Zealand Educational Aid - An Overview

New Zealand’s relationships with Solomon Islands developed over many years of close association, dating back to the Guadalcanal – Solomon Islands Campaign in World War II and early missionary linkages through Bishop Selwyn (NZ Government, 2007).

The New Zealand government aid on education program is small compared to other donors in the Pacific. The New Zealand aid for education program has gone a long way in history. Many of the Solomon Islands leaders have either directly or indirectly benefited educationally from the New Zealand aid program. Some of them had gone to schools and universities in New Zealand or to some regional institutions or even in the Solomon Islands college of Higher Education (SICHE) under the New Zealand Aid Program. Many began their careers as lecturers, teachers, and education officers, as counter parts, and managed aid activities (Sanga, 2005:19). In other words, NZ educational aid has been an integral part of education that promotes human resources development in Solomon Islands.

Like other donors’ program, the New Zealand aid has been becoming more important especially after the post - conflict period in the Solomon Islands.

Table 5.6 shows educational aid by bilateral and multilateral donor agencies. Under the Overseas Development Assistance (ODA) program Solomon Islands is currently New Zealand’s largest bilateral aid recipient (Sanga, 2005). NZAID’s bilateral ODA to Solomon Islands was on an average of $18 million per annum for 2005/2006 and for 2007 / 2008. New Zealand’s educational aid to Solomon Islands during 1990- 1998 was 46.7 million SBD and in 2001- 2003 it was 14.4 million SBD. During 2001- 2003, the proportion of NZ educational aid was about 21 percent of the total bilateral aid to Solomon Islands and 14 percent of the total aid (Pollard and Sanga, 1998). The major activities of the NZAID programme focuses on education, government machinery, law and justice and economic development (Sanga, 2005).
Table 5.6 Education Aid by Donors to Solomon Islands, 1990 - 2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of China</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Bilateral Agency</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Bilateral</strong></td>
<td><strong>219.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>69.4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Union</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN Agencies</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Bank &amp; IFAD</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Health Organisation</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Multilateral</strong></td>
<td><strong>75.6</strong></td>
<td><strong>34.4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grand Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>294.9</strong></td>
<td><strong>103.8</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Pollard & Sanga, 1998*

5.3.1 Volume of New Zealand Aid to Solomon Islands

NZ support to the education sector in Solomon Islands has until recently concentrated on post – primary education (mostly in the form of scholarships for studying in New Zealand and in Third World countries). Since 2002, there has been a shift in emphasis towards support government – led strategic processes in education and achievement of Universal Basic Education (UBE) (MEHRD & NZAID, 2004:14).

New Zealand’s bilateral assistance to Solomon Islands for 1999 to 2001 was SBD$ 41.8 million, for 2002- 2003 NZ $ 4. 8 million and for 2003 -2004 NZ$ 4.16 million (NZAID, 2004). The priority areas of New Zealand aid were: (i) to support education, (ii) to control population and address gender and development issues (iii) to encourage good governance, and (iv) to encourage small business through skills training and development (Pollard and Sanga, 1998).
The recurrent resources for the education sector in the years 2001, 2002 and 2003 were nearly SI $67 million (NZ$15.5 million), SI 56 million (NZ $13 million) and SI 57 million (NZ $13.3 million) respectively which is 22 percent of total SIG expenditure (Pollard and Sanga, 1998).

In 2001, New Zealand initiated the emergency support to secondary schools in Solomon Islands. Given the difficulties within the education system and accountability, this was a strategy that acknowledges the risks involved in providing grants directly to schools. Grants were given per student basis. This type of intervention enabled many schools to run effectively. The secondary school grant in 2001 was SBD 3 million. In 2002 – 2003, New Zealand aid was SBD 3.0 million for students studying in tertiary institutions (Pollard, 2005:184).

The NZAID’s new education aid programme which started in July 2003 included the education rehabilitation. Activities are phased in accordance with the approved rolling sector Annual Work Plan (AWP). The SIG, EU and NZAID had signed a joint Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) covering donor support to education in the country from 2004 – 2006 (MEHRD & NZAID, 2004).

For the period of 2004- 2006, NZAID, had provided up to NZ $ 433 million. Of this, NZ $30 million was ear – marked as education budget support and NZ$ 3 million as technical assistance with the purpose of improving access, equality and management of the Solomon Island’s education sector, in particular basic education (MEHRD & NZAID, 2004). The aim was to achieve the key policy goals and targets of the Government of Solomon Islands as expected in the Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2004 - 2006, Provincial Education Action Plans and Annual Work Plans (AWP). Achievements of ESP goals are key priorities within the wider human development approaches in the National Economic Recovery Reform and Development Plan (NERRDP) that has been developed by SIG to enable it to achieve a medium term economic development.
The ESP goals are:
- to provide equitable access to quality basic education for all children in the Solomon Islands.
- to provide access to community, technical, vocational and tertiary education that will meet individual, regional and national needs for skilled human resource.
- to manage resources in an efficient and transparent manner.

A major objective of the NZAID’s assistance to education is to support the NERRDP/ESP with immediate goal of re-establishing and maintaining the delivery of basic education services during the post-conflict rehabilitation and economic recovery period (2004 – 2006). NZAID provides support for basic education as part of a long term commitment to Solomon Islands’ efforts in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and has given an indication that support for basic education will continue at similar levels in 2007 – 2008 (MEHRD & NZAID, 2004:5).

5.3.2 Volume of New Zealand Aid for Primary Education

The volume of the NZ education aid from 2000 to 2006 gradually increased and covered the areas such as National Strategic Education Plan Support, support for primary education, tertiary training and sector support. The total estimate for 2005 - 2006 was NZ $14.6million. The support for primary education had the largest share of $12 million. This shows that improvement in primary education sector in the Solomon Islands was the main concern of the New Zealand aid program.
Table 5. 7 NZ Educational Aid Program to Solomon Islands, 2002 – 2006

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Strategic Education Plan support</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support for Primary Education</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>12.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary Training</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>1.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector support</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10.50</td>
<td>14.60</td>
<td>14.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


5.3. 3 Purpose of New Zealand Aid

The SIG has recently put in place an Education Strategic Plan (2004 – 2006) that elaborates a strategic framework within which the education system will be rehabilitated and long term development programs would be designed. It establishes the priorities and a plan of action to recover the education system from the effects of conflict and commerce reforms (MEHRD & NZAID, 2004:14). NZAID’s support to the education sector has been prepared within the context of the NERRDP and ESP. A programme for support to education in the country was approved by the New Zealand government as part of NZAID’s contribution to the Education Sector Investment and Reform Programme (ESIRP) which was approved by the cabinet in May 2004. Since December 2002, work has been ongoing in close collaboration with SIG and the EU to develop an NZAID three – year support programme for basic education. As key aspect of NZAID programme implementation, the government had completed a final version of an NZAID Annual Work Plan (ANWP) for 2004. Community Standard Funding for schools, National Teacher Training and Development Programme (NTTDP), Curriculum Review and Reform Programme (CRRP) and National Infrastructure Development Programme (NIDP) are the main areas identified for NZ aid support. In addition, a NZAID - funded financial tracking study of the primary teachers’
pay roll has been completed. Work has commenced on the validation of all primary school teacher appointments in the country.

