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Policy, Rationale and Implications

by

Emasi V. Qovu

This thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of the Doctor of Philosophy in Education

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School of Education
Faculty of Arts, Law and Education
The University of the South Pacific

January, 2013
DECLARATION

Statement by Author

I, Emasi V. Qovu, declare that this thesis is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published, or substantially overlapping with material submitted for the award of any other degree at any institution, except where due acknowledge is made in the text.

Signature:  
Date: 9 January 2013

Name: Emasi V. Qovu

Student ID No: S76054630

Statement by Supervisor

The research in this thesis was performed under my supervision and to my knowledge is the sole work of Emasi V. Qovu.

Signature  
Date: 9 January 2013

Name: Dr. Akhila Nand Sharma

Designation: Associate Professor in Education
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the following loving individuals for their unreserved love, encouragement, wisdom and prayers since 7 December 1943 when I was born on a small beautiful island village of Galoa, Tavuki in the province of Kadavu. I am grateful to:

- the late Mose Sakuka and Ivamere Leiyawa Sakuka, my unforgettable maternal grandfather and grandmother;
- the late Rusiate Vukula and Mereia Leiyawa Vukula, my blessed and loving parents;
- the late Meredani Sakuka Bogitini, my treasured aunt, a retired school teacher; and
- by no means the least to my late unforgettable dear wife, Mrs. Lusiana Mailakeba Golea Qovu.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to acknowledge my Heavenly Father through His Son, Jesus Christ, for his continuing guidance and blessings that provided me faith, strength and patience to successfully complete this research study.

The following people are also gratefully acknowledged:

- My Supervisor, Associate Professor Akhila Nand Sharma whose enduring commitment, experience, guidance and patience led me through to the completion of this dissertation. His guidance brought focus to the study and his support enabled the traversing of sometimes difficult times.
- The Dean of Faculty of Arts, Law and Education, Dr. Akanisi Kedrayate, for granting me the opportunity to be sponsored under the Graduate Assistant Scholarship.
- The Fiji’s Ministry of Education for allowing me to freely conduct my research study at its head office and through-out the identified schools in all the four Education Divisions.
- My elder daughter, Mrs. Makereta Qovu Tokailagi for tirelessly typing all the drafts of the thesis and the final manuscript. My younger daughter, Ms. Mereia Leiyawa Qovu for providing thoughtful and provoking discussions during the course of my study. My two sons, Eremasi V. Qovu and Dr. Josaia D. Qovu for providing the needed financial resources and encouragement to carry me through to the final completion of my research study.
- Mrs. Ana Fine Kalouniviti for transcribing the voluminous recorded interview, talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa sessions during the research study.
- All the 110 selected research respondents and informants that freely provided their thoughts and ideas that enhanced the much sought after information towards my research study.
- The former Public Service Commission’s Permanent Secretary, Mrs. Taina Tagicakibau for arranging with relevant Government Ministries and Departments to assist in my research study.
- All village elders, rural dwellers, urban communities, church leaders and those whose views I sought to enable completion of this dissertation.
- The Ministry of Finance Budget Division, Ministry of Fijian Affairs Scholarship Unit, PSC Scholarships Unit and Ministry of Multi-Ethnic Affairs for providing easy access into their records and with personnel during the course of my research study.

Without these people, my study would have been more difficult, if not impossible.

Vinaka Vakalevu!
ABSTRACT


Policy, Rationale and Implications

by

Emasi V. Qovu

This study sets out to examine the management and implementation processes of the Affirmative Action Policy (AAP) of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans between 1987 and 2006. In particular, the study examined the implementation of the Blueprint in Education that was introduced in 2001.

It attempts to understand the management and implementation processes from the perspectives of those involved. Therefore, the methodological orientation is drawn from the phenomenological and qualitative research literature. The data gathering methods include participant observation, in-depth interviews and documentary analysis. These strategies are complemented by the indigenous Fijian approaches of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa.

The theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of the study are drawn from systems theory, change management and instructional leadership literature. The conceptual framework is anchored on the systems theory. The phases of the change processes – initiation, implementation and outcomes are retained and utilised instead of input (initiation), throughput (implementation) and output (outcomes).

The conceptual framework retains the environment, feedback and sub-system components of the systems theory. In the application of this framework, this investigation involves the study of change agents, change users, the nature of the policy, as well as the sub-systems such as the Great Council of Chiefs, Fijian Teachers’ Association, provincial councils, Fijian Affairs Board, tikina councils, local governments and relevant ministries of National Government. It also obtains information from the relevant external sources such as aid donors.
The study is based on the three key questions:

- What is the nature of Fiji’s AAP in education?
- How does it relate to similar initiatives in other developing countries?
- How is it initiated, implemented, institutionalised and managed?

Based on the fieldwork findings, the following conclusions are drawn:

- The AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education was implemented as a temporary measure for the advancement of indigenous Fijians and Rotumans under the 2001 Social Justice Act. But it has been unable to address certain Fijian education problems locally and internationally recognized since 1908.
- The policy has been favourably assumed by all Policy Initiators (PINs), Policy Implementers (PIMs) and Policy Users (PUs) as one of the best solutions to solving indigenous education problems in Fiji. But the study shows that for an increased success in outcomes, there needs to be a strong community and teachers’ support, time and positive political direction.
- The basis for such assistance is primarily to address the very weak, fragile and unstable economic base of the rural, remote, very remote and outer island subsistence based population where formal schooling is expensive to manage.
- To complement international change literature, the implementers of AAP in Fiji ought to have recognized that critical to the success of an innovation is the instructional leadership role of the Permanent Secretary of Education and the Deputy Secretary of Education (Primary and Secondary) in the Ministry of Education. Successful execution of such roles stands to trickle down to change agents. Its absence reveals that policy implementers were not adequately trained to successfully facilitate such a policy initiative.
- The newly-introduced Education ‘For All’ (EFA) initiative by the Military Government to replace the AAP has continued to increase annual financial allocations toward development of education for rural, remote and outer island schools. They also include urban and peri-urban schools. This is consistent with AAP goals.
- Therefore, the AAP is a half-hearted or temporary measure in response to a long-existing inequality to be permanently relied upon to solve deeply-entrenched problems facing the socially and educationally marginalised in Fiji. A more permanent solution would be the answer.
• The international literature confirms the permanent presence of such socio-economic inequality as universal. That no permanent or successful solution has been designed in any national setting is testament to consistent lack of creativity and innovation in successive generations. To expect temporary programmes such as AAP or EFA to adequately address such a deeply-entrenched and ‘ancient’ issue does not show adherence to reason.

The success of this initiative rests largely on the calibre and commitment of its leaders, for example the national leaders and also the people of Fiji. The study concludes with important implications for policy makers, practitioners, further research, relevant literature and research methodology.
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<td>AAP</td>
<td>Affirmative Action Policy</td>
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<td>ACS</td>
<td>Adi Cakobau School</td>
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<td>AMU</td>
<td>Assert Management Unit</td>
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<td>AP</td>
<td>Assistant Principal</td>
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<td>COES</td>
<td>Centres of Excellence Schools</td>
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<td>DEO</td>
<td>Divisional Education Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>DP7</td>
<td>Development Plan Number 7</td>
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<td>DP8</td>
<td>Development Plan Number 8</td>
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<td>DPSE</td>
<td>Deputy Permanent Secretary for Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education For All</td>
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<td>EO</td>
<td>Education Officer</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>FAB</td>
<td>Fijian Affairs Board</td>
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<td>FASS</td>
<td>Fijian Affairs Scholarship Scheme</td>
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<td>FASU</td>
<td>Fijian Affairs Scholarship Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>FCAE</td>
<td>Fiji College of Advance Education</td>
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<td>FHL</td>
<td>Fijian Holdings Limited</td>
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<td>FIEF</td>
<td>Fiji Intermediate Entrance Examination</td>
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<td>FIT</td>
<td>Fiji Institute of Technology</td>
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<td>FJCE</td>
<td>Fiji Junior Certificate Examination</td>
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<td>FPP</td>
<td>Fiji Parliamentary Paper</td>
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<td>FSFE</td>
<td>Fiji Seventh Form Examination</td>
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<td>FSLC</td>
<td>Fiji School Leaving Certificate</td>
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<td>FSM</td>
<td>Fiji School of Medicine</td>
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<td>FSSEE</td>
<td>Fiji Secondary Schools Entrance Examination</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
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<td>FTA</td>
<td>Fijian Teachers Association</td>
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<td>Fiji Teachers Union</td>
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<td>GAS</td>
<td>Graduated Assessment Scale</td>
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<td>GCC</td>
<td>Great Council of Chiefs</td>
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<td>HIES</td>
<td>Household Income Expenditure Survey</td>
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<td>HOD</td>
<td>Head of Department</td>
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<td>HQ</td>
<td>Head Quarter</td>
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<td>HT</td>
<td>Head Teacher</td>
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<td>ICESCR</td>
<td>International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights</td>
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<td>JICA</td>
<td>Japan International Co-operation Agency</td>
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<td>LTC</td>
<td>Lautoka Teachers College</td>
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<td>MFA</td>
<td>Ministry of Fijian Affairs</td>
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<td>MFAES</td>
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<td>MFAS</td>
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<td>MMEA</td>
<td>Ministry of Multi-Ethnic Affairs</td>
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<td>MOE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<td>MOF</td>
<td>Ministry of Finance</td>
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<tr>
<td>MP</td>
<td>Member of Parliament</td>
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<td>N/NPHS</td>
<td>Nadroga/Navosa Provincial High School</td>
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<td>NCBBF</td>
<td>National Council for Building a Better Fiji</td>
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<td>NFU</td>
<td>National University of Fiji</td>
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<td>NPHS</td>
<td>Naitasiri Provincial High School</td>
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<td>NQF</td>
<td>National Qualification Framework</td>
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<td>NSS</td>
<td>Nabua Secondary School</td>
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<td>P</td>
<td>Principal</td>
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<td>PAC</td>
<td>Public Accounts Committee</td>
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<td>PCCPPP</td>
<td>People’s Charter for Change, Peace and Progress</td>
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PEO  Principal Education Officer
PIM  Policy Implementers
PIN  Policy Initiators
PM   Prime Minister
PS   Permanent Secretary
PSC  Public Service Commission
PSE  Permanent Secretary for Education
PU   Policy Users
QVS  Queen Victoria School
RSMS Ratu Sukuna Memorial School
SAS  Summative Assessment Scale
SEO  Senior Education Officer
SLS  Student Loan Scheme
SPU  Special Project Unit
SPU/AMU Special Project Unit or Assert Management Unit
T/P  Teacher, Primary
T/S  Teacher, Secondary
TAS  Tabulation Assessment Sheet
TPAF Training Productivity Authority of Fiji
TVET Technical Vocational Education and Training
UNESCO United Nations Educational Scientific & Cultural Organization
USP  University of the South Pacific
VP   Vice Principal
WPSU Workforce Planning and Scholarships Unit
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CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the study. The first part discusses the background. It outlines the need for continuous improvement of the standard of academic performance of indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students in the formal school system. The second part details the rationale of the study. It stresses the importance for a fair assessment in the implementation of the Affirmative Action Policy (AAP\textsuperscript{1}) by Government and the need to assess the effectiveness of the 2000 Blueprint\textsuperscript{2} for Indigenous Fijian and Rotuman Education. The aim of the study comprises the third part. This is followed by the fourth section which outlines the research questions. The context of the study follows next. The theoretical and conceptual orientations of the study are presented in the sixth section whilst the methodological issues come in the seventh part. The first chapter concludes with the format of the thesis.

At the outset, it is appropriate to note that previous studies on affirmative action in Fiji (Whitehead, 1986; Ratuva, 1999; Puamau, 2001; and White, 2001)\textsuperscript{3} have largely taken the desk approach and are more prescriptive rather than descriptive.

The literature available thus far indicates that AAP initiatives have not been as successful as anticipated. The gap in educational attainment between the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans, and the Indo-Fijians in Fiji has continued. The main concern, therefore, is: “Why, after so much investment in the AAPs does the situation remain the same?” This constitutes the major problem upon which this study is based.

The researcher is, therefore, focused on examining the actual implementation process of the policy from the perspectives of stakeholders who include policy makers, policy implementers

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\textsuperscript{1} A ten year Government plan which constitutes the Blueprint for Fijian and Rotuman education from 2001 to 2010.

\textsuperscript{2} The 2000 Blueprint for the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman education consists of the affirmative action programmes that had been initiated and co-ordinated by the Minister of Education in the 2000 Interim Government. Its core objective was to narrow the gap that exist between the academic performance of the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students with that of other non-indigenous students, particularly the Indo-Fijian students.

\textsuperscript{3} Academics who have made desk study approach on the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.
and policy users. Indeed, it is important to see what is actually happening at the implementation phase of the policy. This enables the researcher to document the findings, draw conclusions and provide useful implications of the study to policy makers, practitioners and other members of the stakeholder community.

**BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

The study seeks to examine the AAP of the Fiji Government from 2001 to 2006 and offers recommendations for continued improvement. The focus is specifically on the standard of academic performance of Indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students in the formal school system in comparison with students of other ethnic groups. This is the basic Fijian education problem and it had been the concern of the State as early as 1910 (Legislative Council Paper, No. 30/1910)

In April 1968, about 58 years later, the same concern was raised by the Fijian Affairs Board (FAB) that used to advise the Great Council of Chiefs (GCC) on policy matters concerning Indigenous Fijians. This concern was documented in the 1969 Education Commission Report (1969: VI):

> The board views with deep concern the poor examination results achieved by the Fijian students at all levels in relation to other races and strongly recommends that Government appoints a Committee of Inquiry to look into this matter, attempts to discover the reasons therefore and to suggests remedies. It was the Boards view that the social background of the Fijian people was one of the main contributing factors…

In highlighting its views on the same concern, the 1969 Fiji Education Commission Report points out that there was a very deep concern and needed special mention. The report pointed out that there was disparity in educational performance between children of the two major racial groups in Fiji: the Indigenous Fijians and the Indo-Fijians. It added that the disparity ought to be the concern of the State, the Education Department and, in particular, the leaders of the indigenous Fijian people.

---

4 The first concern raised by Fiji’s Legislative Council (Fiji’s Parliament) in 1910 on the disparity of the academic performance between the indigenous Fijians and those of the Indo-Fijian students.

5 FAB consists of 10 nominated representatives by the GCC to provide the Council with crucially important advice on all policy matters concerning the affairs of the indigenous Fijians and its legally established institutions such as the NLTB and the Native Lands Commission.
Rodger (1966)⁶ (cited in Whitehead 1986: 22) had earlier given the first catchphrase to clearly highlight the disparity in the academic performance of the indigenous Fijians in comparison with students of other ethnic groups as the failure to get enough Fijians through to the top. Moreover, 20 years later, Whitehead (1986) gave the second catchphrase for the same concern as “the Fijian education problem”. In fact, their intention was the same. It was to instantly draw the attention of those who were concerned with the generally lower education attainment of Fijian students at secondary and tertiary levels.

However, White (2001) and Puamau (2001) have both emphasized there was very minimal effort to address Fijian education problem until mid-1970s. Successive Governments, since then had only been able to address this national concern on a piecemeal basis. This was deemed unfortunate as these Governments had all been familiar that Fijian education problem had remained a major contributing factor to the poor and unacceptable level of representation of the indigenous Fijians in the high echelons of the private and public sectors. To date, the disparity continues to be a major concern.

Qarase (2002)⁷ said that the equality of access to opportunities was also a vital safeguard to protecting the rights to self-determination of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans. Additionally, it should also serve as the rightful obligation of the State to continue protecting and safeguarding their rights, interests and aspirations. This view on Fijian aspirations had earlier been championed by the then Prime Minister, Mr. Sitiveni Rabuka⁸, after he had staged the first ever Military Coup in Fiji in 1987.

As quoted below, the rights of indigenous Fijians and Rotumans is clearly stipulated in the Compact of Chapter 2 of the 1997 Constitution (1997: 11)

> The rights of the Fijian and Rotuman people include their right to governance through their separate administrative systems.

This constitutional provision is seen by many, particularly the indigenous Fijians, as the deep and reciprocal understanding in the ‘Deed of Cession of 10 October 1874⁹, between the British Crown and the ceding chiefs and their people. In the same provision of the 1997

---

⁶ A long standing Director of Fiji’s Department of Education prior to Independence in 1970.
⁷ Mr. Laisenia Qarase was the last democratically elected Prime Minister from the “Soqosoqo Duavata Ni Lewenivanua” (SDL Party) that was overthrown in a Military Coup by the present Military Government on 6 December 2006.
⁸ Mr. Sitiveni Rabuka was a Lt. Colonel in the Fiji Military Forces when he staged the first ever Military Coup in 1987. He then became Fiji’s democratically elected Prime Minister from 1992 to 1997.
⁹ Fiji was unreservedly ceded to Queen Victoria, who was then the reigning monarch of Great Britain and Ireland on 10th October 1874 in a historical occasion in Levuka, Ovalau then the capital of the Fiji Islands.
Constitution, there is also an expressed recognition of the paramountcy of Fijian interests. Qarase (2002) pointed that these interests of the Fijian community were not to be subordinate to the interests of the other communities 10 residing in Fiji.