The Solomon Islands Government takes the necessary action to clean the teacher’s pay roll and prevent future abnormalities and also works with the NZAID and the World Bank to complete a teacher supply and demand study to inform further development of the ESP, and in particular the National Teacher Training and Development Programme (MEHRD & NZAID, 2004:16).

5.3.4 Utilisation Patterns of New Zealand Aid in the Education Sector

The first tranches of NZAID financial support in 2004 has allowed an expansion of the basic education expenditures in respect of basic instructional materials, primary school operations, primary school facilities, rehabilitation and maintenance and primary/junior secondary school teacher deployment, production and development. The recently completed tracking study (funded by NZAID) and other analytical work supported by the EU, is helping to build confidence about the established financial management arrangements for the sector. In 2004, a further consideration was given to the assessment of classroom construction and infrastructure development in 2005 and 2006. Work has been completed on developing a simple design for materials storage to be constructed by the school communities. MEHRD needs to produce a cost-effective five-year plan for decentralised primary classroom construction and rehabilitation (MEHRD & NZAID, 2004:23).

5.4 Survey Responses to New Zealand Aid Program

The section analyses the head teacher and teacher’s responses to the NZAID program in their schools. The discussion focuses from the beginning of the years when the schools started receiving the grants under the NZAID. It was new era of what is regarded as free primary education by many parents in Solomon Islands.

Although the Agreement and the Memorandum of Understanding between the New Zealand and Solomon Islands Government were signed in 2002, the schools in the study
area received the NZAID grants two years later. The delay was because of the long bureaucratic process. There was need for an update information regarding the total number primary schools, number of teachers, number of student enrollments in the primary schools throughout the country. Apart from this, there was a need to assess the state of primary schools after the unrest. This was needed by the donors and the Ministry of Education. New Zealand Aid grants received by the schools amounted on an average of SIS 220 per child per year (Solomon Star, 2007).

### 5.4.1 Forms of New Zealand Aid to Primary Schools

All primary schools in the study area received NZ aid in the form of grants. Three of the six schools in the study area namely, Babasu, Longu Kaoka and Susu had received curriculum materials under the aid program. Two schools such as Babasu and Longu Kaoka also received the infrastructure materials and had built their double storied complexes that catering to the needs for Staff room, storage, library and classrooms (Table 5.8).

**Table 5.8 Forms of NZ Aid received by the Schools in the Study Area**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of Aid</th>
<th>No of schools received</th>
<th>% Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fees/Grants</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Materials</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure Provisions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006*

The distribution patterns of NZ aid raised some concerns for the remote schools. The criteria used by the MEHRD and the GPEA regarding the supervision and the distribution of the NZAID to primary schools were questioned by the teachers. Many opined that it would have been meaningful if the priority for the NZAID would have been given to the remote schools since they lack basic infrastructure facilities such as classrooms and storage facility and library.
As one well-known teacher from the interior school in the study area puts it:

“We've heard of the New Zealand aid but we have yet to receive it. I’ve heard that some schools in the costal areas have received the NZAID for primary schools while we in the interior schools are yet to receive it. Those schools are better off than us since they have received earlier assistance from the Japanese Grass root project and AUSAID and now the NZAID”. We are unfortunate since we have not received any of these assistance. We are still left out and this was a drawback in terms of education development in our remote areas.

This reflects the concern over NZAID distribution patterns in primary schools.

5.4.2 Responses from Schools

This section deals with various responses received from the schools on the NZ aid primary school project.

5.4.2.1 Awareness of the New Zealand aid in the Schools

The study found greater public knowledge or awareness by the households and school teachers on the New Zealand aid to primary schools. The obvious reason of the awareness was that parents are no longer paying their children’s fees for primary education. Of the total respondents, 92.6 percent had indicated that they were aware of the aid for the primary schools (Table 5.9). A small proportion of respondents were unaware of the NZ aid package because of the remoteness of their location and inaccessibility to modern communication. Many stated that in reality primary education is not free since schools are demanding from parents the financial contributions and even they are undertaking fundraising activities to meet educational needs.
Table 5. 9 Awareness of the New Zealand aid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of respondents</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>% Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>% No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head teacher</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>90.4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>92.6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006

For the head teachers and the teachers, their awareness was obvious on the ground that some of them were signatories to school accounts to which the school grants were deposited in to. Many acknowledged the NZAID during the staff meetings in which they were briefed of their schools’ financials reports.

In some schools, the teachers did a fine job. They undertook the supervision work on the infrastructure construction in their schools. This was noticed in the Babasu and Longu Kaoaka primary schools. These two schools are fortunate to receive infrastructure grants from the aid (See table 5.8 & 5.10). While, in some schools class teachers are already using the newly produced Nguzunguzu grade’s 1 to 4 curriculum materials that were produced under the NZ primary school aid project.

5.4.2.2 Head Teacher’s Response on School Improvement

The response of the head teachers on the improvement in the schools widely varied. Half of the head teachers responded that they have seen improvement in the curriculum materials in their schools while 33 percent of the head teachers said there was improved infrastructure in their schools (Table 5.10). Only 16.7 percent head teachers said that there was an improvement in the library resources. The three schools namely, Nangali, Vatubulu and Susu received no aid for improving their curriculum and infrastructure facilities. These differences are primarily due to the pattern of dissemination of different trance of the NZAID to primary schools.
Table 5.10 Response of NZAID School Head Teachers towards school improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of School</th>
<th>Curriculum materials</th>
<th>Better Physical infrastructure</th>
<th>Library Resources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Babasu</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L /kaoka</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagali</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vatubulu</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boloale</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susu</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of schools received</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Schools received</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006

5.4.2.3 Level of Difficulties in Accessing NZAID

The head teachers of six primary schools responded differently to questions how they access the aid for their respective primary schools. Nearly 67 percent of head teachers responded that it was difficult in accessing the NZ aid while the other 33 percent stated that they found easy to access NZAID for their schools (Researcher interview, 2006). The head teachers also stated that access to aid was a time consuming process.

5.4.3 Household Survey Responses

The researcher surveyed households to get first hand information about the conditions of households in the study area and to get their opinion about the effectiveness of the NZAID in the schools where their children were the beneficiaries.

The following section describes the household responses on the survey. The households’ responses are relevant since they indicated their views on the effectiveness of New Zealand aid in the study area.
5.4.3.1 Levels of Household Income

Educational development, accessibility and attainment are all linked closely to level of household income. An analysis of level of income at the household level in the study area suggests that nearly 38 percent of household’s had an income in the range of SBD $50 – 100 and slightly more than one – fifth of the households had an income level between SBD $ 200- 250 (Table 5.11). The grant from the NZAID for primary education was based on the number of student enrollment. The amount was SBD220 per head for a year.

Table 5. 11 Levels of Household Income in the Study Area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monthly income (SBD)</th>
<th>No of respondent</th>
<th>% respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50 -100</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100- 150</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150 -200</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200 - 250</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006*

5.4.3.2 Distance to Schools and Access to Education

Access to education closely linked to the distance traveled by children. For instance, schools that are located farther away from the communities make access to education difficult especially for the younger children. The geography of the country makes the access to education more difficult. Therefore, schools should be built closer to the community. Poor road conditions and transport difficulties make access to education difficult for the school - aged children in the communities. About 48 percent of the households responded that the distance to schools from their homes range from 2 - 3 km. Another 43 percent responded that their children travel a distance between 1- 2 km. About 10 percent of the household said that their children traveled schools that are located more
than 3 km away from their homes (Table 5.12). In all the schools in the study area, children travel to schools by foot. Easy access to education by the children is a major concern in the study area, especially for those at the preparatory stage.

### Table 5.12 Distance Traveled by Children to reach School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance (km)</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
<th>% respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1km</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - 3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006*

### 5.4.3.3 Road Conditions Linking to Schools

The bad condition of roads used by the children to travel daily to and from schools was one of the major problems (Table 5.13). About 52 percent of the household respondents had indicated that the conditions of roads connecting to schools are in bad state. As one parent stated that:

‘Mi sore lo oloketa small one tumas because team hem rain roti barava no gutia, hem mud tumas. (I felt sorry for the very young ones when there is heavy down pour, the road would be so muddy).

While in some areas the children have to cross rivers to reach schools. Flooding of rivers hinders the children attending schools. Heavy flooding can cause casualties when children take the risk of crossing rivers. So heavy rain, flooding of rivers and poor road conditions and other geographical adverse conditions contribute significantly to absenteeism and irregularity in attendance by primary school children and greatly jeopardize the educational development in the study area.
Table 5.13 Household Response towards Road Conditions in the study area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Road Condition</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
<th>% respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006*

5.4.3.4. Level of Community Support and Participation

Although the need for primary education is high in the communities, their support and participation in schools development in the study area is crucial. This needs to be looked at by both the school administration and the community leaders. Of the six schools in the study area, 50 percent of the head teachers stated that there was weak participation by the community. Another 16.7 percent of head teachers had indicated that there was a medium level of community participation in their schools. Only one-third of the head teachers responded a very strong support form the community towards their schools. According to the Guadalcanal Education Officer (Researcher interview, 2006) the study area has done well as compared to other areas in terms of community participation. Overall there is poor community support and participation in school development.

Table 5.14 Head Teacher’s Response to Level of Community to Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>% of responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006*

There are several reasons for the poor community participation in the study area. The reasons are as follows:
Head teachers of the schools pointed out that many parents have been away to the near-by islands for many days and engaging heavily in some small-scale fishing activities. The commercial logging companies nearby employed many others that give them little or no time for engagement in village and school activities.

A teacher in another school observed that the poor community participation was due to lack of trust and confidence on the school administration. According to this teacher, the school administration lack accountability and transparency in handling school affairs. As a result there is withdrawal of community support from the school development.

In another school, a teacher responded that there is lack of coordination, and consultation between the chairperson, the head teacher and the community. The chairperson remains busy with his own business negotiation that takes him out from the village for a long period.

In some areas, the communities have wrong notion and perception toward NZ aid. The communities think that aid is nothing but money. So long there is aid, there is money to pay for people to do the jobs required by the school. So to them, there should be no free labour. Their thinking was that, someone would be contracted to do the job on their behalf because there is money coming from the aid program. This creates the dependency mentality and attitude of relying on others and money for a job to be done. This attitude also contributes to low level of community participation in some areas.

5.4.4 Problems in NZ - Aided Schools

NZAID has improved the infrastructure facilities and curriculum materials in some schools. However, a large number of schools still face many problems. The responses from the households give a picture of the problems that they see still exist in primary schools.

The household perspective on the problems encountered by the NZ - aided schools was interesting. Inadequate educational resources and lack of trained teachers in NZ – aided schools and the distance to schools are some of the problems observed by households. Of the total respondents 43 percent indicated that there are still inadequate educational
materials exist in the schools. Some head teachers stated that one of the contributing factors to this problem was the undercounting of student numbers in schools by the staff of the National Resources Center Office (NRCO) in Honiara. Another factor is that only half of the schools in the study area had not received the curriculum materials (Fig 5.3). The other issue was the distance traveled by children to and back from school. About 38 percent of the households indicated that distance from the village to school was a major concern. This means that the schools are located far away from the villages and it makes accessibility to education a problem for the children. In particular it was a serious problem for the kindergarten children (those between the ages of 4-5 years) who have to walk for a long way. This could be a factor affecting irregular attendance and high dropouts in the primary schools. Another 19 percent of the respondents stated that the lack of trained teachers was a problem in the schools (see Fig 5.3).

The issue of teacher training is critical for educational development. Although one of the major components of the NZ - aid was the teacher training, there is still inadequate trained teacher in the primary schools. In this respect the NZ aid has been ineffective and not achieving its intended goals. Teacher training in fact takes two to three years in the teacher education institution in Solomon Islands to meet the necessary requirements for some one to be a qualified teacher.

Fig 5.1 Household Response to Problems in NZ - Aided Schools in Solomon Islands

![Household Response to Problems in NZ - Aided Schools in Solomon Islands](source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006.)
5.4.5. Positive Impacts of the New Zealand Aid on Primary Education

An assessment of impacts of aid is difficult because nature of projects differ from place to place with varied geographic conditions in Solomon Islands. The effectiveness of NZ aid in primary education however, was measured in terms of timing of grants, distribution, improvement in infrastructure and availability of educational resources including new curriculum materials in schools. Enrollment pattern also reflects aid impacts. The study finds that despite failure in many fronts, the NZ aid has contributed significantly to the development of primary education in Guadalcanal. This was evident from the respondents responses. About 52 percent of all respondents had indicated that the NZAID was effective in addressing the education needs of the community while 48 percent responded negatively (see Table 5.15).

Table 5.15 Response towards effectiveness of NZ Aid in Primary Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>% Yes</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>% No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head teacher</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>54</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>51.9</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>48.1</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006

5.4.5.1 School Infrastructure Improvement

There is a mixed response from the community to the issue of infrastructure improvement. Out of the six primary schools studied, only two have actually received the materials for the infrastructure improvement. These schools include Longu Kaoaka and Babasu primary schools. The communities had acknowledged the hard work of their head teachers and their community leaders for the construction of their new double - storeyed buildings that are used for classroom, library and staff room. The other four schools are yet to receive their share of aid for the infrastructure development. Nearly 52 percent respondents said the school infrastructure has not been improved under the aid program (see Table 5.16)
5.4.5.2 Improvement in School Course Materials

The household responses on the improvement children’s course materials in schools under the New Zealand aid varies. About 62 percent of the respondents stated that there was no improvement on the learning materials while 38 percent said that there were improvements on the children’s learning materials (Table 5.17).