When the 2001 Interim Minister for Education, Mr. Naelesoni Delailomaloma11 presented his Cabinet paper on the Blueprint for the Affirmative Action policies on Fijian education for the following ten year period, he specifically focused on the following pertinent issue.

First, the document had been developed to dovetail into the Government’s master plan of the blueprint for the overall development of Fijians and Rotumans. It also details the strategies to be used in the master plan that deals with education.

Second, the blueprint for Fijian Education was designed to reduce the dropout rate of Fijian and Rotuman children at primary and secondary school levels, whilst its main aim is to improve the academic performance of Fijian and Rotuman students at tertiary studies (Delailomaloma, 2000: 2). To illustrate the high dropout rate12 of Fijian students, Mr. Delailomaloma’s paper had presented the following information as reported in the 1988 Annual Report of the Fiji’s Ministry of Education.

Table 1.1 shows of the 11,117 Fijian students that entered Class 1, only 11.2 percent had reached Form 7. For the Indian students, a better percentage of 26.7 percent had reached Form 7, from the 9,738 students that entered Class 1. The percentage difference was 15.5 percent.

| Table 1.1 Dropout Rate: 1988 – 2000 |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 11,117 | 9,084 | 6,906 | 5,733 | 1,294 |
| 100 percent | | | | 11.64 percent |
| **Indian Students** | | | | | |
| 9,738 | | | | 2,634 |
| 100 percent | | | | 27.05 percent |


10 Other communities residing in Fiji including other non-indigenous communities such as Indo-Fijians, Europeans, Part-Europeans, Chinese and other Pacific Island people including Tongans, Samoans, Solomons, Ni Vanuatu, Kiribatis, and Kioans.
11 An eminent advocate of the fairer recognition of the Fijian education problem by all relevant stakeholders.
12 The high dropout rate between the indigenous Fijian and the Indo-Fijian students had increased from 15.5 percent in 1988 to 36.1 percent in 2009.
This research study has also been able to establish similar results which had been reported in the 1997 to the 2009 Annual Report of the Fiji’s Ministry of Education, as follows:

**Table 1.2 Dropout Rate: 1997 – 2009**

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<th>Fijian Students</th>
<th>Indian Students</th>
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<td></td>
<td>12,364</td>
<td>9,487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 percent</td>
<td>100 percent</td>
<td>20.44 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7,685</td>
<td>5,862</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


The above table also shows that while 20.44 percent of Fijian students whose total was 12,364 in 1997 had reached Form 7, Indian students had continued to secure a much better percentage result of 27.47 percent of those 7,685 that were enrolled in Class 1. The percentage difference still indicated a gap of 7.03 percent.

Therefore, the overall outcome of performance by the Ministry of Education between 1988 and 2009, which was a 22 year period in terms of improving the academic performance of Fijian and Rotuman students had indeed left a lot of room for improvement. This will be further discussed in Chapter 6. It suffices to mention here, however, that there is still a greater need for such preferential treatment programmes. This was reflected in the Blueprint mentioned above.

**RATIONALE OF THE STUDY**

The major focus of this study is on the implementation of Fiji’s Affirmative Action Policy. As it is an important Government policy initiative, it is therefore necessary for change agents, policy users and other members of the stakeholder community to have sufficient information on the policy. It is also important to find out how Government is sourcing its resources in this regard. The funding process needs to be continually assessed and documented so that the policy remains transparent to all concerned including tax payers. Such a process would minimize mismanagement of the policy and inappropriate use of limited funding. This study

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13 This is a crucially important segment for any policy to be successfully implemented. People and funding sources need to be appropriately informed accordingly on the expenses incurred.
sets out to provide valuable information to respective stakeholders, international donor agencies and corporate organizations whose funds have made it possible for the initiation and implementation of AAP.

Secondly, many commentators of the policy have displayed their ignorance of the benefit that the policy can yield in upgrading the social, economic and political frontiers of the Indigenous Fijian and Rotuman people. This issue will be dealt with in some depth later in this dissertation. However, it suffices to mention at this juncture that the underachievement of Indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students in external examinations restricts their opportunities to higher education and well-paid employment. As mentioned elsewhere, this has led to political disturbance in 1987 as articulated in the then coup leader’s document titled ‘Fijian Aspirations’.

Therefore, such negative comments not only hinder the progress of the policy but also misinform the general public about its negative elements. One such commentary is provided below:

Affirmative Action is unfair and would bring ethnic division in the country for the future generation. That priority for education for Fijian students by the Government should not be selected according to race. As education is the foundation and a necessity for the building of a nation, the role of Government is to give every citizen equal right to education. It is very unfair that we live in a multinational country and priority is only given to Fijian students. This will bring divisions within and amongst racial groups and the role of Government is not to divide but to unite.

(Fiji Sun, 2 September, 2006: 12).

As such comments, views and attitudes further hinder the successful implementation and institutionalization of the policy, there is a need to provide research-based information to Fiji citizens and policy stakeholders. This study expects to fulfill this need.

Thirdly, when Fiji gained its independence in 1970, its first Prime Minister, the late Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara14, had introduced special measures15 to address the lack of Indigenous Fijian

14 Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara was Fiji’s first and longest serving Prime Minister since it gained independence in 1970. Being of chiefly status, he was the paramount chief of the Lau group of islands holding the titles of Tui Nayau and Tui Lau respectively until his passing away in 2003. He was an Oxford University graduate with MA in Political Science.
15 Special measures, according to international law are also referred to the concept of affirmative action specifically introduced for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward sections of society.
and Rotuman participation in the economy and underachievement in academic education. He had specifically indentified those issues as crucial for the stable development of Fiji. In 1999, 29 years later, while again addressing the essential government policy initiatives, the late President, in his presidential address to the opening of Parliament in June 1999 said, “Fijian under-performance in education had to be addressed with some urgency.” Therefore, there is an urgent need to systematically examine why successive governments, policy advocates, change agents and policy users did not make much significant progress in improving the quality of Indigenous Fijian and Rotuman education. This research study attempts to fulfill this need as well.

Fourthly, the study stems from my own personal interest in this policy and the underachievement of Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans students. For 45 years I have served the Government of Fiji in various capacities. These include as a school teacher, principal, principal education officer, secretary to the Fiji School of Medicine (FSM), the Director of the Public Service Commission’s (PSC) training division, deputy Permanent Secretary for Fijian Affairs and as a Member of Parliament. Throughout my teaching career and in the related professional and senior management government positions, the following two questions regarding this policy were not adequately addressed.

• Why is AAP for the Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans not making any significant progress?
• What can be done to improve it?

It is anticipated that this research study will provide answers to these as well as many more questions that have made the policy rather unpopular to certain sections of the Fiji population.

Fifthly, all relevant stakeholders need to be clearly informed and assured that all legitimate authority had been fully secured towards the blueprint for the AAP in education for Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans. This had been achieved through the enactment in Parliament of the Social Justice Act\textsuperscript{16} on 21 December 2001. This law has since then amicably catered for the legal framework within which all affirmative action programmes are

\textsuperscript{16} The Act was passed in Parliament to legally safeguard the management and implementation of the AAP for the social, political, economic and education development of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 108, 2005: 97).
being operated. More information concerning the Social Justice Act 2001 with its 29 programmes is shown in Appendix 1.1.

Sixthly, the true intention of this special assistance towards Fijian and Rotuman education is to improve the academic performance of Fijians and Rotumans. This is to bridge the education gap between them and other non-Fijian communities. However, it has been established through successive MOE’s reports since 2001 that this uplifting programme is just 0.9 percent of the total annual education budget (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 66, 2004:15). Whereas for the non-Fijian schools, which are mainly Indo-Fijians, have still received, by far, the largest portions of this total annual education budgetary allocation (2009, MOE Annual Report). These needs to be clearly ascertained as such overt action could negatively undermine the whole intention of a Government initiative specifically intended for the socially and educationally marginalized in our community.

However, whilst the AAP is the name tag for Fijian and Rotuman education has been changed to Education for all (EFA) since 2010, it has also been given a lot of prominence by Government through increased annual financial allocations for 2010 and 2011 respectively. Therefore, providing more and better educational services for the underprivileged in our community would be a continuing process.

AIM OF THE STUDY

Consistent with the above mentioned rationale, the aim of the study is to examine and document the actual implementation process of Fiji’s AAP in education since 1984 (FPP, No. 73, 2002: 81). But its conception had been initiated in 1910 (Legislative Council paper, No. 30/1910). However, the focus here is on the period since 2001 when the official policy blueprint was released. In doing so, the study examines the initiation, implementation and institutionalization phases of the policy as well as its sub-systems and the environment that facilitate and/or impede its successful management and implementation. Based on research findings, the study aims to make suitable recommendations for relevant policy and practice. It also focuses on further research and analysis concerning relevant international theoretical and methodological literature. In particular, the study expects to:

- document the specific characteristics of Fiji’s AAP;
- examine the initiation and implementation processes of the policy, identifying their
strengths and limitations in light of theoretical literature on change process;
- provide policy makers, Government administrators, school-based educators and leaders and other members of the stakeholder community with relevant information and insights that may assist them to manage the policy under discussion more effectively;
- empower Fiji citizens to understand and appreciate the essence of ethnic equity ensuring that it can be meaningfully maintained in the socio-economic development through the proper redistribution of resources;
- assist policy makers in the education sector to formulate a better policy prescription to effectively resolve the continuing trend of under-achievement of the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students in the external examinations;
- establish with policy makers, senior government bureaucrats and policy implementers the need to permanently establish a proper evaluation and monitoring process for affirmative action programmes in education;
- contribute to international and regional discourse of the AA policy from the perspective of a Pacific island country; and
- complement the relevant research methodology literature with Pacific and indigenous investigation approaches.

Guided by these objectives, the study takes a more descriptive approach implying it will focus on ‘what really happens on the ground’ or at the implementation phase of the policy.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

In harmony with the discussion thus far, the study hopes to understand the nature of the AAP policy and its implementation process from the perspective of research respondents and the data gathered from various phases of the fieldwork. It was perceived, therefore, that the qualitative research approach would be the most suitable strategy to answer the research questions and achieve the aims of the study.

Aligning with this approach as discussed in Chapter 4, the study is progressively focused in the field using qualitative approach (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; 2007; Sharma, 2001; Aveau, 2003; Wright, 2006; Junior, 2010). It was initially guided by a set of tentative research questions which were improved as the study unfolded. In qualitative research, as Bogdan and Biklen (2007: 6) emphasize, “You are constructing a picture that takes shape as you collect
and examine parts”. Accordingly, the following specific research questions finally emerged.

- How did the AAP in education for the Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans actually begin?
- What are the characteristics of this policy?
- To what extent have the aims and objectives of the 2001 AAP Blueprint been achieved?
- What are the major challenges of the policy and how are they addressed?
- What perceptions do the implementers and policy users have of the policy and the manner in which it is managed?
- How is the 2001 AAP Blueprint being implemented?
- What are the key factors that facilitate and/or constrain its successful implementation?
- How can the management of the policy be improved?
- In what form does the policy exist now?
- What implications does the study have for the AAP policy-makers and practitioners, the relevant theoretical literature, further research and research methodology?

It is hoped these questions will be addressed throughout the course of the study.

**THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL ORIENTATIONS**

Theoretically, the study is informed by literature on the management of planned educational change and the systems theory. The change literature, in particular, stresses that a planned educational change is a process rather than an event (Huberman and Miles 1984; Louis and Miles 1990; Fullan 1991; Wallace and McMahon 1994; Sharma 2001; Velayutham 2006). This view clearly indicates that a policy or a planned educational change ought to develop its human capacities and management practices as its implementation processes progress. This study examines the extent to which this happened in the case of the Fiji’s AAP and the lessons that can be learnt.

Drawing from a vast body of educational change literature, one of the eminent scholars in this field, Fullan (2001) identifies three phases in the management of the change process: initiation, implementation and institutionalization. These three phases are increasingly being used to study planned educational changes or policies. This educational change process, however, was challenged by Sharma (2000). He found in his study that the
institutionalization phase of the change process does not necessarily exist. He pointed out that the institutionalization phase is one of the outcomes of the process. He further stresses that all innovations may or may not be institutionalized. Some innovations could be rejected, abandoned, adapted or shelved. According to him, ‘outcomes’ is the more appropriate title of this phase.

This study retains Fullan’s three phases of the change process to examine the policy under discussion but replaces the term ‘institutionalization’ with ‘outcomes’. It is reiterated that this study examines the effectiveness of Fiji’s AAP using change literature. This approach is further complimented by the literature on policy analysis, especially systems theory. In particular, the change process is anchored on the systems theory platform.

The conceptual construct of the study will therefore comprise the initiation phase including ‘input’, a component of the systems theory, the implementation phase, the ‘transformation process’ and outcomes. This framework will also facilitate the examination of the feedback mechanism, the sub-systems and the external and the internal environment of Fiji’s affirmative action policy.

The theoretical and conceptual constructs of the study will be developed further in Chapter 2. However, it suffices to mention here that the conceptual framework of the study will take shape as the study unfolds.

**METHODOLOGICAL ORIENTATION**

The importance of making the right choice for the most appropriate method or combination of relevant methods is held supreme in this study. It includes the selection of the appropriate methodology suited to circumstances in order to appropriately justify that choice in light of available options and the aim of the study (Cusick 1973; Yin 1984; Fullan 1991; 2001; Sharma 2000; Aveau 2003 and Wright 2007).

Aligning the aims, rationale and the theoretical construct of the study, it became necessary to understand its implementation process from the perspectives of those who are directly involved; especially the judgments they make, the perceptions they hold and the contextual circumstances that influence their value orientations. With this focus, it was important to collect descriptive data of the actual implementation process of AAP. Moreover, such a pathway made it possible to explore the interaction amongst the various players in this
process, focusing especially on the mode of communication and the readiness of the policy
users and the change agents. Such mode of investigation enabled the research to obtain a
variety of insights required to make the relevant implications of the study to policy makers
and practitioners. Its approach also facilitated the understanding of AAP from the ‘insider
point of view’ and thorough observation, conversation and documentary analysis. It also
enabled the researcher to discover and re-discover the social realities that the research
respondents held.

Understanding AAP in this way finds support in the phenomenological and qualitative
research literature. In light of the above concerns, a qualitative case-study approach was
adapted. It was felt that this research was best suited for in-depth study of AAP. The study
employed the conventional strategies for collecting qualitative data including observation,
documentary analysis and interviews. These are further strengthened with the inclusion of
indigenous Fijian research methods of talanoa\textsuperscript{17}, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa. These
indigenous Fijian approaches actually allowed the informants to freely use the Fijian
language, and freely converse in their own dialects, time and space.

Their responses are directly reported in the study and are closely followed with simple
translation in the English language. This research approach is quite exciting to all respondents
of the study and has assisted tremendously in the process of data collection, data analysis and
interpretation.

As regards to the research design, the structure proposed by Yin (1984: 28)\textsuperscript{18} was adapted
because it provides a “logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study’s initial
research questions and, ultimately, to its conclusion” (cited in Sharma 2000: 6).

The above mentioned research perspective, approach and data gathering methods will be
discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

\textbf{THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY}

The successful implementation of Fiji’s AAP or any educational policy for that matter,
depends considerably on the geographical, social, economic, political and educational

\textsuperscript{17} ‘Talanoa’, as an indigenous Fijian approach in qualitative study has been strengthened by the inclusion of the two newly
introduced approaches in this study, which are ‘Vitalanoa’ and ‘Vakamuritalanoa’.

\textsuperscript{18} An internationally recognized authority on Case Study Research Designs and Methods.
contexts in which it resides and operates. The population distribution of indigenous Fijians in rural areas and on small islands, the communal, social, economic and political settings and examination-driven western intellectual model of education have serious implications on the academic achievement and, consequently, to tertiary education and well-paid employment opportunities (Whitehead, 1981 and Velayathum, 2003)\(^\text{19}\). The following sections unpack these contextual variables in some depth.

**Geographical Features**

The Fiji Island Group comprises about 332 islands, scattered over thousands of square kilometres in the heart of the South Pacific Ocean. It is between 15° to 20° south of the Equator and straddles the 180° Meridian longitude or the International Date Line. These islands vary in sizes from 10,000 square kilometres to tiny islets with a few square meters in area, (Fiji Year Book, 2010). More information is provided in Appendices 1.2, 1.3 (a) and 1.3 (b), respectively.

About 57 percent of Fiji’s population of 827,960 people is indigenous while the rest is mixed racially with greater proportion of about 38 percent is Indo-Fijians (Fiji Population Census, 2007).

A substantial proportion of the indigenous population still lives in rural areas and on small islands. This pattern of residence has contributed considerably to discrepancies in their overall socio-economic development over the years. It also has serious implications on academic achievement of the indigenous Fijian students. Owing to poor infrastructure in rural areas and the continuing existence of small classes in the rural schools, teachers are not able to provide better learning opportunities that their counterparts enjoy in urban centres. Consequently, there is a considerable gap between the academic achievement of indigenous Fijian students and that of other ethnic groups who mostly reside in urban and semi-urban locations. Moreover, there is still continuing lack of opportunities for higher education in rural and smaller out-lying islands.

Whilst the idea of boarding school is an alternative to assist in the higher education in the remote locations, the additional cost of maintaining such educational institutions is beyond the financial capabilities of rural dwellers. Thus, it is necessary to maintain the AAP or

\(^{19}\) Writers and academics who have maintained that the real and tangible educational challenges confronting the relevant authorities in their attempts to improve the academic educational performances of the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students.
similar policies.

**Historical Background**

Fiji was ceded to Great Britain on 10 October 1874 and eventually became an independent state on 10 October 1970. This was exactly after 96 years of colonial rule. Viewed as the best form of government for the indigenous Fijians at the time, the colonial state established new socio-political structures, combining aspects of the British administrative system and traditional Fijian socio-political structures, under the native policy, in the context of ‘indirect rule’. Ali (2001)²⁰ said native policy had for many years been underpinned by a rigid codified communal system, which dictated the general direction of economic progress, in particular, that of indigenous Fijians. With the progression of time and the emergence of new ideas, there were various attempts to change the communal system in the hope that it could “suit the emerging circumstances” for indigenous Fijians (Parliamentary Paper No. 73: 2002). The inability of Indigenous Fijians to adapt to change to “suit the emerging circumstances” had also reflected in their inability to strive for better educational opportunities and achievements for their children.

Certain changes have occurred but on the wholesome, aspects still exist today. For instance, notable institutions that were created prior to Fiji’s independence, such as the Great Council of Chiefs, Native Land Trust Board and the Fijian Affairs Board, still play pivotal roles. However, their presence has been reduced significantly under the current Military Government. Moreover, after independence, the Great Council of Chiefs²¹ (GCC) had made profound contributions by providing socio-political coherence within the Indigenous Fijian community. It has, in fact, continued to provide a notable platform from which certain crucially important policy matters concerning the Indigenous Fijians are voiced. This is quite crucial as competition with other ethnic groups in the money economy and political arenas are seen as posing a potential threat to indigenous Fijian communal interests, together with their inadequacy in terms of numbers and ability to compete (Parliamentary Paper No. 73: 2002). However, the above concern has shown positive changes since 2009 in favour of the indigenous Fijians mainly through the overall outcome of the AAPs.

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²⁰ He was a local Indo-Fijian academics, a historian, an ex-Minister for Education in the 1980s and a strong advocate for the more socio-economic development of the indigenous Fijians.
²¹ GCC – Great Council of Chiefs.
Furthermore, Ratu Ovini\textsuperscript{22} (2006) noted this realisation of inadequacy by the native Fijians was real. It had been haunting Fijian chiefs and leaders for a very long time. However, Prasad (1975) said that it was the British, who at the time of the Deed of Cession in 1874, had pledged to preserve the Fijian interests and the Fijian way of life, by not allowing indigenous Fijians to be employed by Europeans as plantation workers. Such disruption could affect the Fijian social structure and disorganise the village economy. However, this lack of exposure into the new living environment of others had not assisted the indigenous Fijians to personally experience the educational benefits that their children could have gained.

The over-protection of the indigenous Fijians, as Ali (2001) maintained, was a direct result of paternalistic native policy at that time. However, as a consequence of this native policy, there was a negative effect on indigenous Fijian participation in commerce and other economic activities. Indigenous Fijians were through a protectionist policy ‘locked away’ for decades in village-based subsistence living under a well-planned and rigid communal scheme. In the long run, this marginalized them from the mainstream money economy whilst other ethnic groups were actively involved, thus the creation of the socio-economic disparity of the two major races in Fiji today (Prasad, 1975)\textsuperscript{23}. This socio-economic disparity would have been solved much earlier if the colonial administration had readily provided a better and more suitable academic education curriculum for the indigenous Fijian. Later in the 1990s, Government policy makers had further identified this continuing and unacceptable disparity. It prompted them to initiate the introduction of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.

As stated earlier in this chapter, the positive influence of urbanization and education has assisted in narrowing the advancement gap between the Indo-Fijians and the Indigenous Fijians. Such welcome change is expected to improve with the present Military Government owing to the continuing increase towards the EFA\textsuperscript{24} funding in place of the AAPs. These changes are itemized and discussed in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 of this thesis.

\textsuperscript{22} The late Ratu Ovini Bokini was the last Chairman of the GCC before it was suspended by the Military Government in 2007. He was also a member of Fiji’s Parliament and a Cabinet Minister under Mr. Sitiveni Rabuka’s leadership as the Prime Minister.

\textsuperscript{23} He was a local Indo-Fijian academic and a public commentator on the socio-economic and political advancements of the Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

\textsuperscript{24} EFA or Education For All initiative had been introduced by the Military Government in 2010 to replace the AAP for Fijian education. Its intention was also to include educational assistance to other ethnic groups which reflected in the increase of its financial allocations for 2010 and 2011 respectively.
Socio-Economic Background

Ali (2001) noted there were various attempts to improve the socio-economic position of Indigenous Fijians. This must have been viewed as a form of affirmative action policy because the 1946 Census showed indigenous Fijians had been outnumbered by the Indo-Fijians.

This favourable intention for the indigenous Fijians in the 1940s had resulted in a number of major institutional reforms. This was aimed at progressively incorporating them into mainstream institutions through gradual evolution within the Fijian administration machinery. In fact, this institutional reform gathered momentum after the Second World War. The Parliamentary Paper No. 75 of 2002 further confirmed restructuring of Fijian institutions emerged with the establishment of co-operative societies under the Cooperative Ordinance of 1947, the introduction of the Fijian Banana Venture in 1950, the establishment of the Fijian Development Fund by Ordinance of 1951, the creation of positions of Economic Development Officers in 1954 and the introduction of independent farming system in 1955. These institutions for indigenous Fijians may in retrospect be considered the pioneer affirmative action projects in Fiji.

To some extent, the above reforms had strengthened and further internalized the sense of communalism amongst indigenous Fijians, but it did very little to actually advance their individual economic situation. Therefore, by the 1940s and 1950s the national economy was dominated by expatriates and the local European traders whilst the retail businesses were in the hands of Cantonese Chinese and Indo-Fijians (Ali, 2001). Indigenous Fijians were still trying to sort things out between their strong urge to benefit from their restructured institutions and their more customary semi-subsistence existence in villages. On both sides, indigenous Fijians were clearly left far behind the track towards any hope of closing the socio-economic disparity between them and their Indo-Fijian counterparts.

Indigenous Fijian share in sugar production between 1953 and 1957 was also insufficient, as it never exceeded five percent of the total production (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 73, 2002: 26). This low production level of the indigenous Fijians after 78 years of the arrival of the Indian indentured sugar-cane planters left a lot to be desired. If sugar was such an immensely important national industry and the sugar-cane was farmed on indigenous Fijian farmland,
why were the authorities unable to encourage and entice indigenous landowners to progressively improve their production level to at least 10 percent or 15 percent? Would this humble view be too much to expect from responsible authorities for the more appropriate advancement of indigenous Fijians into the mainstream money economy? Affirmative action initiatives would have been the most adequate response to this missed opportunity.

Socially, the concept of communal ownership of assets was intended to safeguard indigenous Fijian ownerships. This was, however, unfavourable for them economically as it became a major barrier to their economic advancement.

On the other hand, indigenous Fijians have for the past 20 years started to acquire land ownership through leased land. They have actually witnessed for themselves the difficulty that their parents had encountered with non-collateral for bank loans. The issue of non-collateral for bank loans is no longer prevalent as they are presently following quite successfully behind their Indo-Fijian brothers. It has created promising commercial undertaking for some of them, while others have been accommodated through Government-funded institution as stated by the latest affirmative action report (Parliamentary Paper No. 83, 2006). The study also aims to ascertain the real implementation level of the affirmative action programmes as recorded in such Government documents.

Moreover, two eminent scholars, Spate and Burns undertook separate studies in Fiji in the late 1950s on the economic advancement of indigenous Fijians. They both concluded there were continuing disparities and lack of indigenous Fijian progress in their economic advancement. It was caused by the communal ownership of their land. However, they agreed that this system of land ownership by indigenous Fijians actually safeguard them in their social settings (Spate, 1958; Burns, 1959) supported by Ratuva, 1999, cited in Puamau, 2001).

The outcome of Spate and Burns studies were instrumental in the Government’s instant response in 1960, to design and implement a development plan emphasizing communications and agricultural development for the ensuing decade. Clearly, the underlying intention was to boost economic growth in the Fijian sector of the economy. In addition, it could positively reduce racial tensions which were perceived as a necessary condition for ultimate political

25 Two prominent scholars and consultants engaged by the Fiji Government to advise on the socio-economic and political advancement of the Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans during the 1950s and 1960s.
independence. By this time, it was also decided there was a need to ease rigid Fijian regulations under the native policy and the ‘galalala’\textsuperscript{26} plantation system was to be introduced. This spurred the establishment of ‘a new society’\textsuperscript{27} of indigenous Fijians’ who by then were noted to be more market-oriented and quietly preferred to be free from restrictive communal regulations (Nayacakalou, 1975)\textsuperscript{28}.

More positive development of Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans were established in late 1950s and 1960s. The 2002 Government report confirmed this and also witnessed the establishment of the forestry and tourism industries. A more positive outcome was initially envisaged for the two industries because they both involved the usage of native forests, labour for logging and land and labour in tourist development. However, the 2002 Government report confirmed that the central controlling authorities were investors who were foreign companies. Of major concern was the inability of resource owners to acquire shares in such multi-million dollar ventures, whilst some other locals and non resource owners were allowed this opportunity. Government further facilitated the development of the tourist industry by the passage of the Duty Free Trading in 1962 and the Hotels Aid Ordinance in 1964. These initiatives had substantially encouraged hotel investment for both the local and foreign investors (Parliamentary Paper No. 73 of 2002)

The financial benefits acquired from such socio-economic developments could have been meaningfully diverted to cater for the educational advancement of the Indigenous Fijians who were located in less developed rural areas. Had this been adopted, it would have been the pioneer attempt to develop Fijian education.

**Political Background**

The Parliamentary Paper (No. 73, 2002) also noted dramatic changes in 1960 in the political sphere as part of the transition process towards Fiji’s independence in 1970. For the first time, franchise was extended to the indigenous Fijians; although partially in 1961. Further constitutional changes took place in succession in 1964 and 1965 to allow for greater

\textsuperscript{26} ‘galala’ plantation system was the relaxing of the rigid Fijian regulations under the native policy in 1960. The policy was introduced by the Colonial Administrators in 1875 in order to hold the indigenous Fijian together in their villages in the hope of further internalizing the sense of communalism amongst them.

\textsuperscript{27} ‘a new society of the indigenous Fijians’ was the outcome of the relaxation of the rigid Fijian regulation under the native policy. The new society was recognized to be more market-oriented who had preferred for some time to be free from the more rigid communal regulation.

\textsuperscript{28} The first highly recognised indigenous Fijian academic, historian and NLTB manager in the 50s and 60s.
electoral representation. The first full parliamentary election was held in 1966 under the communal roll. Consequently, a 34 member Legislative Council was formed with the following: 12 Indigenous Fijians, 12 Indo-Fijians and 10 Europeans/Part-Europeans. At the same time, the population distribution, which favoured Europeans/Part-Europeans in Parliament, stood at 42 percent for indigenous Fijians, 51 percent for Indo-Fijians and four percent for Europeans/Part-Europeans respectively (Parliamentary Paper, No. 73, 2002: 29).

Leading up to the 1966 Parliamentary election, the first Fijian political party called the Fijian Association was established. This was later transformed into the Alliance Party as an umbrella organization which incorporated the Indian Alliance for the Indo-Fijians and the General Electors Association for the Europeans/Part-Europeans, Chinese and other Pacific Islanders (Fiji Parliamentary Paper, No. 73, 2002).

As stated earlier, the most significant changes in the 1960s were the gradual relaxing of the traditional Fijian socio-political structure, under the native policy, in the context of indirect rule. Perhaps, due to the influence of education and factors such as urbanisation, there was a general sentiment among the indigenous Fijians, of needing to be free from the control of native regulations. This new-found freedom was a part of the gradual opening-up process to introduce indigenous Fijians into democratic politics and individualism. With new-found freedom, the indigenous Fijians sought to demand for more academic education that promised better paid employment, opportunities for higher education and global mobility.

With the intention to gain independence in 1970, the inevitable negotiations between the three main racial groups through their respective political parties began in haste in 1969. The indigenous Fijians and other groups were represented by the Alliance Party and Indo-Fijians by the National Federation Party. The main agenda item in the entire negotiation was the protection of indigenous Fijian communal interest. This was viewed by the leaders at the time to be of crucial importance and therefore provided an essential component of a “system that would strike a balance between communal franchises on the one hand and a common franchise on the other” (Fiji Parliament Paper, No 73, 2002:30). For the latter, higher level academic education was necessary; hence the demand on Government for preferential treatment in education as well as in the socio-economic fabric of the nation.

When this objective was achieved, the result was a constitution at independence. Fiji Parliamentary Paper (No: 73, 2002) further noted that with the successful achievement of that
objective, it provided for a delicate ethnic balance by allocating 22 Parliamentary seats for indigenous Fijians, 22 for Indo-Fijians and 8 for the General voters. Out of these, 27 were classed as communal seats. These included: 12 Fijians, 12 Indians and 3 General Voters and 25 were common roll seats. It was also noted that at independence in 1970, Fiji’s population make-up was 51 percent Indo-Fijians, 43 percent Indigenous Fijians and 6 percent General voters. Crucially important was a Constitution that would ensure the continuing recognition of the Indigenous Fijians and the maintenance of lasting peace and harmonious co-existence of everyone in Fiji as a nation. According to Ratu Mara (1980), those could only be assured if Fijian interests were comfortably maintained.

Even at the time of independence in 1970, economic dominance was still in the hands of expatriates who were mainly Europeans and Part-Europeans, whilst local capital was in the firm grasp of the Cantonese Chinese and Indo-Fijians. This situation effectively relegated indigenous Fijians to generally live a subsistence or semi-subsistence existence. The most urgent and obvious needs of post-independence Fiji was therefore to immediately implement new development initiatives for indigenous Fijians. This study suggests these needs should have been met with special measures to advance the status or standards of living of the socially and educationally modest sections of Fiji’s society, the Indigenous Fijian population. This is what affirmative action is all about.

To further strengthen the above mentioned Government intentions, Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 73 (2002) also says the major emphasis of Development Plan 7 (1976–1980) and Development Plan 8 (1981–1985) were committed to achieving a more equitable distribution of the benefits of development, particularly for the rural population who were mainly indigenous Fijians. This period of economic development of the rural Fijian population by Government should have achieved a lot as the Fijian administration was closely assisted by the Central Government through the Ministry of Rural Development.

In the agricultural sector, policy implementers had encouraged indigenous Fijian participation in agricultural production in 1980 as a part of the initiative towards diversification. This emphasis was due to the general perception that indigenous Fijians were more comfortable with land. This had prompted Government to establish the following four prominent projects: The Seaqaqa Sugar Cane Farming Scheme, the Yalavou Beef Scheme, the Native

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Land Development Corporation and the Farm Management Co-operative Association. The then Alliance Government had hoped that the success of these projects would indeed boost people’s confidence in Government leadership. To manage these initiatives, there was demand for better academic qualification and the need for preferential education policy to get in par with the people of other ethnic groups in the country. (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 73: 2002)

However, the most successful commercial affirmative action scheme for indigenous Fijians is the Fijian Holdings Limited (FHL)\(^{30}\). It was established by the Great Council of Chiefs (GCC) in 1984 with the advice of the Fijian Initiative Group. As stated in the Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 73 (2002), Fijian Holding Limited has in fact grown into one of the largest companies in the country with multi-million dollar assets and remains as the flagship affirmative action project of Government and the Fijian Affairs Board. The company has, however, remained a Fijian communal enterprise since the shareholders were initially limited to the Fijian Administration institutions. These Fijian institutions include the 14 Provinces, Native Land Trust Board (NLTB) and the Fijian Affairs Board (FAB). They had collected their share capital through communal collections (soli vakavanua). To energize the implementation of these projects, the demand for affirmative action policy in favour of indigenous Fijian became necessary.