Table 5.17 Household Response towards improvement of course materials in Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>% respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006

5.4.5.3 Level of Students’ Motivation in School Attendance

One of the interesting responses from the households and the schools was on the children’s motivation in school attendance. About 57 percent of the respondents indicated that there was no change in the children’s level of motivation in school attendance in the New Zealand - aided schools. The reason for lack of motivation by children as stated by many parents was the long distance that the children traveled daily and the poor road condition. Only 43 percent of the respondents stated that there were some changes in children’s motivation to go to school (Table 5.18). The change was obvious in schools where there
were improvements in the infrastructure, availability of the new children’s learning and play materials.

Table 5. 18 Household Response towards Changes in Children’s Motivation to Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of households</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Changed/ improved</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No change/Maintained</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Researcher’s Primary School Survey, 2006*

### 5.4.5.4 Student Enrollment

The student enrollment patterns also indicate the effectiveness of aid program. According to the head teachers of the six primary schools, there was a steady increase in the female enrolment in the primary schools. The head teachers acknowledged that the increase in the female student enrollment was attributed to the incentive of free education by SIG and the NZAID for primary education. The parents also see this opportunity to send their daughters to schools since the burden of school fees were taken care off by the aid program. Hence, there is improvement in the student enrollments in schools. The correct record of enrolment was however difficult to obtain from many schools. Access to specific data on the female enrollment patterns before and after the NZAID implementation was more difficult. Another factor obtained by the head teachers of the schools was the annual staff movement according to the annual posting. It further hinders keeping of proper records in some schools.

### 5.4.5.5 The Negative impacts of the New Zealand Educational Aid

While there were some positive impacts of New Zealand aid on educational development in the study area there were some negative impacts as well. Two of the general negative impacts the NZAID are highlighted below.
5.4.5.6 Creation of Dependency Mentality

One of the negative impacts of aid was that it creates a dependency mentality in the rural areas and at the national level. As stated by one community leader, ‘Aid hem mekem oloketa pipol no save waka pree nao.’ (Aid has unable people to give in their free labor). Some even stated that there is money coming from overseas to get people to do the work required in the schools so people should be paid for their labor. At the national level, relying heavily on aid funding for educational development is more dependent creating an ad hoc arrangement. The question remains how will the national government continue to maintain and run the primary school education when the aid is lapsed? In the case of Fiji – for example, the Australia teacher education project for Fiji Teachers College of Advanced education in the 1990s was more problematic. The Fiji government relied on aid funding to establish Fiji College of Advanced Education (FCAE) but when the aid lapsed, it had problems of sustaining the college. This cessation of aid led to staff members’ frustration and the work momentum began to be affected (Puamau, 2005). As the current trend shows the Solomon Islands national government may have to continue to depend on aid to keep the schools running in the future.

5.4.5.7 Problems with the Education Curriculum Development

Another area of failure is the development of educational resources particularly the curriculum materials. The education administrators and the donor partners need to look at more closely on curriculum development. The current education curriculum is giving more attention on enabling young people to read and write. This was obvious in the number of hours allocated in subjects such as Mathematics, English, Science, and Social Science. These subjects were given priority for six lessons a week, while the optional subjects for example Agriculture, Industrial arts, Home Economics and New Testament studies were allocated less number of lessons a week in both primary and secondary schools. These subjects aim to train people to work in offices rather than training young people on the basic life skills to survive and earn a living in the rural Solomon Island communities. The curriculum development under the aid program should be more need based and to be socially accepted.
5. 5 Conclusions

The study has given some interesting but not surprising results on the state of education in Guadalcanal province especially in the East – Central constituency. There exist gender inequalities in the primary education sector in all the Guadalcanal constituencies. The inequality exists in primary school headship, the ratio of male to female head teachership and trained teacher - student ratio. There are more male trained teachers compared to female teachers in the primary schools. There also existed high teacher - student ratios. The high teacher student ratios affect the quality of primary education to a great extent.

The New Zealand aid on education in Solomon Islands has gone a long way in history. NZ educational aid has been an integral part of education that promotes human resource development in Solomon Islands. Many of the Solomon Islands leaders have either directly or indirectly benefited educationally from the New Zealand aid program. Some of them had gone to schools and universities in New Zealand or to some regional institutions or even in the Solomon Islands college of Higher Education (SICHE) under the New Zealand Aid Program.

The New Zealand education aid to Solomon Islands has taken a new shift after the ethnic unrest. It has now focused on providing basic education for school - aged children in the Solomon Islands. The improvement in primary education in the Solomon Islands was the main focus of the New Zealand aid program. One of major objectives of the NZAID’s assistance to education is to support the NERRDP/ ESP with immediate goal of re-establishing and maintaining the delivery of basic education services during the post - conflict rehabilitation and economic recovery period.

The survey responses of the NZAID have shared some points to consider. While there are new infrastructure and new curriculum for primary schools, the distribution patterns of aid raised some concerns for the remote schools. These schools felt deprived of having equal access to the aid program. The issue of access to education is critical as some schools were built away from communities and bad road conditions that hinder easy access for the
children. The education administrators and the donor partners need to look at more closely on curriculum developments which are to be more need – based and also socially accepted.
CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusions

Education is a basic element in development. It empowers people to become more self-reliant. Most of the developing countries can not mobilize their own resources to fully cope with the growing demands for education. Achieving ‘education for all’ and the Millennium Development Goals remain the national challenges. These countries use ‘development aid’ as an instrument in meeting growing educational resource demands. Like any other Pacific countries, the Solomon Islands depend on the external sources of financing for meeting its education needs. New Zealand Government had started its educational aid Program to the Solomon Islands in 2002 and the program gained momentum in the post-conflict period.

The present thesis focused on the primary education and role of aid in its development in the Solomon Islands. The objective of the study was to assess the impact of New Zealand educational aid in the primary education sector in the Solomon Islands especially in Guadalcanal province.

The study used both qualitative and quantitative methods and data from primary and secondary sources. The primary data were gathered through structured, and semi-structured questionnaires and also from field observations. Six New Zealand–aided primary schools in the East–Central Guadalcanal constituency were taken in the study. The main respondents in the survey included six head teachers and six teachers from the primary schools, forty two households located in the schools’ vicinities from where the children came to the schools.

Development aid is vital for the Solomon Islands and the country continues to rely on aid to help in creating provision and further development of education for its citizens. Development aid is well defined as the aid given by bilateral government and multilateral
agencies to support the economic, social and political development of developing countries. The most common type of foreign aid is ODA, which is assistance given to promote development and to combat poverty. However, the motives for giving aid vary widely. The main purpose of aid is development of the recipient country. Some donor countries often provide foreign aid to enhance their own security while some for diplomatic recognition. Some donor countries however, provide aid to relieve suffering caused by natural or man-made disasters such as famine, disease, and war, to promote economic development, to help establish or strengthen political institutions, and to address a variety of transnational problems including disease, terrorism and other crimes, and destruction of the environment.

The contemporary idea of ‘development’ has become a topic and important only after the World War II. In the 1950s and the post – world war II period of reconstruction, the western economic development planners were convinced that aid based strategic planning would enable developing countries to bridge the gap that separated them from the industrial world. The developed nations committed themselves to monetary and technical aid channeled through United Nations (UN) agencies, and later through direct and bilateral programs, based on the theory that this aid would foster economic growth that would trickle down to the masses.

Central to the modernisation theory is the task of transforming traditional societies. The basic assumption of modernization theory is that developing countries are ‘traditional’ with values that are spiritual, stagnant, and not progressive. Consequently, the modernisation theory emphasises changes in personal attitudes and behaviours. The strategy to alleviate this situation, proponents of modernisation theory argued for Third World societies to change their traditional values to modern ones. This can be achieved through education and educational development. However, the developing countries are faced with the problems of high population growth, inaccessibility to education services and lack of education resources to have a quality education. Aid is therefore needed by many Third World countries to help alleviate these difficulties. Education is closely linked to economic growth and development. As stated earlier, education is the cornerstone of economic and social development. Primary education is its foundation. Education improves the productive capacity of societies and their political, economic, and scientific institutions. It also helps reducing poverty by mitigating its effects on population, health, nutrition and increase value
and efficiency of the labour offered by the poor. As technology advances and new methods of production that depend on well trained and intellectual flexible labour force transform economies, education becomes more significant.

Historically, the Christian Missionaries were the pioneers of the formal education system in many countries including Solomon Islands. As part of the mission work the christian missions opened up schools in various parts of the country during the first half of the 1900s. The churches needed educated people to extend its services and Solomon Islanders see education as a desirable channel and the doorway to opportunities. Then later on the government also needed a pool of skilled people to administer government, to provide services and resource to the emerging private sector. The British colonial government started a secondary school after World War II on Auki on Malaita. The school was later moved to Honiara in the 1960s. In 1976, the government took responsibility for education and almost all primary schools were handed over from churches to the government. Like any other country, education in the Solomon Islands is seen as a step to employment in the formal sector and a pathway from village life to urban way of life. The years after independence have called for an increase in the primary and secondary schools, to cater for the growing population. While primary education in the Solomon Islands was accessible to most of children largely in the form of day schools, secondary schooling was limited to the boarding places available at the national secondary schools.

The crisis period (1998- 2002) essentially compounded the existing educational issues. Access to education is limited for Solomon Islands children. Only 70 percent of primary aged children attend primary school, and smaller proportions move to secondary, vocational, technical, or tertiary schooling. The crises in Solomon Islands closed a number of schools in Guadalcanal and the impact on the government finances disrupted most of the schools throughout the country. The Government of Solomon Islands formally adopted an Education Strategic Plan for 2004 - 2006 with the financial support from the European Union (EU) and the New Zealand Agency for International Development (NZAID). The Education Strategic Plan, 2004 – 2006 was set out to provide equitable access to quality ‘basic education for all’ in the Solomon Island.
Since 1981, most of the primary schools were directed by the MEHRD, although some schools in Solomon Islands remain in private hands. Prior to this the churches directed most primary and secondary schools in Solomon Islands. Generally, primary education appears to be available to the majority of the children in the Solomon Islands. Of the total enrolments in 2005, 53 percent were boys and 47 percent were girls. Gender equity does not appear to be major problem, although there is slight gender imbalance in favour of boys. The reason for this imbalance may be attributed to slight attrition of girls towards the end of primary schooling.

With regard to provinces of Malaita and Guadalcanal, more than half of the school-aged populations were not attending any school in 1999 (SIG & NZAID, 2004 : 83). In Malaiata over one third (16,900) of the school-aged (5-14 year) children are not attending schools. Guadalcanal had over 18 percent (8,800) children not attending schools With the exception of Choiseul and Western province, all other provinces had a higher proportion of females than males not attending schools in 1999 (ibid).

Wide disparities exist in educational development among provinces in the Solomon Islands. Four provinces namely Western, Choiseul, Honiara and Rennell and Bellona are the most educated provinces in terms of overall literacy rates in the country with about more than 80 percent literacy rate. Makira Ulawa, Central, Gudalcanal, and Malaita provinces had 70 – 80 percent literacy rates compared to Temotu which had 60 – 70 percent literacy rate. Female literacy and development is positively correlated. Higher the development higher would be the female literacy and vice versa. In four provinces namely, Western, Choiseul, Honiara and Rennell and Bellona had more than 80 percent female literacy. In contrast, the lowest female literacy rate of less than 50 percent exists in Temotu province.

In the Pacific many ordinary citizens do not really understand the concept of aid: why aid is given and who gives aid? However, foreign aid has ensured human, infrastructure, social and economic progress in the Pacific Countries. Bridges, roads, wharves, buildings and institutions all are attributed to the development assistance. Despite high levels of external assistance, poverty is however on the rise as is, crime, domestic violence, unemployment, environmental degradation and population growth.
According to the OECD (2004), aid from all donors to FICs in 2002 was US$ 565 million or 45 percent of the total aid (US $ 1,451 million) to Oceania including French Polynesia, New Caledonia, and Walis and Futuna. Of the US $ 656 million to the PIFCs, Australia offered approximately US $ 270 million, representing 19 percent of total aid to the region. The NZAID is small by world standards and with a total annual budget of more than $ NZ 226 million of which 47 percent is directed to the PIFCs (NZAID, 2002). NZAID links with PICs are strong and more than 40 percent of the agency’s bilateral programme aid targets education sector in these countries. The NZAID Program had allocated a total of NZ $ 33 million to support primary education in the Solomon Islands between 2003 and 2006.

Three levels of assessment were done to assess the impacts of New Zealand Education Aid program in the Solomon Islands. The assessment was done on the provincial level, constituency level and at the NZ -aided school level in the study area. Some of the indicators used in the study to are state of educational development, gender equality, primary school teacher - student ratios and quality (trained) teaching staff available in the schools.

At the provincial level, the study showed that there existed wide gender inequalities in primary education sector in all Guadalcanal constituencies. Firstly, in terms of headship of primary schools, the data for male to female head teacher ratio in the primary schools was nearly 7:1 i.e. 7 male head teacher to one female head teacher in the province as whole. The total teacher – student ratio in the Guadalcanal province as whole was 1: 34. The trained teacher student - ratio in the area was as high as 1:43. The East- Central Guadalcanal constituency (the study area) has a higher ratio (1:30) suggesting a poor staffing or inadequacy in teaching staff available. In contrast, the North - West constituency had the lowest ratio value (1: 23) showing relatively better staffing among the primary schools in the East- Central constituency.