The formation of the Fijian Holdings Limited was in fact the pioneering attempt to organise the mobilisation of communal resources of the indigenous Fijians for capitalist investments on a large scale. This study hopes that the major emphasis that is now placed in the capitalistic outlook for the development of the Fijians is not pursued to unnecessarily exploit their basic social, cultural and human values. After all, any economic advancement should be for the people as human beings. While capitalist materialism is necessary, how far down the line it should be taken? This will still remain a significant issue in so far as the preservation of indigenous Fijian culture is concerned. Should Fijians surrender their humanity to suit their economic dreams and become a mere puppet in the hands of the capitalist economic system? Definitely, architects of affirmative action would reconsider their stand in such development emphasis of materialism over humanity. In this regard, the following words of a Kadavu high chief are particularly relevant:

Meda dau vakusakusa vakamalua. Ka daau vakaigaca sara

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\(^{30}\) The most successful and the largest commercial undertaking initiated in 1980 by the then Fiji’s first Prime Minister, Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara for the indigenous Fijians. It is now a multi-million dollar communal enterprise.
vakavinaka na vi salevu tale i so ni da se bera ni da toso ki mada. Na kena kauwaitaki na nodra bula na lewenivanua i je na i tavi bibi ni Matabose kiya.

Meaning:

Make haste slowly. Carefully consider all options before taking the next step forward. It is the people’s overall well-being that this Council is responsible for.

Ratu Matia Bainivalu\textsuperscript{31} (Kadavu Provincial Council, 1980)

The introduction of this new capitalist economic, social and political scenario had increased the demand for education of the indigenous Fijians further. Moreover, affirmative action policies became necessary so that this group of the population remain in contestation with other ethnic groups in the country.

Information in the latter chapters of this study reveals that the AAPs for the advancement of indigenous Fijians and Rotumans have had satisfying outcomes so far. For instance, the findings in the study in Chapter 5 have been able to establish that both the PSC and the MFA scholarships have provided tertiary study opportunities to the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students since their establishment in the early 1980s and 1990s respectively. Those that have benefited through in-service training awards have also advanced further in their careers through promotions and additional skills-training in recognized international institutions within their respective professions.

The research findings also established that the overall implementation of the other four AAP\textsuperscript{32} programmes specifically under the ambit of the MOE since 2001, need to be further improved in order to become more inclusive and more transparent. Additionally, further funding for the improvement of rural, remote, very remote, isolated island and interior schools has to be continually secured both by Government and from other international donor agencies. The successful outcomes of such funding initiatives should provide policy users the confidence that they need to be able to sustain the increasing cost of maintaining quality in the education of their children irrespective of their difficult and uneconomical locations.

\textsuperscript{31} A respected high chief and an influential member of the Great Council of Chiefs representing the province of Kadavu.

\textsuperscript{32} The 4 AAP programmes specifically under the MOE since 2001 were:

- Programme 1: Enhancement of Fijian and Rotuman education through the its four Sub-programmes.
- Programme 2: Improvement of rural education and disadvantaged schools.
- Programme 3: Vocational education and training.
- Programme 4: Special education.
Educational Context

When Fiji became a British Colony on 10 October 1874, there was already a fairly well-established network of small Fijian village schools under the control of the Methodist Church (Coxon, 2000). The Methodist missionaries who had established these schools, had arrived in 1835. These schools had offered a four-year programme in which locally identified Fijian village teachers taught only basic numeracy and literacy using materials printed in the local dominant Bauan dialect (Tavola, 1991). The programme titled, ‘Vuli Wilivola’ was aimed specifically at assisting Fijians in their in-depth understanding of the Fijian translated version of the Holy Bible (Dreu, 1959). At the same time, there were a few centrally located Roman Catholic schools which were managed by the Marist missionaries who had arrived six years earlier in 1829 (Coxon, 2000). The subjects offered were more academic in nature, taught by European teachers and “English” was the medium of instruction.

The approach by the Roman Catholic missionaries was also favoured by British administrators during the first decade of colonial rule. They had assisted in establishing and supporting similar schools for European children in Suva and Levuka. However, their approach to education for indigenous children was one of non-intervention. This did not deter the aspiration of the Fijian in their education (Tavola, 1991). Coxon (2000) also supported Tavola’s view further in saying that by 1900, there was a Methodist supervised school in almost every village and Fijian children’s full attendance was viewed as a norm of Fijian childhood.

The Colonial Government policy of ‘protectionism’ of the indigenous Fijian, say Nayacakalou (1975), Prasad (1975), Prakash (1986), Coxon (2000) and Ali (2001), between 1879 and 1916 had led to the importation of 62,837 Indian indentured laborers to work on sugar-cane plantations. This action by the colonial administrators was necessitated by the common understanding that the sugar industry had become the backbone of Fiji’s colonial economy. However, during the early years of their arrival, the Indian request for the provision of academic education for their children was not accommodated by the colonial administrators (Gounder, 1999). However, according to Tavola (1991), by 1890 the mission as well as some Indian religious organizations had established some schools for Indian laborers.

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33 The arrival of the first Methodist Missionaries, Rev. William Cross and Rev. David Cargill on the island of Lakeba in the province of Lau.
34 The arrival of the first Catholic Missionaries on Oneata island also in the Lau province.
students. This had in fact laid the strong Indo-Fijian community provision of and involvement in, the education of their young people. At this stage, Fijian children and adults were ahead only in the access, attendance and literacy levels mainly in the Bauan dialect (Coxon, 2000).

Moreover, after the enactment of the 1916 Fiji Education Ordinance\(^{35}\) which had introduced the Grant-in-Aid Scheme for schools, Fiji’s Colonial Government had also become more involved in formal education within the structure of the state-community partnership (Coxon, 2000). The Colonial Government administration had therefore continued to support this development of racially divided schooling. Coxon (2000), supported by Ali (2001) and Bole (2009), said that although many more Fijian than Indo-Fijian children had attended primary school, the quality of Fijian schools, which were remotely located in rural and outlying islands, was much lower. At the same time, far more of those Indo-Fijian schools, especially those in urban areas, had met the prescribed standards to qualify for financial educational grants. Thus, this had further widened the disparity levels in both the physical structures and the academic standards between the Indo-Fijian and the Indigenous Fijian schools. To reduce this ever widening gap and improve the quality of Fijian education, it became necessary to introduce affirmative action policies in favour of Indigenous Fijians.

This unfortunate situation of the lack of support towards the struggle of achieving academic education for the Indigenous Fijians had been allowed to gather momentum. By mid 1940s, the enrolment figures had changed, with more Indo-Fijian children attending schools. The Indo-Fijian communities, as Prasad (1975), Prakash (1986), Sharma (1997), Coxon (2000) and Ali (2001) pointed out, had preferred that their children had access to the more academic curriculum that was available only to European children. This was the more favoured choice rather than the agricultural and other educational foci the colonial government had promoted for non-European schools. Ravuvu (2003)\(^{36}\) pointed out that the strong urge by the Indo-Fijian communities for academic education have been influenced through their early childhood experience encountered back in India before they had embarked on their indentured trips to Fiji. For instance, there were already numerous and well established Universities and Colleges in India before 1879. Therefore, there were already well-founded

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\(^{35}\) One of the early Fiji Education Ordinances passed by the Colonial Administrators that provided direct funding for those already well established European and Indian schools. Whereas, all the indigenous Fijian schools could not be accessible to the same funding source as they could not match the prescribed conditions of selection.

\(^{36}\) An indigenous Professor at the USP. He was a strong advocate of the relevant socio-economic and political development programmes of the indigenous Fijians in the new millennium.
primary and secondary schools, which had provided academic education for those Indian parents that were able to financially afford to send their children to (Prasad 1975; Prakash 1986; and Ali 2001).

Coxon (2000) adds that another inequality originating from those early years had resulted from disparities in quality provisions between rural and urban schools. Ali (1982), Ravuvu (1987), Coxon (2000), White (2001), Puamau (2001) and Qalo (2004) had also indicated that by 1916, the conditions by which the state-community partnership operated had been firmly established. It meant that schools that had already been advantaged by geographic and socio-economic locations had been enabled and further encouraged to maintain and reproduce their advantages overtime. Conversely, rural schools mainly for the indigenous Fijians have all along been disadvantaged by the education system, thus a major cause for the continuing disparity in the academic performance between indigenous Fijian students and children of other ethnic groups (Uluivuda, 2001; White, 2001; Puamau, 2001; Delailomaloma, 2001; Qalo, 2004; Koroi, 2005; Madraiwiwi, 2006; Sharma, 2006; Nabobo-Baba, 2006; Delailomaloma, 2007).

In addition, Coxon (2000), Ali (2001) and Koroi (2009) went on to stress that the combined effect of the above educational policies in 1800 and early 1900 had favoured ethnically divided education. Such favourable factors had included the colonial policy, geographical location, socio-economic advantages, cultural, linguistic and religious differences. It simply showed that ethnically divided schooling has been embedded in Fiji’s education structures for over a century.

Moreover, both the 1969 and the 2000 Fiji Education Commission Reports have also highlighted that committee ownership of schools, the connection between a particular school’s resources and the degree of wealth or the deprivation of that wealth from the school community had significantly contributed to having the following two major effects on Fiji’s present education system. First, they have perpetuated the differences in the quality of schooling available for children from different communities. Second, they have also effectively maintained separation by ethnicity since early 1800 (Coxon 2000). This view was further supported by Uluivuda (2001), Delailomaloma (2002), Koroi (2005), Sharma (2006) and Bole (2007).

All the above views clearly indicate that the identified period of over a century, may very
well equate the present education gap of the academic achievements between other ethnic
groups, mainly Indo-Fijians and those of the Indigenous Fijians. Whitehead\textsuperscript{37} (1986)
supported this further when she said that indigenous Fijians have historically been
educationally disadvantaged through the following factors. First, was the lack of assistance
and direction from Fiji’s colonial education pioneers. Second, the continuing adherence to
the century-old ethnically divided schooling by other responsible authorities. He further
confirmed that those had been the historical roots of the lower educational attainment of the
Fijian population that had also laid the foundation of education in Fiji prior to 1874. More
detailed discussion on the historical roots of the lower educational attainment of the Fijian
population as shown by Whitehead (1986), Williams (2001), and Koroi (2009) would be the
focus of Chapters 5 and 6.

However, the above education gap has somehow been slowly but positively addressed since
2002 with the introduction of the legally framed affirmative action initiatives within the 2001
Social Justice Act. The findings in this research study through the MFA Scholarships scheme
and the improvement in the Centers of Excellence for selected Government Secondary
Schools have pointed to positive outcome of the AA policies. Further findings have also
indicated that a lot more could still be achieved if the implementers of these programmes had
encouraged inclusiveness in their approach and emphasised transparency in all their actions.

Background of the AAP for the Indigenous Fijian and Rotuman Education

This section provides a brief educational background of the Affirmative Action policies of
the Indigenous Fijians. As it is partially based on Fiji Government’s Parliamentary Paper
No. 73 (2002)\textsuperscript{38}, the study is in effect a review of the 20 Year Plan’s Vision and Mission on
Fiji’s Affirmative Action policy in education, with particular references for the indigenous
Fijians and Rotumans.

In further focusing the attention of this research study specifically on the background of the
2000 Blueprint for the Affirmative Action Policy (AAP) on Fijian and Rotuman education, it
would be more appropriate to direct the attention on the official statement announced at the
launching of the document as its central emphasis. This format has, however, been adopted

\textsuperscript{37} An internationally recognized academic whose interest has been centered on the indigenous education development
particularly for those in developing countries in Fiji.

\textsuperscript{38} “50/50 BY YEAR 2020” 20 YEAR DEVELOPMENT PLAN (2001 – 2020). For the Enhancement of Participation of
Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans in the Socio-Economic Development of Fiji.
since other national educational concerns had been addressed by previous governments on a piece-meal basis since 1970.

The content of His Excellency, the late President’s message had clearly depicted as to why, how and what relevant stakeholders ought to do to make the dreams in the document a reality. It had also identified the broad intention the blueprint had targeted to achieve in terms of its immediate, short-term and medium-term objectives. The integral part of the AAP’s long term objective that was also cited in His Excellency’s address, will be further discussed in Chapter 6.

The official launching of the blueprint for the Affirmative Action on Fijian education was held at the Queen Victoria School\(^39\) on Wednesday, 25 April 2001, by His Excellency the late President, Ratu Josefa Iloilovatu Uluivuda. As emphasized earlier, he had made some pertinent observations that befitted the historic occasion. He said that he felt a keen sense of occasion because the blueprint for Affirmative Action on Fijian education was the first and a historic document. It has turned a new page in Fijian education. He added:

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\text{Today is a very significant day in the annals of education of this country. For the very first time since Fiji became an independent nation in 1970, a blueprint has been put together by the government of the day to address what has long been considered as one of the most pressing and persistent educational problems of this nation. That is, the flagging performance of Fijian students and of Fijian schools generally, and the widening gap between the Fijian student and his peers.}
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Ratu Uluivuda (2001: 2)

In citing the underlying reasons for adopting the document, the late President clearly stated that some of the reasons were well-documented and might have been pegged down to certain tensions between the modern and the traditional, while others had appeared to be a function of poverty and the isolation of rural and island communities. For the typical location of Fijian schools, Ratu Uluivuda maintained that those schools were largely located in the most disadvantaged areas of Fiji. Those areas he said would have no source of electricity and water, few or no roads, no regular source of income, and where visits by the Government officials were few and far between.

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\(^{39}\) The school, first recognised as ‘Vuli-ni-Turaga’ (only for sons of Fijian chiefs) was established on Yanawai, Bua in 1883. It moved to Naikorokoro, Togalevu, Rewa in 1895 and then to Nasinu (presently the FNU Campus) in 1906. The school was renamed in 1907 from Queen Victoria Memorial School to Queen Victoria School. It then moved to Nukuloa, Ra in 1943, moved to Lodoni in 1949 and then to Matavatucou, its present site in 1952. The launching of the Blueprint at QVS was specifically significance of its connectedness towards the promising future of the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman education development.
Turning to the difficulty of transferring suitable teachers to such isolated areas, Ratu Uluivuda confirmed that a critical factor was the posting of the right calibre of teachers into those schools. A few teachers, he said, would relish the idea of rural service because of the deprivations they were forced to endure in those marginal areas. Ratu Uluivuda confirmed that teachers were also discouraged further by the paucity of educational resources, which had always been a cause of great concern. His Excellency pointed out that it was a ‘no-win’ situation for many Fijian students in those marginal and least favorable areas.

Ratu Uluivuda further reiterated that it was common knowledge in Fiji that during the greater part of the 20th Century most Fijian children had performed well below par in schools in comparison with students of other communities. He also said the gap between the attainment levels of Fijian students and those of other ethnic groups continued to widen throughout the 20th Century. He added that there was nothing to indicate that the foreseeable future would see a change in that scenario. He therefore pleaded with all stakeholders to renew their commitment and called on all concerned citizens to come together in the true spirit of collaboration, thus the immediate need for the adoption of the Blueprint. Such appeal from His Excellency should have been a motivational reminder to policy implementers in particular, that the best was what was to be basically anticipated from them by all relevant stakeholders. This was a necessity if the objectives of the policy were to be more meaningfully and successfully achieved.

Focusing on the special challenge facing indigenous people in plural societies, the late Ratu Uluivuda maintained that it was widely acknowledged in plural societies, indigenous populations take much longer to respond positively to external stimuli. In those situations such as in Malaysia, he said, the only redress was for the Government of the day to intervene aggressively through a comprehensive and coherent plan of action such as the Blueprint. He further confirmed that while there was ample evidence to prove that some Fijian students over the last 30 years had succeeded in the school system against the odds, statistics had also revealed that the vast majority of them had either failed to reach their full potential or had dropped out of the school system.

Ratu Uluivuda conceded that other communities have also had their share of failure in the

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40 It has been recognised that the indigenous people that reside in plural society take much longer to respond positively to external stimuli, thus the need for Government to intervene aggressively with such initiative as the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.
school system. However, more disturbing was the Fijian education problem and its pervasiveness in the community. No one in the Fijian community was immune to the Fijian education problem. For instance, he argued that it was an educational concern that had plagued the chiefly household, the upper economic class of the Fijian society and as tragically as it did to the families of the ordinary Fijians. He further emphasized that it was frightening to note that the Fijian education problem had been allowed to escalate to a point where it seemed it had assumed an immunity of its own to remedial prescription.

Furthermore, the late Ratu Uluivuda articulated that if we were to believe recent surveys, the increased allocations for education from the Government revenue in the last 30 years had made little impression on the problem, therefore, the timely introduction of the Blueprint was necessary. Whilst it might not be the elixir to provide total cure, it was a very good start in the right direction.

His Excellency then clearly indicated what the blueprint for the Affirmative Action on Fijian education was not intended for. He noted the following:

- It was not an end in itself but the beginning of a process to reclaim Fijian confidence in the school system.
- It was not intended to spoon-feed Fijian students. What it hoped to do was to empower the truly disadvantaged students to the point where they were able to compete on the same terms with peers.
- It was not a document which emphasized theory. It was a pragmatic approach to a problem, an action plan designed to combat government and other stakeholders to medium and long-term intervention in Fijian schools.
- It was not a document that would stand on its own in splendid isolation. It needed to be part of a network of people, of Ministries, of Governments, of NGOs and of Institutions both here and abroad. It needed the support and goodwill of every citizen of Fiji. It also needed the understanding of the International Community. His Excellency then concluded:

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41 The Government failure to get enough Fijians through to the top (Rodger, 1966).
For what we see here today is not racist in intention, but a far-sighted and long-overdue initiative to create a level playing field for all the children of Fiji. The blueprint for Fijian education is meant to empower those whose need is greatest. It calls for greater government intervention now. It has also set in place a system that will ensure every Fijian child has access to quality education and training, every Fijian school, irrespective of location, has the capability to provide that within the next 10 years.

Ratu Uluivuda (2001: 4)

The Present Situation of the MOE’s AAP-EFA

The present status of Fiji’s education policy was announced by Government through the Minister for Education, Labour and Industrial Relations at the 100th session of the International Labour Conference in Geneva, Switzerland in the second week of June, 2011 (Fiji Times, Tuesday 2011: 15). First, Government had maintained its fee-free education in the first 13 years of primary and five years of secondary education that initially started in the nineties. Second, the newly introduced education policy initiatives by the present Military Government since 2007 was to cater for the following:

- The removal of all forms of discrimination in respect of access and selection in schools. It therefore provides every child free and equal opportunity in the school system.
- The abolishment of three external examinations in primary and lower secondary schools to reduce drop-out rate.
- The provision of free transport to all students that meet the criteria at the primary and secondary schools.
- The zoning of schools to bring education closer to all children.
- The completion of the provision of free textbooks to all primary schools and the commencement of the same provision for secondary schools.
- The continuing Government initiative to work closely with non-government school authorities to provide education facilities for the inflow of all children into the school system.
- The expansion and upgrading of rural high schools to form seven level to provide easier access for rural students straight to university and advanced technical education.

The above education policies run parallel to the Education for All (EFA) initiatives which was introduced in 2010 to replace the AAP in education. It is interesting to note that nothing much had been altered in the policy name tag. However, the increase in the amount of
funding for the EFA programmes during 2010 and 2011 financial years clearly indicate the confidence of the present Military Government of the continuing success of the initiative for the development of Fiji’s education system particularly favouring Fijian education problems in future years.

FORMAT OF THE STUDY

This chapter provides the overview of the study. It also defines the background of the study, the rationale, the aim and objectives and the research questions. Following on is the methodological orientation. It also examines briefly the theoretical orientation and the context of the study. The chapter concludes with the format of the thesis.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the Affirmative Action Policy in Education taking a more global perspective. It provides an in-depth account on the inception of Affirmative Action, how it has been practiced globally and its strengths and challenges. It provides the basic theoretical and conceptual understanding of the policy.

Chapter 3 focuses on the theoretical and conceptual framework of the AAP in education. Its emphasis is centred on the theoretical underpinnings of the study through policy analysis, especially systems theory and planned educational change. It also discusses the impact of the systems theory and planned educational change on the study.

In Chapter 4 a detailed description of the methodology of the study is being examined. The background information on research design, the data collection methods and the indigenous Fijian research approaches are also discussed.

Chapter 5 presents the data gathering techniques which include through conversation with policy implementers and policy users, questionnaires, case studies reports as well as observation.

Chapter 6 discusses the key findings of the study. These include the major characteristics of the study, the roles of the major stakeholders and the management of the AAP.

Finally, in Chapter 7, the discussion is focused on the implications of the study. The main emphasis here is on the implications for policy and practice as well as for further research, research methodology and the relevant literature.
CHAPTER TWO

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PERSPECTIVES

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides various views on the overall perspectives of the affirmative action. These views are from writers and commentators highlighting both the local and national perspectives. It also includes researchers and international authorities who have publicly confirmed certain views on what affirmative action is. This chapter has seven parts. The first part discusses the definition of affirmative action. The second part discusses global views of affirmative action policy. Included in the discussions are the generally accepted perspectives, limited and temporary preferences and the preferred and non-preferred individuals and groups. It is followed by the fourth and fifth parts which discuss the strengths and limitations of affirmative action policy. The sixth part is focused on the perceived global trends of affirmative action. This is followed by the suggested approaches to affirmative action before the conclusion of the chapter is finally drawn.

This study wishes to emphasise at the outset that the major challenging perspective of affirmative action initiative is not based on the overall outcomes of the affirmative action policies. Instead, people are actually either for or against the theory of affirmative action. This view is adequately supported by Sowell (2004:1) when he firmly asserts:

The factual questions of what actually happens as a result of affirmative action policies receive remarkably little attention. Assumptions, beliefs and rationales dominate controversies on this issue in countries around the world.

The confirmation of the above view had been clearly and confidently stated by Sowell after he had spent 30 years of continuously studying affirmative action in the sixteen countries including Fiji.
WHAT IS AFFIRMATIVE ACTION POLICY?

Since independence in 1970, all successive governments in Fiji have practiced affirmative action policies under two different name tags: positive discrimination and preferential treatment (Sharma, 1997; Ratuva, 1999; Puamau, 2000; White, 2001; Gounder and Biman, 2006).

Even Sowell (2004) an eminent scholar in his field, has indicated that there is not an accepted definition of this up-lifting programme for the disadvantaged of society. Drawing from the work of Bossuyt\(^{42}\) (2000), Tamata\(^{43}\) (2000), a principal legal officer in the Fiji Prime Minister’s office, suggested the following definition of the term:

Affirmative action is a coherent pack of measures of a temporary character, aimed specifically at correcting the position of members of a target group, in one or more aspects of their social life, in order to obtain effective equality.

(Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper No: 108, 2005: 97)

Moreover, under the Social Justice Act of 2001, the definition of affirmative action has been further clarified (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No: 66, 2004: 5). The key issues are:

- ‘Affirmative action’ means State policies to assist groups or categories of persons who are disadvantaged to enable them to achieve equality of access with groups or categories that are not disadvantaged.
- ‘Disadvantaged in relation to a group or category of person’, means that the groups by virtue of the location or educational level of the category of persons or groups.
- ‘Equality of access’ means equality of access to education and training, to land and housing, to participating in commerce and participation in all levels and branches of service of the state.

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\(^{42}\) Mr. Mac Bossuyt was a Special Rapporteur during the preliminary meetings of the Sub-Committee on the UN Commission on the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR).

\(^{43}\) Laitia Tamata was a Principal legal officer under the Prime Minister’s Office specifically assigned to co-ordinate all the activities within the AAP that had been practiced throughout Fiji. He was directly responsible to the Prime Minister’s permanent secretary.
• ‘Programme’ means a programme of affirmative action specified in the schedule of the 1997 Constitution.

Additionally, the UN Document (2000) has further clarified that the basic concept of affirmative action is generally accepted and referred to in international law as special measures for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward section of society.

One of the first calls for these special measures was initiated by the Government of India during the drafting of the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). In this call, United Nation Document (A/C. 3/SR/ 1182, paragraph 17) further says that India had suggested that an explanatory paragraph should be included in the text of Article 2 to specify that:

- under existing International Standards, affirmative action is recognized as an important remedy for achieving racial equality;
- this International Standard qualifies these principles only in so far as holding that affirmative action programmes:
  - should not lead to the maintenance of separate rights for different racial groups; and
  - must be discontinued once the programmes’ objectives have been achieved.

(Cited in Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper Number 83, 2006: 43)

GLOBAL VIEWS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Generally Accepted Perspectives

Before really digging deeper into the generally accepted perspectives of affirmative action at the global level, Sowell (2004) has identified initial weaknesses against successfully implementing such developmental initiative as affirmative action. In citing such weaknesses, he referred to the following for the Malaysian experience:

New policies were often put forth without considering what the success or failure of past policies boded for their own prospects.

Sowell (2004: preface)
Global views on affirmative actions are many and varied. While many commentators are interested in its theory, a few seem to focus on the actual outcome of its implementation process. This is to address who actually benefits under this special government sponsored up-lifting assistance for the poor of the society.

It has been established that such new policies have often been introduced without due consideration of the success or failures of past polices. To ensure that such Governmental development policies do not end up with negative outcomes, some views are therefore in support of the need to integrate such policy into the national development framework. This is a necessity to avoid duplication and contradiction, ensure that monitoring is carried out effectively by the responsible Ministries and to guard against abuse.

Sowell (2004) confirms there seem to be common patterns, common rationale and common results of affirmative action in countries around the world. Moreover, a general assumption of national uniqueness is one of the most common patterns found in numerous countries where group preferences and quotas have existed under a variety of names. The nine countries that Sowell has identified under group preferences include Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, Fiji, Israel, New Zealand, Pakistan and the Soviet Union.

The national uniqueness that has been referred to as special situation is those of the Maoris’ in New Zealand, based on the 1840 Treaty of Waitangi. This unique position also applies to the Harijan of India and the African Americans of the United States of America.

Turning to group performances, Sowell further stated there are four main categories existing in these countries. They include those for the minorities, some for the majorities, some for the less fortunate and even some for the more fortunate who feel entitled to maintain their existing advantages over other members of the same society. These programmes for the ‘up-lifting’ of the less fortunate are also given separate identification in the following seven countries of the world. The United States of America named it ‘affirmative action’. The United Kingdom and some states in India called it ‘positive discrimination’. ‘Standardization’ is the preferred title in Sri Lanka, while Nigeria termed it as reflecting the ‘federal character of the country’. The preference in Malaysia, Indonesia as well as in some States in India is titled as the “sons of the soil”.

Whatever identification is given, the initial recognized intention is that it does not lead to discrimination and that measures taken must be temporary in nature. It is interesting to learn
that Pakistan, which initially started its affirmative action (AA) programme in 1949, still continues it indefinitely. This was intended to be temporary measure and to be phased out in five to ten years. It has, however, continued decades past the initial specified cut-off time by repeated extensions (Sowell, 2004).

This leads us to the next segment of our discussion which is on limited and temporary preferences of affirmative action policy.

**Limited and Temporary Preferences**

The major focus for societies should always be for their commitment to the equality of individuals before the law. Sowell (2004: 3) further clarifies that:

> …these programmes would supposedly be limited not only in time but also in scope, with equal treatment policies prevailing outside the limited domain where the members of particular groups would be given special help.

For instance in India, a certain Government minister, while urging the need to lower university admission standards for the Harijan and the members of disadvantaged tribes clearly specified that the provision of relaxation was for the admission and not for ‘passing or grading’. Whilst this practice was not commonly carried out in the other fifteen countries that Sowell studied, Fiji has adopted the lowering of university admission marks specifically for the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students. This favours them to secure scholarship sponsorships for tertiary studies.

In India, Mishra (1999) noted even the staunchest supporters of reservation acceded the scheme was a transitory provision. The scheme was, in fact, the reservation of certain number of jobs for members of specified groups. Prakash (1997) stated the proposal for a 10 year cut-off limit for reservations was made by the leaders of the Harijan themselves in 1949. This was done in order to forestall political opposition and social conflicts. These reservations are still in place today.

In the United States of America, similar reasoning was applied to both the employment of females and “non-whites” as well as in admission to colleges and universities. At the outset,
a proposal of a special outreach programme was to be instituted to attract minority individuals to encourage them to apply for jobs or college admission into tertiary institutions where they may not have felt welcomed before. The condition that they would not be given special preferences throughout the whole processes of advancement was also stressed (Sowell, 2004).

In Malaysia, Means (1986) observes that although grading was intended to be made without referring to students’ ethnicity, all grades were to be submitted to an evaluation review committee which comprised more Malay representation. There were also reported instances in which grades were unilaterally raised for the purpose of achieving ethnic balance.

There were similar policies adopted and some results had been achieved in a less open fashion. For instance, Lubin (1984) confirmed that in the Soviet Union, University professors were pressured to introduce affirmative grading by giving preferences to Central Asian students who were Chinese or Mongolian. The same option was also practised in the United States of America in order to contain excessive failure rates amongst minority students that were admitted under lower academic standards (Riesman, 1980). The editorial section of the Hindu Newspaper in India (2000) noted that such practices have been referred to in India as ‘grace marks’.

Sowell (2004) further confirms similar results can be achieved indirectly by providing ethnic studies courses that give easy grades and at the same time attract disproportionately the members of one ethnic group. Whilst this is not peculiar to the United States of America, there are Maori study programmes in New Zealand and more special studies for Malays in Singapore.

Upon reviewing global views of AAPs, the study believes there is a need to always accommodate the marginalised in our community. Failure to do this is tantamount to negating responsibility for those that deserve care.

Preferred and Non-preferred Groups

To simply define and categorize those classified as members of the preferred and non-preferred groups in affirmative action policies debate, it is a task needing closer examination and deliberation. Sowell (2004) has provided these associated factors. Firstly, we cannot presuppose the continuing control over the scope and duration of such preferential policies.
Secondly, it cannot be assumed what would actually happen to those designated as the preferred groups or non-preferred groups. Neither these preferred groups nor the non-preferred groups can be easily identified, isolated and manipulated according to someone else’s imagination. Both these groups, he argues, are legally bound and are under some undefined policies that create incentives and constraints which would allow them to react in their own ways.

During fieldwork research trips in this study, it confirmed the situation where preferred groups or non-preferred groups could not be easily identified owing to the strong support by their affiliated political groups. The political bond was hard to overcome as these groups were mostly the main financiers of their respective political parties. They were in fact the major influence in Government decision-making. This issue will be further discussed in subsequent chapters. The next focus of the chapter is on the conceptualisation of the affirmative action policy.

THE CONCEPTUALISATION OF THE AFFIRMATIVE ACTION POLICY (AAP)

Global Perspectives

The term ‘affirmative action’ was referred to by President Kennedy in his presidential order number 10,925 of 1963. The order was to ensure that applicants are employed and they be treated fairly during their term of employment in terms of their race, colour, creed or national origin.

Further, the National Organization for Women Newsletter (2006) had recorded that a much earlier response was also made by former Presidents of the United States of America. Clearly, however, the newsletter authored by Marguita Sykes said Affirmative Action had originated as a set of public policies and initiatives designed to help eliminate past and present discrimination based on race, colour, religion, sex and national origin.

In 1941, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed an Executive Order 8802, outlawing segregationist hiring policies by defence-related industries which held federal contracts. Roosevelt’s signing of this order was a direct result of efforts by ‘Black’ trade union leader, Philip Ranlop, who had secured better employment conditions for his trade union members.
During 1953, President Harry S. Truman’s Committee on Government Contract Compliance urged the Bureau of Employment Security, “to act positively and affirmatively to implement the policy of non discrimination…” (Sowell, 2004: 5).

The second occasion for the phrase ‘affirmative action’ was used as a presidential or executive order was when President Lyndon Johnson issued Order 11246 in 1965. It required federal contractors to take affirmative action to ensure that applicants were employed and that employees were treated better during employment with all fair conditions.

In 1968, President Johnson’s Order had contained the fateful expressions of goals, timetables and representation. Sowell (2004) further stressed that they were not then the fully blown quotas, as the 1968 guidelines had actually referred to goal as timetables for the more effective and prompt achievement of full and equal employment opportunity.

In 1970, President Richard Nixon spoke of result-oriented procedures. This finally gave birth to his presidential order which stated goals and timetables were meant to increase materially the utilization of minorities and women. Affirmative Action was then viewed more as a numerical concept.

Pakistan had attempted to confine affirmative action policies within their initial time frame, but proved futile. As quoted earlier in this section of the chapter, the affirmative action policies that began in 1949 in Pakistan were still in operation.

Moreover, those initiating affirmative action do get support and are also encouraged by some world prominent individual such as Britain’s Lord Scarman who forwarded the following view in 1982:

We can and for the present must accept the loading of the law in favour of one group at the expense of others, defending it as a temporary expedient in the balancing process which has to be undertaken when and where there is social and economic inequality.


The success of such supportive views on affirmative action depended largely on the degree of control which was quite misleading in country after country around the world (Sowell, 2004).

An interesting issue is therefore raised here. Sowell (2004: 6) questioned, “When and where there is economic inequality, encompassing virtually the entire globe and virtually the entire
history of the human race, can a temporary programme be entrusted to eliminate it?” Sowell further notes that it is almost a contradiction and indeed overwhelming if people were to expect any formidable solution from such a half-hearted response.

Such limited and temporary preferential treatment has been a permanent feature evolving around affirmative action wherever it has been adopted. For instance, as stated earlier, in the United States of America, Presidential Orders that have been issued since John F Kennedy have clearly signified this positive level of acceptance by such a super-power. Furthermore, they have also fully accepted that the existence of the poor would remain as its permanent feature (Sowell, 2004).