The proportion of trained and untrained teachers in Guadalcanal constituencies by gender gives a picture for gender imbalance in quality teaching staff. The study shows that 65.6 percent of teachers in Guadalcanal province were trained. There were more male trained teachers (55.8 percent) as compared to female trained teachers (43.8 percent). At the constituency level, North Guadalcanal constituency has a better scenario in terms of proportion of male and female trained teachers as compared to the other constituencies.
Disparities also existed at the primary schools level in the study area. In terms of gender of headship in schools only one school i.e Babasu was a female - headed school while the other schools in the area had male - head teachers. In three schools namely Babasu, Boloale and Kaoka the teacher - student ratios were low, suggesting that they were better off in terms of staffing compared to other schools in the constituencies. The staffing situation was worse in Vatubulu primary school where the teacher - student ratio value was high as 1:42. This suggests that one teacher is looking after 42 students in the school. Similarly in terms of trained teacher – student ratio, the schools such as Kaoka, Bolale and Babasu were better off. Nangali and Vatubulu schools were worse off in terms of availability of trained teachers.

In terms of trained teachers in the primary schools in the study area, 58 percent of teachers in the primary were trained and 42 percent were untrained. Longu Kaoka School had highest proportion (80 percent) of trained teachers followed by Boloale (67 percent) and Vatubulu (60 percent). The schools such as Nangali and Susu had less proportion of trained teachers, each with 43 percent. The three schools namely Babasu, Bolale, and Nangali had 100 percent female teachers that were untrained.

The New Zealand Government focused its policy in improving the primary education sector in the Solomon Islands. The volume of the NZ education aid from 2000 to 2006 gradually increased and covered under the National Strategic Education Plan Support, support for primary education, tertiary training and sector support. The total estimate for 2005 - 2006 was NZ $14.6million. The support for primary education had the largest share of $12million. Under the NZAID work plan the priority areas were: community standard funding for schools, national teacher training and development program, curriculum review and reform program and national infrastructure development program.

New Zealand and the Solomon Islands Governments had signed the MOU in 2002. However, there was delay in the implementation of the aid program. It was mainly due to the long bureaucratic process. The data based on educational development is weak in Solomon Islands. There was need for update information regarding the number primary of schools, number of teachers, number of student enrollments in the primary schools.
throughout the country. Apart from this, there was a need to assess the state of primary schools after the unrest which was needed by the donor and the Ministry of Education.

School responses from the study have raised mixed feelings on the NZAID program. The study revealed that there was high public awareness of the NZAID program. Many parents said that they had been paying less school fees since the aid program was introduced. All the primary schools in the study area received NZ aid in the form of grants. Three of the six schools in the study area namely, Babasu, Longu Kaoka and Susu had received curriculum materials under the aid program. Two schools such as Babasu and Longu Kaoka also received infrastructure materials and had built their school building catering to the needs for staff room, storage, library and classrooms. Although there is some aid received by the schools in the study area, the distribution patterns of the aid raised some concerns for the remote schools. These schools lack infrastructure facilities such as classrooms, storage facility and library, educational materials and other learning resources as compared to the other schools.

The head teachers’ response on school improvement under the aid program varied widely. Half of the head teachers responded that they have seen improvement in the curriculum materials in their schools while another 33 percent of the head teachers said there was improved infrastructure in their schools. Only 16.7 percent head teachers said that there was an improvement in the library resources. These differences are primarily due to the pattern of dissemination of different trance of the NZAID to primary schools. The head teachers responded differently to questions - how they access the aid for their respective primary schools. Nearly 67 percent of head teachers responded that it was difficult in accessing the NZ aid while the other 33 percent stated that they found easy to access NZAID for their schools.

Educational development, accessibility and attainment are all linked closely to level of household income. The analysis on level of income at the household level in the study area suggests that nearly 38 percent of households had an income in the range of SBD $50 – 100 and slightly more than one – fifth of the households had an income level between SBD $ 200 - 250. The grant from the NZAID for primary education was based on the number of student enrollment.
Access to education is closely linked to the distance traveled. For instance, schools that are located farther away from the communities make access to education difficult especially for the younger children. Findings from the study stated that about 48 percent of households responded that the distance to schools from their homes ranges from 2 - 3 km. Another 43 percent travel a distance between 1- 2 km. About 10 percent of the household said that their children traveled schools that are located more than 3 km away from their homes. Easy access to education by the children is a concern in the study area, especially for those at the preparatory stage.

The bad condition of roads used by the children to travel daily to and from schools was one of the major constraints in educational development in Solomon Islands. The study found that about 52 percent of the household respondents had indicated that road conditions are in bad state. Apart from bad road conditions, heavy rains and flooding of rivers and adverse weather conditions contribute significantly to absenteeism and irregular attendance by primary school children in the study area.

The study analysed the extent of community participation in school development. The level of community support and participation to educational development in the study area varied widely. Of the six schools in the study area, 50 percent of the head teachers stated that there was weak participation from the community. Another 16.7 percent of the head teachers had indicated that there was a medium level of community participation in their schools. Only one-third of the head teachers responded a very strong support form the community towards their schools development.

NZAID has improved the infrastructure facilities and curriculum materials in some schools. However, many schools still face problems such as inadequate educational resources and lack of trained teachers.

The effectiveness of NZ aid in primary education was measured in terms of timing of grants, distribution, improvement in infrastructure and availability of educational resources including new curriculum materials in schools. Enrollment pattern also reflected the impact of the aid program. The study shows that despite some failures, the NZAID has contributed
significantly to the development of primary education in Guadalcanal province. About 52 percent of respondents had indicated that the NZAID was effective in addressing the education needs of the community while 48 percent responded negatively.

There is a mixture of responses from communities to the issues of infrastructure. Nearly 52 percent respondents said the school infrastructure has not been improved under the aid program.

The household responses on the improvement in children’s course materials in schools under the New Zealand aid vary greatly. About 62 percent of the respondents stated that there was no improvement on the learning materials while 38 percent said that there were improvements on the children’s learning materials in NZ aided primary schools.

One of the interesting responses from the households and the schools was on the children’s motivation in school attendance. About 57 percent of the respondents indicated that there was no change in the children’s motivation in school attendance in the New Zealand - aided schools. The reason for lack of motivation by children as stated by many parents was the long distance the children traveled daily and poor road condition. Only 43 percent of the respondents stated that there were some changes in children’s motivation to go to school. The change was obvious in schools where there were improvements in the infrastructure, availability of the children’s learning and play materials.

The student enrollment patterns also indicate the effectiveness of aid program, according to the head teachers of the six primary schools. They observed that there was a steady increase in the female enrolment in their schools. The head teachers acknowledged that the increase in the female student enrollment was attributed to the incentive of free education by SIG and the NZAID for primary education.

The state of education in Guadalcanal province could be assumed a general state of education in other provinces in the Solomon Islands as well. The impacts of the NZAID project on education development especially on primary education are clearly noticeable. On the positive side, there were new infrastructure development, new curriculum materials production and increase in the student enrollments in schools. On the other side, there exists inequality in terms of distribution of aid to primary school in the study area. Many
geographical constraints such as bad road and rugged terrain conditions and poor development, weather condition, distance to access education and other constraints are the impediments to educational development in Guadalcanal area and in Solomon Islands in general. Aid dependency is a worrying concern in the study area. The government needs to re-look at the curriculum development that is used in the schools to address the needs of the society and not just keeping school-aged children engaged temporarily. Community participation is critical. The study shows it is limited or lacking in the study area. For the effectiveness of aid programme the community participation is most needed. Awareness campaigns are required for community involvement and the role of NGOs, government and private sector in this regard is crucial.

6.2 Recommendations

For aid to continue effectively in providing quality education that would in turn empower people to contribute effectively to the process of development, some issues are to be addressed. There is need for policy intervention by the Government.

i. For the Government

The following are some issues for the government to consider in improving the education needs of people of the Solomon Islands.

Firstly, there is a need addressing the inadequate staffing and providing adequate trained teachers in improving the quality primary education in the provinces in the Solomon Islands.

Secondly, bad road conditions and long distance traveled by the school children are the main impediments in achieving ‘universal basic education’ in the country. There is need for more investment in creating proper infrastructure and opening primary schools close to the communities.

Thirdly, there should be a policy in place for all primary schools to include kindergarten attached to each school in every community. Currently kindergarten is not fully recognized
as part of basic education programme. Individual and groups privately run many of the kindergartens. In areas where land disputes are common, one alternative of easing access especially for those in the every young age (kindergarten or play school children) is to have their schools attached to the village. The other option is the re-introduction of boarding primary schools where students spend the weekdays (Mondays – Fridays) in schools but are allowed to visit their parents over the weekends.

Fourthly, the teacher education policy in the tertiary institutions needs to be re-looked at. It seems that while the primary education infrastructure and curriculum materials have been improved under the NZAID, the availability of trained teachers still remain inadequate. The lack of trained teachers affects overall quality education in the country. The MEHRD could possibly address. One possible option is to introduce the teacher education programme through the distance flexibility mode.

Fifthly, adequate and safe water and sanitation provision in the schools are critical issues and needed to be addressed both by the government and the aid donors. Poor sanitation and lack of proper drinking water put many school-aged children at risk of having serious infections on diarrhea and other related sicknesses. High student absenteeism in many schools is also linked to poor sanitation and lack of proper drinking water supply.

Sixthly, the Government, aid donors and NGOs should encourage civic education through the media on the issues relating aid and education. Specific references should be made known to the public on the aims, objectives and the expected outcomes and benefits of education to the individuals, families and the community at large. Part of the civic education should include the areas where aid programme needs community’s input and participation.

**ii. For the Aid-Donors**

The following recommendations are made to the aid donors in order to make aid more meaningful and effective:-
Firstly, the issues aid availability to geographically isolated remote schools need to be looked at. NZAID would be more effective and meaningful if it identifies and addresses the needs of the remote schools. As the present study shows schools in the remote areas are lagging behind in terms of infrastructure development and curriculum materials. NZAID need to cover all primary schools including the remote schools. There exist inequity conditions in aid distribution and utilisation in which some schools are better off than others. Many schools also receive assistance from the aid donors such as AUSAID, the EU and Japanese Government. However, many schools receive no aid and survive from their limited resources. There is a greater need for distributional justice and the aid distribution to be need- based and given to priority schools and areas. The distributional equity is an essential component of sustainable educational development.

Secondly, community participation in educational development projects is key to success. Incentives by the donors may be given to communities who have shown greater commitment and participation in educational development. This will in turn encourage more community participation and lead to successful educational development.

Thirdly, there is a need for greater involvement of national level NGOs and civil society organisations in identification of priority schools and areas needing aid and in helping distribution of aid, implemenation and evaluation of aid programs for its greater effectiveness.

6.3 Future Research

The study covered some aspects of impact of NZ aid on primary schools in a constituency in Guadalcanal province. However, more in depth study is required covering all provinces in the country as a whole. Future research needs to be done in the following areas:

Firstly, there is necessary for a systematic country - wide study on the impact of the NZAID for basic education. This is to identify both the positive and negative impacts and also the constraints of the aid program. Secondly, an in-depth study is required focusing on how aid projects can be sustained in the long run.
Thirdly, there is a need to investigate in detail the teacher-training programme in the country. It is also important to investigate the potential of DFL teacher development initiatives. Studies should focus on how staff development programs are developed and how can they be conducted more effectively in order to improve quality education. Fourthly, the current study revealed that community participation is lacking in some areas. However, an in-depth study is required for focusing more on nature of community participation in educational development in Solomon Islands.

Fifthly, a study should be done on the status of early childhood in the Solomon Islands. Lastly, the current NZAID programme has introduced a new locally designed and produced primary curriculum materials (The Nguzunguzu Maths and English). A study should be done to check the relevancy and level of student’s literacy on this. This would certainly help in the future planning and designing of course for a sustained educational development in the Solomon Islands.
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APPENDICES
School level Questionnaire: Head teacher

This questionnaire is designed for study purposes only. The interviewer is a postgraduate student working on his Master’s Thesis. Your response will be highly valued and would be treated as confidential

Village: ______________________ Date: _________________

1. School’s year of establishment: _____________

2. Number of teachers currently in the school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Trained</th>
<th>Untrained</th>
<th>Total Trained</th>
<th>Total Untrained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Student enrolment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2005</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>2002</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Teachers profile in the School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Certificate</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Level of NZAID

a) Does the school receive any from of NZAID? Yes □ No □

b) If yes, how much volume of aid comes to your school?

__________________________________________________________________

c) What year does your school start receiving the NZAID? _____

b) State the purpose of which aid comes to your school.

i) _____________________________________________________________

ii) _____________________________________________________________

iii) _____________________________________________________________
c) Do you see any changes in the school after the introduction of the NZAID Program? Use the table below to indicate your answer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Improved</th>
<th>Maintained</th>
<th>Decline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching staff</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renovation work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library book stock</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff Development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water supply</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquire new land</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d) a) Do you think land tenure is a problem in your school?

Yes  ☐    No  ☐

b) State reasons:
   i) _______________________________________________________
   ii) _______________________________________________________
   iii) _______________________________________________________

e) a) How do you see student level of motivation in the school over the years?

Improved  ☐    Maintained  ☐    Declined  ☐
f) Student performance of your school at class exams

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No of student sat exam</th>
<th>No of Students passed</th>
<th>Pass rate %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M F</td>
<td>M F</td>
<td>M F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

g) What are the programs for staff development under the NZAID program?

i) __________________________________________________________

ii) _________________________________________________________

iii) _________________________________________________________

12.a) How do you compare the community involvement and participation under this NZAID program?