In Fiji, a local Catholic priest, Father Kevin Barr (1990), supports the reality of the existence of such permanent feature when he argues that the continuing presence of the unfortunate group of people is the very reason for the conception of AAP. This would always be a reality and it has been widely believed by Christians to be a divine creation for God’s people. Father Barr, further notes that those who are generally inclined towards this philosophy also believe that they must always act towards others with the same kind of love and compassion that the Creator had initially shown to them. To fully re-emphasise this belief Newland (2006: 1) states:

＞There was to be no injustice among God’s people and they were to show special concern for the poor, the weak, the needy, widows, orphans and strangers.＜

To further substantiate the above belief the Holy Bible in Deuteronomy 15:4 expresses God’s desire that, “There are to be no poor among you”. It also implies that no one is to be left behind, which is a commonly accepted ideology usually practised at the village level by the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

Moreover, there is also sufficient evidence to support Biblical belief that, “there will always be poor people existing amongst us where ever we live,” (Isaiah 58:1 – 8; Ezekiel 34; and Amos 5:21 – 24; 8:4 – 7). The need for others to treat them with a more humane and appropriate treatment is supported by another Biblical verse which says:

＞For the poor will never cease to be in the land; therefore, I command you, saying you shall freely open your hand to your brother, to your needy, and the poor in your land.＜

Deuteronomy (15:11)
This ideology further confirms the above views adopted by Sowell (2004) thus far. It firmly establishes that the reality of the presence of the economic inequality, encompassing virtually the entire globe and virtually the entire history of the human race, is indeed a true phenomenon. Therefore, if there is any hope of partially eradicating such adversity, wherever it exists, it has to be matched with more permanent solutions. This would be a better option to consider rather than adopting such special measure as the AAP to temporarily resolve it. This study also endorses this view as supported by its findings in Chapter 5.

WHAT ARE ITS STRENGTHS?

**Global Examples**

It is common knowledge that members of the non-preferred groups would jump at the first opportunity to get themselves re-designated as members of the preferred group. This is in fact done either individually or collectively. The main players or actors in this re-designation process are individuals of mixed ancestry. For instance, in Fiji, part-Europeans and part-Chinese have also entered their names in the Fijian birth registration record or ‘Vola ni Kawa Bula’. The purpose is for eligibility to access for low interest rates from the Fiji Development Bank (FDB) and other aid agencies for commercial ventures.

In the United States of America, there was an alarming rise in the number of individuals identifying themselves as American Indians as recorded in the United States Census during the affirmative action era. When the breakdown of the census data was revealed, it showed that the number of American Indians had increased overtime in the same age cohort. This was viewed as a biological impossibility. It was, however, made possible on paper by re-designation of the number of American Indians who were aged 15 to 19 in 1960 which was just under 50,000. But 20 years later, the scam was revealed when those same individuals would be in the age bracket of 35 to 39 years. Consequently, there were more than 80,000 American Indians in that cohort (Sowell, 2004).

In a study in Australia a similar pattern was found among the Aborigines (Hoddie, 2002). There was 42 percent increase in the size of the Aboriginal population between 1981 and the 1986 census. That study, which was declared a demographic impossibility, concluded that it was impossible for a sudden rise of 42 percent with a short span of 10 years. The only possibility was by re-designation of the same individuals with different ethnic labels. As that
finding had aroused the interest of so many Australian scholars, the following shows this concern:

The dramatic increase in the numbers has much to do with record keeping, increasing intermarriages and the growing availability of substantial subsidies to people of Aboriginal descent. …the definition of Aboriginal includes many persons of predominantly non-Aboriginal descent, who might with equal or greater genetic justification designate themselves as non-Aborigines.

Kesper (2002: 45)

In China, similar stories have also emerged. In the 1990s, more than 10 million Chinese had declared their ethnic minority status in order to gain preferential treatment such as college admission. Even China’s excessively harsh law restricting Chinese from having more than one child, did not apply to its ethnic minorities. Sautman (1999: 294) further clarifies this claim:

Article 44 states that, in accordance with legal stipulations, autonomous areas can work out their own family planning measure. As a result, urban minority couples generally may have two children, while urban Han are restricted to one. Rural minorities may have two, three, four or even more children, depending on their ethnicity and location.

On another similar note, the following comment was attributed to an official of China’s State Nationality Affairs Committee:

Some people would try all means to change their nationality because they wanted to make themselves eligible to enter a University with lower scores or to stand better chance than their colleagues when it comes to promotion.

Sowell (2004: 9 – 10)

The above remark clearly signifies how people with mixed ancestry have been able to benefit themselves from in various countries which have such preferential policy as affirmative action. They are quite remarkable in tracing their ancestry back hundreds of years to prove their minority blood mix to justify their claims and benefits.
In South Asian Countries, the ‘Ali Baba Enterprise’ as it has been labelled, is where Ali is the indigenous individual who informally puts on as the business owner and is therefore legally entitled to government benefits. While Baba, is the non-indigenous person who actually controls the enterprise also pays Ali for the use of his name (Zelnick, 1996).

**Blurring Distinction between Performance Difference and Favouritism**

Any blurring of the distinction between performance differences and favouritism in affirmative action would only serve the political purpose of providing a rationale for government intervention. The major influential factors in such situation would be preferences and quotas for particular groups. This would also provide a way of off-setting the supposed favouritism or advantages enjoyed by other groups. But, if the people concerned are determined to confront realities than their words would not confuse the performance differences with favours or advantages (Sowell 2004).

Take for example, the expression of “a level playing field”. Sowell argues that the expression cannot be taken to mean both. This is to have the same performance to receive the same reward, regardless of the group from which the individual comes. Therefore, the two groups cannot have equal outcomes or equal statistical probabilities of success. The choice of either one of the above depends entirely on the interpretation of their meanings. But, it is a matter of simple clarity and honesty not to choose both, as when addressing one means that the expression is used to mean the other, and then it could be taken as a case of sheer deceit. For those that advocate affirmative action, the phrase, “a level playing field”, has often been referred to describe the uneven rules that are applied to all. This has been noted to have been used with bias to produce preconceived equalizing of results.

Therefore, the shifting of such definitions only serves to appropriately evade the facts which challenge the central belief behind many discussions of discrimination in affirmative action. This is obviously noted in the statistical differences between groups which are mainly due to how others treat those groups and not owing to differences in the performances of the groups themselves. As we are all familiar with, there are performance differences amongst groups all around the world.

In this study so far, it had been clear that superior economic performances by minorities have been common, not just in the countries that had been studied for the last 30 years (Sowell,
These countries included Germans in Russia, Armenians in Turkey, Lebanese in West Africa, Italians in Brazil, Indians in Fiji and Jews throughout Eastern Europe.

Another blurring distinction had been quoted in the following case. Groups were often said to be excluded from various institutions or activities because they did not meet the qualifications for those institutions. These include their activities as members of some other groups or they did not perform as well in those institutions or activities. Snodgrass (1980) further clarified this situation when he said that the Malays were referred to as deprived group in Malaysia while non-Malays as having privilege. Freedman (2001) also stressed that it had showed that no one was really serious to mean that there were either legal rights of a lesser nature for the Malays or economic activities which anyone could prevent Malays from effectively engaging in within Malaysia. That blurring situation was later clarified by a British newspaper, the Guardian, when adopting Woollacott’s views (1995: 22) which described the situation before the introduction of the New Economic Policy in Malaysia:

Malays were on the sidelines in their own society with hardly any place in economic life, little role in the media, and not much more in intellectual and academic life. Such action which would normally be inadmissible, interventions in the economic, cultural and education sphere to give Malays a chance to catch up ought to be permitted. Foreign firms and governments which blocked Malay progress could be similarly treated.

The above quotation had clearly revealed that the overall outcome had been owing to what others had done, rather than what the Malays had not done. What this situation had actually meant was that it was not due to any lack of skills, experience or other capabilities on the part of the Malays which had been responsible for their not ending up with the same achievements as others in Malaysia. If the situation had meant as a serious statement about what was actually happening, there was no serious attempt to specify what that blocking had consisted (Sowell, 2004).

So far in this study, there were ample reasons why one group of people had excelled over others in particular fields. At the same time, there were reasons that are due to personal merit (Sowell, 2004). For instance, the Tamils in Sri Lanka were in colonial periods educated in American missionary schools that had emphasized mathematics and science more than the British missionary schools in which the Sinhalese had been educated. Likewise, as mentioned earlier, the Chinese who had migrated to Malaysia had come from circumstances
in Southern China where they had worked under long and very difficult conditions that was necessary for their survival. This was quite the opposite from the Malay culture that had developed in easier circumstances which had permitted an easy—going way of life for the Malays. Much of the distinction could be made between the Indians who had settled in Fiji through the Indentured System, and the indigenous Fijians. Many other influences might have been behind other differences between other groups in some other countries. However, that did not make those differences any less real or had automatically made them simply as results of discrimination by others. Whatever conception might be debated in the abstract term around a seminar table, the main empirical question in such public policy was whether one group outperforms another or was simply rewarded more for the same (or lesser) performances (Sowell, 2004).

**The Positive Outcome of Intergroup Relations**

It has been a common rationale particularly by those that favour affirmative action that the positive policy for the disadvantaged people has helped to promote a more cohesive society and national unity amongst everyone.

Galanter (1984) observes that the phrase has been popularly referred to in India, Malaysia and Nigeria despite a history of increasing inter-group resentments, polarization, violence and even civil war in the wake of such policies. The fact is that those countries are not the only ones where affirmative action is being promoted as a means of better intergroup relations. In reality, the actual track record of group identity politics is in sharp contrast with the mystical benefits of diversity which have been endlessly tested but has seldom been tested empirically and have never been proved.

For instance in Nigeria, the phrase national unity had appeared repeatedly in the official pronouncements justifying group preferences, even as the members of different tribes had slaughtered each other before, during and after the country’s civil war. Similarly, Sowell (2004) observed that despite continuous repetition of the word ‘diversity’ and the sweeping conviction about its social benefits; countries had continued to suffer the intergroup strife. This had so often accompanied the politicization of intergroup differences, and then gone to great trouble to create its own well-established community as a means of reducing internal conflict. For instance, both India and Nigeria have had to split existing states or provinces into smaller political units, in which some of the former minority group could, became a
majority. That simply meant that those who had suffered the most severe consequences of group-identity politics had then turned to local reduction of diversity as a way to diffuse polarization and continuing violence.

WHAT ARE ITS LIMITATIONS?

Global Examples

The following are some of the global examples that indicate certain limitations of the AAP. Collective re-designation of members of some non-preferred groups has also been reported, particularly in India. Sowell (2004) stated that the 14th Amendment of India’s Constitution (like the 14th amendment of the constitution of the United States of America), provides for equal treatment of individuals. But in the Indian Constitution, it provides explicit exceptions for benefits to the Harijan, the disadvantaged tribal groups outside the Hindu cast system and other backward classes. This proviso in the Indian constitutional document has positively created opportunities for many more groups to allow them to be collectively designated as being among the other backward classes. Therefore, with the inclusion of these individuals as designated members with coverted rights to preferential treatment, it has effectively placed them ahead of those tribal groups for whom the preferences were created. This has brought the overall total of the Indian population that currently depend on affirmation action benefits to 76 percent (Sowell, 2004).

The continuing allowances to permit the re-designations of individuals and groups, comfortably give rise to the spread of preferences from given groups to other groups and has far removed preferential policies further away from the original rationales on which they were based. For instance in the United States of America, Sowell maintains that no historic sufferings of African Americans (particularly during the slave era) can ever justify preferential benefits to white women or to the recently arrived immigrants from Asia or Latin America who happen to be non-white. These people’s ancestors obviously did not suffer any discrimination in the United States of America.

The same situation also happens in India through the painful history and continuing oppression of the minority Harijan. This can hardly justify preferential benefits to the local majorities in states such as Assam, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh. Galanter (1984) further explains that this actually happens even though these local majorities and the members of
other backward classes outnumber the Harijan and are often in a better position to take advantage of the preferences. This has resulted in the continuing existence of unfilled vacancies under quotas in government jobs or university admission for the Harijan, while the reverse has been the case for the members of the other backward classes. The intended care for the minorities is, therefore, virtually defeated in such situations.

When more and more individuals are entitled to preferential benefits, some through devious means, there is obviously less and less handouts to go around covering all those who are entitled, particularly when more than half the population of the country are involved. This applies to both India and the United States of America. The reality is that the initial beneficiaries are worse off after the terms of the competition are altered.

With these counting pressures created by the still to be identified solutions on a fairer means of implementing such preferential benefits as affirmative action, there will always be more ugly clashes between the very groups that these benefits are supposed to be for. At the same time, the not so backward groups would always benefit from the preferential treatment even with more than 50 percent of the total package.

Sowell notes that the disproportionate distribution of the preferential benefits of affirmative action is another issue of concern. For instance, in the India’s state of Tamil Naidu, where the highest of the backward classes reside and who are legally entitled to preferential benefits, only constitute 11 percent of the total underprivileged class population in that state. Through these benefits, this minority group receive almost half of the jobs and the University admission which have been set aside for all classes.

In Malaysia, Mehmet (1985) states that where there are preferences by the indigenous ‘sons of soil’ majority, Malaya students whose families were in top 17 percent of the income distribution, received just over half of all the scholarships awarded to Malays.

In Sri Lanka, Richard de Silva (1996) confirms that the trend is similar. For instance, preferential University admission that was supposed to be for the poorer population has instead been awarded to students from affluent families.

This then brings our focus on the need to re-look at the scope and duration of the affirmative action policies and the designation of the beneficiaries in accordance with the rationale of these policies. More research has to be carried out particularly in the countries in which preferential programmes have been instituted. This would also assist in analyzing the shifts
in the overall attitude of the beneficial group concerned or to the country at large. It is therefore, not surprising that many people perceive AAP as an opportunity to derive benefits rather than the rationale upon which it is established. This is also a concern for this research study.

**Incentives as the Main Influential Factor than the Rationale**

When people’s attitudes are being influenced by incentives, they begin to consider the immediate, the short-term, the medium and long-term outcomes of such preferential policies. It could impact on the behaviour of both preferred and non-preferred groups. This would, in turn, modify their own behaviour and attitude in response to preferential policies and the rationale of such policies. Incentives would then seem to be the main influential factor than the rationale for such policies (Sowell, 2004).

The following examples show such influential factors through incentives rather than the rationale of the AAPs.

First, in Malaysia, Malaya students who believe that their future is assured feel less pressured to perform. Similarly, Horowitz (1998) points out those students in the United States of America who continue on to pursue postgraduate study, have shown little concern about the need to appropriately prepare themselves. They believe that certain opportunities would still be set aside for them.

Second, in another situation, both preferred and non-preferred groups slacken their effort to continue to perform with creditable results (Sowell, 2004). This means that while the preferred group’s desire is to work to their fullest capacity would be unnecessary, the non-preferred group would likewise feel that their similar effort could also prove to be unprofitable for them. For instance, Holzbery (1987) revealed that similar situation happened in Jamaica after it gained its independence from Great Britain. Many whites living there no longer bothered to compete for public offices because they felt that the day of the indigenous Jamaicans had come. They therefore questioned why they had to make the effort if the coveted job or the national honour would go to the Jamaicans, despite their lower qualifications. Such situation is appropriately summed up by Sowell (2004) as a “negative-sum game”, rather than a “zero-sum game.” It simply means that whilst the extra effort of the non-preferred group may no longer secure them other better life opportunities, the
preferred group would definitely see such opportunity as securing them better options irrespective of the varying levels of efforts they devote towards their respective assigned tasks.

Third, the negative effects, as cited above, have not only been the undesirable outcome of preferential policies as affirmative action, but it goes beyond that. For instance, in some countries, complete withdrawal from the country by those in non-preferred groups has occurred in the wake of preferential policies which has reduced their prospects for their promising advancement. These include the exodus of the Chinese from Malaysia, Indians from Fiji, Russians from Central Asia, Jews from much of pre-war Europe and Huguenots from 17th century France (Sowell, 2004). To sum-up this view, preferential policies do not represent a transfer of benefits from one group to another. However, it represents a net loss, as both groups would have actually responded by contributing less than they could to their society as a whole.

Fourth, as pointed out by many scholars, the cooperation and collaboration of individual colleagues can be of immense importance in a variety of occupations. At the same time, it can very well be compromised by group preferences. For instance, Moore Jnr. and Wagstaff (1974) state that minority professors in American Universities have complained that being thought of as affirmative action professors by their colleagues, has led to less intellectual and research interaction which therefore reduces the minority faculty’s development as scholars. This widely accepted view in America is indeed a negative contributing factor in attempting to achieve one’s potential in life.

The Negative Outcome of Inter-group Relations

Reflecting on preferential policies thus far, it seems to suggest that losses have been created both to the economy as well as social loss owing to intergroup resentments. If not handled appropriately it could even be more disastrous. These resentments, further suggest that it may be not simply due to the transfer of the preferential benefits, but the basis of these transfers ought to be considered as well. The following instances should further assist in clearly identifying these losses.

The negative intergroup relations in the United States of America have been owing to the false belief that white males have lost their various benefits to African Americans and other minorities. This was observed, as an emotional reaction by people irked at losing a few of
their many advantages. If this resentment was really due to intergroup transfers of benefits, it would have been far greater against Asian Americans, who had displaced more whites in prestigious universities and in many high-level professionals, especially in science and technology (Sowell, 2004). However, there was seldom any black-lash against Asian Americans. What had also probably simmer down this resentment was the clear outstanding academic and other achievements of Asian Americans which were widely recognized and respected in the United States of America. It, therefore, showed that resentment was more on the basis of those transfers.

Furthermore, is the notion of preferential treatment among Americans that some amongst them were more equal than others. This concern was not tolerated any longer. It was this negative feeling amongst the general population that leaders of the civil rights movement of the 1960s were able to mobilize behind their effort to destroy the ‘Jim Crow laws’ of the South. This had consequently prompted majority of the members in both houses of Congress (Democrat and Republican) to vote for the landmark legislation of the 1964 Civil Rights Act and The Voting Rights Act of 1965. Sowell (2004: 17) further pointed out that it was through this same American resentment of special privilege which had responded so strongly to the historic words of the late Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr, at the Lincoln Memorial in 1963:

My dream of this country is where people would be judged, not by the colour of their skin, but by the content of their character.

So, the preferential treatment in the United States of America was favoured towards the concept of equity and began to move away from the concept of equal treatment for all individuals.

In addition, Dushkin (1979: 666), who was an observer of preferential policies in India, noted the disproportionate allocation of places reserved for the scheduled caste and for the Harijan. He made the following remarks:

…we hear innumerable tales of persons being deprived of appointment in favour of people who ranked lower than they did in the relevant examinations. No doubt this does happen, but if all these people were, in fact, paying the price for appointments to Schedule Castes, there would be many more SC persons appointed than there actually are.
In another situation, Bajpai (1997) revealed that in India, where preferential policies have been in practice for much longer period than in the United States of America, they have likewise had more bitter consequences. Vakil (1981) reaffirmed that it was part of a national trend of rising violence against the Harijan than against preferential policies in general.

**Other Global Trends**

When reviews are initiated for the past and future trend of a government policy, one is actually focusing on the past performance of government basing on the records that have been set. This also applies to what is likely to be the future roadmap of such a government policy. When this is related to the past and the likely future trends of affirmative action, relevant stakeholders are actually studying its history and likely future direction. The outcome would suggest they all need to learn from past mistakes and unwarranted performances in order to safely protect them from ever repeating such weaknesses in future. Fortunately, as Fiji has just started its affirmative action programme legally under its 2001 Social Justice Act, it would indeed be in a better focused position as it should be appropriately guided by the past experience of those countries. However, this policy was there in the past but under no legal legislation through the Parliament. This study will also attempt to explore this in Fiji’s case.

The following would indicate other trends that are being pursued globally by different societies concerning such preferential policy.

Sowell (2004) reaffirmed that in many countries, such preferential policies had turned out to be the ways of producing relatively minor benefits for only a few, who were actually committed to benefit from them. This had instead created major problems for the society as a whole. The major challenge had been created by both advocates and critics of such policies when they had tended to over-estimate the benefits that had been transferred from such policies. For instance, permitting black millionaires in the United States to have preferential access to the purchase of radio station license did not reduce inequality amongst Americans, nor did it benefit those that reside in ghettos who were mainly African Americans. As affirmative action had thus far done little for the poor in America and elsewhere, the poverty rate amongst “blacks” had actually been reduced in half before there had ever been any affirmative action. This had changed very little since then. The study will also explore this as well in Fiji’s case.
Furthermore, the experience so far had shown that whatever the peculiarities of particular countries, the general patterns which had emerged in one country after another had strongly suggested that similar incentives and constrains had tendered to produce similar consequences amongst people and countries in widely disparate circumstances. Sowell (2004) further noted that the fact of the matter had been that as many of those consequences had not been anticipated by those who had promoted group preferences, it had created a painful contrast with confidence and sweeping assertions with which such policies had often begun. In fact, those who had thought that they had been directing the course of events had often discovered that they had been simply opening the ‘flood gates’. The spread of preferences from group to group and from activity to activity was just one symptom of the “flood gates” being opened.

The same pattern could also be found in other countries. For instance, as Weiner and Kalzenstein (1981) noted, that when affirmative action had been instituted in Bombay to increase the number of Maharashtrians among business executives, the biggest losses of those executive positions had not been amongst the dominant Gujarats, but amongst the less represented South Indians.

In Malaysia, the requirement that businesses took in Malay partners were more easily circumvented by larger Chinese and foreign firms. Gomez (1999: 71) had confirmed this with the following views:

Both Chinese and foreign companies began to actively solicit business ties with politically-influential Malay willing to lend their names for a price without taking on executive roles after becoming owners and directors of the companies. … small, predominantly manufacturing enterprises, which were not privy to such avenues to bypass the state were those most affected by the government’s new constraints.

Bringing up another blurring distinction was again made by Ganguly (1997) when he noted that a common complaint in countries around the world was that some groups had less access to credit, making it harder for them to start businesses or to buy homes. In that example, both government programmes and private landing organizations had suffered devastating losses when lending to groups who had been said to have been denied access to credit in the market economy. For instance, in Malaysia, of the 55,000 loans that had been given to Malay businesses in 2000, only 6,000 had been paid back. It showed that the success rate was only 10.9 percent. In the United States of America, the “Wall Street Journal” had reported in 2001
that when the Bank of America had set up a special subsidiary to lend to people in the sub-prime market, which comprised of people with lower credit rating, it had lost hundreds of millions of dollars. It had announced that its offices,

Will stop making sub-prime loans immediately


Sowell (2004) further questions that when people with a track record of not repaying loans as often as others are not granted loans, is that a denial of equal opportunity or a reflection of unequal prospects of repayment?

**Hiding Success of Certain Groups to Favour the AAP**

This study has so far been able to identify certain situations in which the whole groups of people had been hidden behind misleading words with the intention to favour the AAP. This is clearly shown in the “Bowen-Bok” study of affirmative action in higher education in the United States. In that situation, the African American students who had been admitted to American colleges under lower standards have been hidden within a larger group of African American students, which included those who have met the same standards of admission as white American students. Sowell (2004) further argues that although the Bowen-Bok (1998) study has been widely accepted as proving that affirmative action works for those whom it supposedly works, the report has never been allowed to appear alone anywhere with its large volume of statistics that had been presented in that study. In fact, the performance of those African American students admitted under the same standards as white had proved nothing about the benefits of affirmative action.

An equally unsubstantiated assumption but quite related was that disparities in income and wealth had promoted intergroup conflict. As a direct consequence, Sowell also noted that reductions in such disparities were assumed to reduce resentments and the hostility and violence caused by such resentments. Unfortunately, no empirical scrutiny had ever been made at that time to test that widespread belief. Amongst the 16 countries that had been the subjects of Sowell’s study, the evidence he had collected had pointed in the opposite direction. For instance, in Malaysia, Nigeria and Sri Lanka, there had been far less inter group violence in the first half of the twentieth century, when inter group disparities had been
greater, but far more violence had erupted after those disparities had been politicised and group identity politics had been promoted.

Likewise in the United States, Sowell confirmed that the worst ghetto riots had occurred during the administration of President Lyndon Johnson. Such riots were believed to be in response to President Johnson’s sympathetic attitude towards the grievances of African Americans. However, the riots had declined abruptly with the election of Richard Nixon as president. Therefore, major ghetto riots had become virtually unknown during the eight years of the Regan administration, when group identity politics had been ignored. Similar pattern had also been found in other countries, where disparities had been practised. The politicization of those disparities had proved to be the real source of inter group hostility and continuing violence.

Similar situation had also arisen in other countries which were not the subject of Sowell study. For instance, the Volga Germans in Russia who had co-existed peacefully for more than a century with their Russian neighbours, despite the greater productivity and prosperity of those Germans. However, that prosperous minority became targeted as exploiters after the Bolshevik revolution and had suffered spoliation and violence. Sowell (2004) further confirmed that Indians, Pakistanis and Lebanese likewise had lived peacefully for years among Africans whose economic level did not approach their own, until political demagogues had made Asians targets of envy, resentments, discrimination and violence. That situation had been the same with the Indians in Fiji, Jews in Germany, Armenians in Turkey and groups in other countries. Therefore, continuing politicization of such disparities would continue to create negative image of any outcome of the AAP.

Kennedy (1986: 87) had made a study of group preferences and quotas in Pakistan and his findings are as follows:

Paradoxically, Pakistan’s redistribution policies had been effective in increasing ethno-regional proportionality, but have done little to restrict, or in some cases have served to enhance, the level of ethno-regional conflict in the state.

Such conflict had escalated to the point of civil war when East Pakistan had withdrawn from the federation of Pakistan to form a new nation of Bangladesh.

Those who had imagined themselves to be promoting inter-group harmony by attempting to reduce economic disparities between groups had seldom considered whether their politicising
of those differences might have had the opposite effect. Sowell also noted that what actually happened seemed to carry far less weight than what prevailing theories had said would happen. Nor was that just a matter of political spin. In fact, it had been an earnest American scholar who has researched affirmative action programmes in India and not a pessimistic Indian politician. The following had reflected the American scholar’s views:

The compensatory discrimination policy is not to be judged only for its instrumental qualities. It is also expressive; through it Indians tell themselves what kind of people they are and what kind of nation. These policies express a sense of connection and shared destiny.

Galanter (1984: 562)

Galanter (1984) further noted that the altruistic fraternal impulse that animates compensatory policies had been given much credit despite the age-old warning that the road to hell is paved with good intentions. For instance, as also mentioned earlier in this chapter, Indian’s most intolerant and violent mass movement, the ‘Shiv Sena’ had begun as an organisation with the intention of seeking preferences and quotas for the Maharashtrians in Bombay. Sowell said that the granting of those quotas only boosted ‘Shiv Sena’ standing and political power. Moreover, its success in exploiting group identity had led it to defend its constituency against an ever growing list of enemies, the Tamils, Moslems, Christians, foreigners and among others, both politically and violently in the streets. Therefore, just as preferences and quotas had tended to spread over time to new groups and new activities, so success at group identity politics had also tended to expand the list of grievances and enemies which had also been necessary to keep the movement viable and its leaders more powerful.

In fact, what such movements needed for its own survival was not a set of concessions that had been won in the past, although those might be celebrated, but an inventory of demands that were still outstanding, grievances that were still unassigned and enemies that were still to be dealt with. Sowell (1995) further stated that the situation was as true of American protest movements as of group-identity movements in India, even though things had not reached the same stage of violent hostility in the United States of America.

As discussed earlier, the earlier demands of African Americans civil rights movements had centred on equal opportunity in a plain and straightforward sense for the same treatment just like everyone else. Sowell further confirmed that the new demand for preferential treatment only arose after ascertaining that the goal has clearly been within reach. Sometime later, after
African American protest movements had begun demanding and receiving preferential treatment, that demands for reparations for the slavery of centuries past had then become a major campaign issue. The initial enemies of the African American protest movements, who were the segregationist whites in the Southern states, had expanded over the years to include Korean and Vietnamese shopkeepers in the ghettos. Their deaths in the riots had been virtually ignored by many media outlets as they could be accused of being racist in their reporting (Sowell 2004).

Finally, in the United States of America, the thought that affirmative action could promote good relations among groups had remained central to the defense of the policy and had been implicit in the endlessly repeated work of diversity. According to Thernstrom and Thernstrom (1997) the Bowen-Bok (1998) study on the effects of affirmative action in colleges and universities had credited that programme with the following fact. About 56 percent of white students in the institutions had reported that they knew two or more African American classmates well, despite the fact that 86 percent of whites in American society had reported having African American friends. That clearly showed that diversity had actually added nothing at all. Sowell (1993) further noted that the opposite had actually been reported in which a number of elite American colleges and universities had had reports of growing racial hostility amongst their students during the affirmative action era.

The Lack of Empirical Evidence that Conceals the Real Outcome of the AAP

The major issues in the lack of in-depth understanding of the controversies over affirmative action policies in various countries had reflected in part on the shortage of empirical evidence with which to test policies and beliefs about their consequences. For instance, Sowell noted that after so many years of affirmative action policies in favour of New Zealand’s Maori minority, “The Dominion”, a Wellington newspaper had only reported supporting views of McLoughlin (2003: 13) under the subject, “Lessons We Could All Learn”.

Extraordinarily, there appears to be little or no research into whether teaching kids the standard curriculum, but in Maori, it has improved their educational outcomes and nobody knows because nobody seems to be asking. The truth is that, such disinterest in empirical consequences is not only confined to New Zealand. This study hopes that its outcome should provide some empirical evidence on the implementation of affirmative action policy in education of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.
In the United States of America, Sowell further confirmed that where many group preferences had sought to justify themselves as re-emphasizing the prevailing discrimination, such discrimination had often turned out to be statistical under-representation in desirable occupations and institutions. The suggested assumption which had been unshakeably held was that great statistical disparities in demographic representation could not have occurred without discrimination and that the key assumption was seldom tested against data on group disparities’ qualifications. For instance, as reported earlier, by the year 2001 there had been more than 16,000 Asian American students who had scored above 700 on the Mathematics SAT, while fewer than 700 African American students had scored that high, even though they had outnumbered Asian Americans several times. The above data from the US Data of the College Board had reported that they were simply passed over in utter silence or were ignored by students’ assertions of covert discrimination.

From our life experience, we have come to understand that false beliefs are not just small things because they easily lead to false solutions (Sowell, 2004). For instance, in the field of medicine, it has long been recognised that even a false cure that is wholly harmless in itself can be catastrophic in its consequences if it substitutes for a real cure for a deadly disease. Therefore, proponents of affirmative action cannot console themselves for their false assumptions on the ground that their intentions were good, because social quackery can likewise substitute for real society report. Ogbu (2003) further notes that despite an orientation of asking what we can do for them, those who want to see African Americans advance in fields requiring a Mathematics background need to confront African American students with a need to master this subject, even if that means giving up other diversions and giving up attitudes that doing academic work is “acting white.” The whole process will win few friends and few votes, but the question is whether one is serious about results for others or simply wants to feel good about oneself.

This study has thus far established that the strongest moral case for affirmative action policies is in a country like India, where individuals are born, live and die in the same caste (Sowell 2004). Unfortunately, India’s case is considered remarkably weak if affirmative action is judged by its actual outcome, rather than by its ideals, rationale or hopes. As in other countries around the world that practice affirmative action, such preferential policies are usually not judged by their empirical consequences but either by most intellectuals or by most of other interested individuals like politicians.
Another important issue in the empirical evidence of affirmative action policies was that neither in India nor anywhere else was affirmative action policies were simply a matter of redistributing benefits. In fact, such programme had also generated major social costs which had fallen on the population as a whole. Sowell (2004) also reaffirmed that losses of efficiency were amongst those costs. It meant that the less qualified persons were chosen over the more qualified ones. In such instance, many highly qualified members of non-preferred groups had emigrated from a society where they have been denied their opportunities for advancement or even their lives had been threatened.

As also mentioned earlier, the history of Sri Lanka was even more unpleasant to those who were concerned about what had actually happened in the wake of the affirmative action policies, as distinguished from what had been expected or hoped would have happened. Sowell (1995) further noted that Sri Lanka’s well-deserved reputation as a country with exemplary relations between its majority and minority populations in the middle of the twentieth century, had become a bitter mockery in the course of a decade – long civil war, marked by hideous atrocities. That bitter relationship had resulted in a larger number of Sri Lankans, who have died in its internal strife to have exceeded the number of Americans that had been killed during the long years of the Vietnam War. That number is bound to increase still as there seems to be no solution to the Sri Lankan internal conflict.

Precedents had also been identified as a concerning issue in the empirical evidence of affirmative action policies. For instance, in college administration, there had been preferences for athletes and alumni children. At the same time, such merit criteria had not been universal in other institutions. If precedents were to be favoured, there should be no objection to racial or ethnic preferences or preferences for women. As a strategy argument, Sowell (1995) further noted that the issue would place the burden of proof on critics of affirmative action, as if the demonstrable social costs of that programme needed no justification. Any justification or criticism of affirmative action must be based on its actual consequences.

With a lot of incidence that had been highlighted in this study on tertiary studies admission, there had been some empirical evidence on the consequences of preferential admission of individuals from privilege groups. For instance, Kittgaard (1986) confirmed that when the president of the University of the Philippines had discretionary power to admit particular students without due regard to the usual academic admission criteria, the results is as follows:
the great majority that had been admitted in that manner had been the off-springs of the rich and the powerful, and

those admitted by presidential discretion had performed worse than the rest of the students.

Karen (1985) further notes that at Harvard University, during the era when more than half of all alumni sons had been admitted, many of those special admitters had actually failed their studies but these were not properly reported. Those unsuccessful students had therefore been totally pushed out of one of the most prestigious Universities of the United States of America.