Poor □ Satisfactory □ Improved □

b) Identify the areas where there has been greater community participation and involvement under this aid program

i) _________________________________________________________

ii) _________________________________________________________

iii) _________________________________________________________

13.a) Are there problems with the NZAID? Yes □ No □
b) State why?

______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________

14. Identify the problems about the NZAID program.

i)___________________________________________________________________

ii)___________________________________________________________________

iii)__________________________________________________________________

iv)__________________________________________________________________

Thank you for your time
APPENDIX 2

School Questionnaires: Staff Perception

This questionnaire is designed for study purposes only. The interviewer is a Postgraduate student working on his Master’s Thesis. Your response and time will be highly appreciated.

Name of School: __________________ Name of Village: ______________

Staff Name: _______________ Staff Teaching/ support staff: __________ Date ______

________________________________________________________________________

1. Years served in the school ______

2. Do you aware of the NZAID for primary schools? Yes [ ] No [ ]

State reasons for your answer:

i)________________________________________________________________

ii)________________________________________________________________

iii)________________________________________________________________

iv)________________________________________________________________

3. How do you rate the NZAID for primary schools?

Less effective [ ] Effective [ ] Very effective [ ]

4. State the positive inputs of the NZAID to the school?

i)________________________________________________________________

ii)________________________________________________________________

iii)________________________________________________________________

iv)________________________________________________________________
5. In your opinion what are some of the problems associated with NZAID?

i) ________________________________________________________________

ii) _______________________________________________________________

iii) ______________________________________________________________ 

iv) ______________________________________________________________ 

v) ______________________________________________________________ 

6. a) Do you see changes to your school after the introduction of the NZAID?

Yes ☐ No ☐

b) State reasons:

i) ________________________________________________________________

ii) _______________________________________________________________

iii) ______________________________________________________________ 

iv) ______________________________________________________________ 

v) ______________________________________________________________ 

8. How do you rate the NZAID learning materials?

Inadequate ☐ Adequate ☐ Satisfactory ☐

9. a) Do you think the condition of service for teachers has been improved under the

NZAID? Yes ☐ No ☐

b) State reasons:

i) ________________________________________________________________

ii) _______________________________________________________________

iii) ______________________________________________________________ 

113
10. a) Do you think student level of motivation in schools has improved due to the NZAID?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) State reasons for this?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

11. Suggest ways in which NZAID program can be improved?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

12. What are the programs for staff development under the NZAID program?

i) __________________________________________________________

ii) __________________________________________________________

iii) __________________________________________________________

iv) __________________________________________________________

13. a) How do you see the community participation involvement under the NZAID?

Poor [ ] Satisfactory [ ] Unsatisfactory [ ]
b) Identify areas for effective community participation:
_________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________

14.a) How do you see the community participation/ involvement in the NZAid program for primary education?

Low ☐ Medium ☐ High ☐

b) Identify the areas for effective community participation?
_________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________

Thank you for your time
APPENDIX 3

Household Questionnaire

This questionnaire is design for study purposes only. The interviewer is postgraduate student working on his Master’s thesis. Your response will be highly valued and would be treated as confidential. Your time and understanding is highly appreciated.

Name: ______________  Village: _____________  Date: ________

________________________________________________________________________

1. Background of household head

   a) Age: ____  b) Gender: male  female  religion

   b) Education Level:

      lower primary  upper primary  lower secondary

      upper secondary  Tertiary  No education

   c) Family Type:  Nuclear  Extended  Composite

   d) Number of family members: ________  Male  Female

   e) Children less than 15 Years: ________

2. Household head’s employment

   a) Government  private  self - employment  unemployed
e) Mention the job / occupation: _________________

3. Household Income (SBD) from all sources (monthly)

a) Less than $ 50  

b) $ 50 - 100  

c) $150 - 200  

d) More than 200  

4. Education Questionnaire

a) Female education:-

i) Number of female educated up to primary level: ______

ii) Number of female educated up to secondary level: ______

iii) Number of children educated to tertiary level: _____

b) Male education

i) Number of Male educated up to primary level: _____

ii) Number of male educated up to secondary level: _____

iii) Number of children educated up to tertiary level: ____

5. a) Annual school fees paid per child:

Child 1: _______  Child 2: _______  Child 3: _______  Child 4: _______

b) Number children not paying fees: _________

c) Are you paying less for children’s education after the introduction f the NZAID program?

   Yes  

   No  

d) State why?

______________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________
6. What is the distance traveled by children to school? _______ Km

7. How do you rate the road conditions?   Good [ ]  Bad [ ]

8. a) Identify problems you faced in your children’s education?

Financial problem [ ]  Distance [ ]  Education materials [ ]

b) Others specify:

______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________

9. How do you value education?   Important [ ]  Very important [ ]  Not important [ ]

State why?

______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________

10. Perception of household towards NZ educational aid program

a) Are you aware of the NZAID for primary education?   Yes [ ]  No [ ]

b) State how?

______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________

11. How do you see the education facilities under the NZAID?
a) Infrastructure (classroom): Improved  □ Not improved □
b) Sports facilities: Improved  □ Not improved □
c) Water and sanitation: Improved  □ Not improved □
d) Student learning materials: Improved  □ Not improved □

12. Do you see any improvement in your children’s learning under the NZAID?

   Yes □ No □

13. What do you think are the contributing factors to this?

   New infrastructure □ New learning materials □ Teacher’s attitude □

Thank you for your time and support
APPENDIX 4

Interview Guide for the Guadalcanal Education Office

1. How many schools are under the GP Education Authority?

2. Are all the schools receiving the NZAID of primary education?

3. What is the process of getting NZ aid?

4. Do you think the process of distribution is fair?

5. What benefits do you think this kind of aid projects will bring to our communities?

6. Do you think people are happy with the aid program?

7. How do the people participate in the NZ aid Project?

8. How do you access the of community participation?
Interview Guide for the NZIAD Official

1. Recently the New Zealand Government has given more emphasis aid to primary education in Solomon Islands. Why is this so?

2. What are the areas in the primary education sector the aid program is trying to address?

3. How much is the New Zealand Government willing to give as a package to the Solomon Islands Government on primary education?

4. How is the NZAID administered?

5. How long will the New Government support the primary education in the Solomon Islands?

6. Does the donor put in place measures to sustain the primary schools after the duration of the NZAID by the donor and the Solomon lands Government?

7. What are the long-term benefits of the program?

8. Do you think Solomon Islands is more aid dependent to provide the basic education services to it’s citizens?
APPENDIX 6

A list of selected people interviewed.

1. Affleck, J. First Secretary to the New Zealand High Commission Honiara, Solomon Islands.

2. Wale, R. Education Officer, Guadalcanal Province.

3. Wale, B. NZAID Accounts Officer, MEHRD, Honiara.