**Misleading Tactics such as Dishonesty and Deception**

One of the bitter lessons learnt as the consequences of affirmative action that had been identified thus far had been the widespread dishonesty that had taken so many forms (Sowell 2004). Even though they might still be unquantifiable at this stage, they had been viewed with great concern as their consequences had been proved to be very expensive indeed. The following are some of the bitter examples. One is the redesignation of individuals and groups in order to receive the benefits of preferences and quotas intended for others. This had been quite common in various countries including Fiji. Another example had been identified in the United States of America where a special dishonesty had been necessary to square group preferences and quotas with the requirements of the American constitution for equal rights among various individuals. That incident had involved both the concealment of the existence of preferential treatment and the claims that such a treatment was only a remedial response to existing discrimination. This had been proved to be very insulting indeed. Furthermore, it justified the situation whereby as the general notion says “There was always that difference in the world between saying that you have not had an even chance in life and also by saying that a particular individual or institution with whom you had dealt with had discriminated against you” (Sowell 2004: 191)

Similar situations of widespread dishonesty in both India and the United States of America stated Sowell (2004) was the use of hazy, unverifiable criteria to conceal group preferences in college and university admissions. This was carried out automatically by offsetting the better academic records of members of one group with higher leadership and other subjective rankings of members of other groups who would be inadmissible on academic grounds. For both these countries, court decisions had been sought to restrict the scope or terms of group
preferences in admission to colleges and universities. These had been followed by efforts to put a greater emphasis on non-academic criteria in admission.

In the United States, vague factors like leadership and overcoming adversity had likewise served as automatic offsets against the validity or lack of it. It was however not the subject to proof or disproof. Sowell (2004) further notes that State bans on affirmative action in California and Texas public universities had set off a wave of creative proposals for non-objective criteria for admission. This was the same that had happened in India decades before, where the state government of Mysore had suddenly exhibited an enhanced concern for the ex-curricular accomplishments of applicants to professional colleges. Galanter (1984) also observed that nothing was easier than to come up with the rationale for non-objective criteria.

Even academics had been finger pointed at in certain situation. Sowell had confirmed this when he said that such common dishonesties in the academic world was the faculty rejection of affirmative action in anonymous polls. However, there was support of it when voting publicly in faculty meetings as well as commenting publicly in the media. For instance, a 1996 Roper poll had found that a majority of professors nationwide had been opposed to affirmative action in faculty hiring as well as affirmative action in student admission. However, it was virtually impossible to find a faculty vote against these policies in American colleges and universities.

Another misleading tactics had been cited in history which showed that misrepresentation was a way of strengthening the case for particular policies. As already noted such misrepresentations had included the history of the rise of African Americans as well as that of the women in the United States of America. Windschuttle (2001) further noted that the history of the Aboriginal population in Australia had also been misrepresented in the quest for more current government benefits. As had been proved thus far in this study, deception had been an integral part of the case for affirmative action in country after country around the world. One of the most common forms of deception had been the use of rationale which had borne little or no relationship to what had actually been done. The San Francisco Chronicle (1995) publicly observed that no sufferings by Americans, past or present, could justify admitting white students to an elite San Francisco public high school over better qualified Chinese American students who had also applied. However, once the policy of racial quotas had been authorised, there were nothing else that could stop such things which had been
clearly at odds with the rationale of those quotas. The next discussion of this section of the study is centred on the suggested approaches to affirmative action.

SUGGESTED APPROACH TO AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

As the concern for the less fortunate in society is central to affirmative action among politicians, they are at times tempted to continue securing assistance, even to the extent of doing what should not be done according to standard procedures and regulations. This is rather unfortunate because some individuals believe that those less fortunate would not be blessed from such preferential benefits if they have been secured through devious means. At the same time, there are considerable number of things which can still be done within the limitations of those procedures and regulations. For instance, Sowell (2004) states that the American history has demonstrated that what can still be done are done within the law because it has already been done. Therefore, by following the right procedures through standard regulations, it would be a better alternative for the overall concern for those less fortunate in our societies.

To further clarify issues surrounding the alternatives to affirmative action, the following have been identified and briefly discussed.

For instance, in the United States, the Americans had experienced at the beginning of the 20th century what enormous social and economic progress had been made by some of the poorest and apparently the least promising segments of the population without affirmative action. Sowell (2004) further confirmed that only about half of the African American population of the United States were able to read and write. Moreover, the Jews had lived packed into slums on the lower east side of New York City, with more overcrowding than in any slums in America today. According to Brigham (1923), the results of mass mental testing during the First World War of American soldiers had lead a leading authority on mental tests to conclude that it had been a myth that the Jews were highly intelligent. In addition, the situation of Chinese Americans during those early years had looked so hopeless that had created a popular expression of that time when describing someone facing impossible odds as having “not a Chinaman’s chance”.

Keen observers of the evolutions of life of those three different ethnic group had said, as mentioned earlier, that not even the optimists would have been able to predict at that time how much all those groups would have risen over the next half century, before there had been
preferences and quotas. This was specifically applied to the African Americans, who were always at the centre of current controversies about affirmative action (Sowell, 2004). Moreover, this was reflected in the decline in their poverty and their rise in the professions that had both been more dramatic before the federal government had introduced affirmative action in the 1970s.

This social process which had established proven record had not been appreciated much and even sometimes had easily been dismissed as a policy of doing nothing (Sowell, 2004). Clearly, the question is why? From discussions in the earlier part of this Chapter, it seemed obvious that whatever the economic and social benefits that had emanated from this social process, it normally presented fewer rewards to politicians, activists, and even intellectuals or those who seemed to be morally superior by denouncing society. The real heroes of those groups’ rise had been anonymous individuals and not public figures. Therefore, this later groups were more genuine in their efforts to assist those marginalized in our midst.

This study supports the view that the better alternative to achieving the overall objective of affirmative action is to always maintain the goal for the proper advancement of the less fortunate in our society. This would be a better option, rather than unnecessarily increasing the power, status or wealth of those who would be guardians or spokesmen or their elected officials. This therefore calls for the important need for policy initiators and policy implementers to be more vigilant and transparent in their day to day activities and always be more genuine, more inclusive, honest and more professional in their dealing with the policy users, the target group of affirmative action.

CONCLUSION

The chapter has been framed to show the overall perspective of affirmative action as viewed at the global level. It has further provided in-depth knowledge to the research in the overall perspectives of the policy. For instance, the international literature has revealed that a major challenging aspect of affirmative action is the focus of opposers and supporters which is not based on what is actually going to happen as the overall outcome of this preferential programme. They are basically either for or against the theory of affirmative action itself. To a certain extent this view seems to suggest that there would be multiple assumptions, beliefs and rationale that would be dominating controversies surrounding this issue in countries worldwide.
Moreover, under the global perspectives, detail discussion has been focused on four specific theories and practical expressions on Sowell’s (2004) extensive research study. Therefore, some notable features that are also quite common in those countries pertaining to affirmative action are further discussed below.

- There had been far less intergroup violence before affirmative action whilst intergroup disparities had been far greater. However there were far more violence that had erupted after those disparities had been politicized and group identity politics had been promoted.
- It had been firmly established that intergroup disparities had not been the cause of violence. It has been the politicization of those intergroup disparities that had been the real source of intergroup hostility and continuing violence.
- Political leaders would achieve a great deal more if they just simply ignore or actually frowned upon the existence of group identity politics.

Furthermore, the following issues are being suggested to be considered very carefully by every stakeholder of this preferential policy as stated in an earlier portion of the Chapter.

- How can an economic inequity that is encompassing virtually the entire globe and virtually the entire history of the human race be solved by a temporary programme such as the AAP or the EFA? Can they be further entrusted to eliminate it in this day and age?
- This is perceived as a glaring contradiction and indeed mind boggling if people were to expect any formidable solution from such lukewarm response.

The approach adopted in this study includes the viewing of this preferential policy for the marginalized from how it had been practiced in the 16 countries that was the subject of Sowell (2004) studies for the last 30 years. In fact, Sowell’s study was not only limited to those countries as he had made prescriptive views of certain countries such as Turkey and some other European countries.

This study has, therefore, been further informed of quite a number of issues that are experienced globally and are also adopted in Fiji. These include the generally accepted perspectives of affirmative action. It has been suggested that there is a need to integrate
affirmative action into the national development framework of the country to avoid duplication and contradiction, ensure its monitoring and guard against abuse.

Under the limited and temporary preferences of affirmative action, common incidents of inserting the lowering of entrance marks for university admissions had been practiced in some countries as discussed earlier.

For the preferred and non-preferred groups in affirmative action, the emphasis has been placed on the difficulty of determining their scope and duration. It is also difficult to assume their futures as well as identifying who they are, owing to their strong political support within their respective countries.

Other relevant issues that this study has been further informed include the global perspectives of affirmative action, its strengths and limitations, the perceived global trend and other suggested approaches to affirmative action.

The above global perspectives have been quite informative and therefore broaden the scope for more research focus for future studies of the affirmative action initiative. It is also hoped that certain issues concerning some of the above global experiences would be further clarified when the outcome of the findings of this research study are finalized.

Additionally, further knowledge gained from the global perspectives has demonstrated the need to clearly articulate the following aspects of the affirmative action policy wherever it is instituted. These include its:

- characteristics
- initiation
- implementation and its
- institutionalization

These should assist and further broaden the major emphasis of this study which forms its conceptual framework.

The next chapter examines the related theoretical and conceptual perspectives of the study.
CHAPTER THREE

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION POLICY IN EDUCATION: THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL PERSPECTIVES OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

This study sets out to examine the effectiveness of the management of the AAP in education for indigenous Fijians and Rotumans. It is informed by two major theories in education, namely, policy analysis and change management including leadership. The conceptual framework of the study retains the three phases of the change process – initiation, implementation and institutionalization. These are arranged in the systems theory. It is emphasized that systems theory is the logical way of analyzing any planned educational change.

This chapter examines these two bodies of literature. It begins with the discussion of policy and policy analysis. Secondly, it reviews the literature on change management. The chapter concludes with the conceptual framework of the study drawn from these theories and the fieldwork findings.

THEORETICAL UNDERPINNING OF THE STUDY

Policy and Policy Analysis

What is Policy?

Many writers agree there is no simple definition of the term ‘policy’. Torjman (2005) confirms this is the main reason why so many people claim to have little or no understanding of policy. In fact, many would say that they are not involved with policy while others maintain that it has only minor relevance to their work and lives. Torjman goes on to add that people literally eat, drink and breathe policy. According to him, “public policy actually affects us both profoundly and pervasively and it influences virtually every aspect of our lives” (Torjman 2005: 8).
Similarly, Harman (1984: 18) says that:

...when it is simply put, policy is the outgrowth of governmental actions. It is its courses of purposive action ...directed towards the accomplishment of some intended or desired set of goals.

Ball (1994: 10 – 11) defined a policy as:

...text and action, words and deeds; it is what is enacted as well as what is intended. Policies are crude and simple. Practice is sophisticated, contingent, complex and unstable. Policy as practice is “created” in a trialectic of dominance, resistance and chaos / freedom. Therefore, policy is not simple asymmetry of power. Control or dominance can never be totally secured, in part because of agency. It will be open to erosion and undercutting by action, an embodied agency of those people who are its objects.

Dye (1998: 11) defined policy as what governments choose to do or not to do, which would indicate what Governments do not do is of equal importance in making policy.

Cooper et al., (2004: 3) in a comprehensive definition note that:

Policy is a political process where needs, goals and intentions are translated into a set of objectives, laws, policies and programme, which in turn affect resource allocations, actions and outputs, which are the basis for evaluations, reform and new policies.

From another perspective, Duemer and Mendez-Morse (2002:1) view the framing and implementation of policy as:

Once individual or policy making body sets a policy, there is no guarantee that it will be implemented in the same way it was originally intended. The difference between institutions and individuals is central to understanding how policy can change from development to implementation.

The above authors have therefore, discussed the connection of policy to the implementation of a specific policy based on the role of the individual. In referring to the formal school system, the school principal’s role in policy is quite prominent at the following levels: the school, the district, the provincial and to some extent the national level.

Additionally, a principal’s role is further related to policy in the following areas: orientation, degree, resources, activity, autonomy, societal values, institutional values, rationales and power relationship. Duemer and Mendez-Morse (2002) further add that the principal’s
connection to the above nine areas in developing and adopting policy has not been clearly observed in the past. The principal would, therefore, need to clearly identify a theoretical framework to assist him in analyzing and understanding a policy.

Cooper et al., (2004) have suggested that the principal could identify and choose the best option from the following seven theories to assist in his undertaking the needed examination of a policy.

**Systems Theory**

Cooper et al., (2004: 9) have confirmed that the analysis of policy through systems theory provides a holistic look at the policy itself. It allows principals, to analyze the “policy ‘inputs’ including demands, needs and resources, the ‘throughputs’ that involved key actions who implement policy and policy ‘outputs’ such as education, civic-minded students or improved economic productivity.”

Moreover, principals can use systems theory, as shown in Figure 3.1 to analyze policy and its impact on student achievement in relation to the entire school and its community. They can further analyze that relationship with respect to the whole school, district and state rules and regulations (Cooper et al., 2004)

**Neopluralist Advocacy Coalition and Interest Group Theories**

The above theories according to Cooper et al., (2004: 9) are:
…grounded in a political science perspective that seeks to answer “who gets what, when and how” as key coalitions struggle to obtain from Government the resources and support they believe necessary. These key actors (legislators, governors, mayors, superintendents, school boards, etc) work out their interest group concerns in a variety of arenas, depending on the level in the federalist system (federal, state, county, city, school district and individual schools). Bringing interest groups and their arenas together provides a useful means of understanding how laws are passed, shaped, implemented and evaluated.

Harman (2001) says that interest groups are organizations or groups that seek to influence the development and application of policy. Harman further points out that under the analysis of policy, the principal must pay careful attention to advocacy groups and become more understanding to how various coalitions are playing the political game to achieve their policy objectives.

**Neoinstitutional Theory**

Cooper et al., (2004: 9) further clarify that “neoinstitutional theory indicates that the structure of societal and political organizations exerts independent effects on policy”. In this sense, Perrow (2002) also notes that the theory emphasizes routines, imitation, unreflective responses, custom and normative practices and convergence of organizational forms. It, in fact, de-emphasises power and conflict. Neoinstitutional theory also helps principals to understand why hegemonic practices may exist within the school or district.

**Critical Theory**

Cooper et al., (2004: 9) say that critical theory:

…questions the existing economic, political and social purposes of schooling and examines policy through the lens of oppressed groups, with a normative orientation towards freeing disenfranchised groups from conditions of domination and subjugation.

Cooper and others further confirm that the theory is concerned with equity and social justice analysis of policy. It tries to discover the “hidden uses of power through which policy is transformed into practice” (Cooper et al., 2004: 9).

**Feminist Theory**

From another perspective, Cooper et al. (2004: 9) view feminist theory as:

…concerned primarily with the often unequal effects of education policies on issues relating to gender and sexual difference including how education
policies are translated through institutional processes that serve to reinforce or encourage gender inequity.

In such situation, the principal seeks to analyze policies and outgrowths of practice from the policies in relation to gender inequities. Such analyses may include an examination of such issues as:

- salaries for male and female teachers, administrators and coaches;
- job opportunities for both genders; and
- sports equity for boys and girls with regard to facilities, spending and opportunities.

**Postmodernism**

Postmodernism “argues that policy is contextually defined by those in authority and has little validity when separated from its setting” (Cooper et al., 2004: 9). The theory suggests that the scientific posturing in policy analysis only serves to perpetuate the highly racist, sexist and class nature of most policies. Moreover, it implies that schools do not progress due to the policies in place that support the privileged to maintain the status quo. This, in fact, translates to keep the upper class, white, male leadership in power at the expense of the poor, women, people of colour and recent immigrants.

Scheurick (1994: 300) has provided direction for principals by urging them to ask questions that can be asked and further encourage them to investigate issues emerging from answers to such questions. For instance,

- By what process did a particular problem emerge, or better, how did a particular problem come to be seen as a problem?
- What makes the emergence of a particular problem possible?

Scheurick also had drawn principals to prior conditions of the policy and the politics of the policy.

**Ideological Theories of Policymaking**

Ideological Theories, according to Cooper et al., (2004: 10):

...place policy into a partisan, politically value-laden structure, hoping to gain insight into the econo-political context surrounding key policies.
The theory seeks to determine if a policy is associated with the liberal left or the conservative right. Hardaway (1995: 149) maintains that political parties and federal judges have used ideological theories (rather than upon legitimate considerations of the quality of education) to justify racial assignments and the deprivation of true equal opportunity for all students, including the gifted students who have such great potential to enrich American life.

For this kind of analysis, Cooper et al., (2004) confirm that the principal need only to look at the political party platforms and those in power for the national trend in policy. For instance, Lyndon Johnson promoted liberal policies including compensatory education, equity, help for the disadvantaged and at-risk students. Regan promoted the legislating of choice, markets, higher standards and vouchers. In the local context, the principal should become familiar with the superintendent’s and the school board members’ agendas to anticipate potential policy changes and their impact on the institution.

In further analyzing all the above theories, systems theory stands out as the most appropriate in analyzing policies. This study is sufficiently convinced and confident that systems theory should be employed to firmly ground a sound analysis and examination of the affirmative action policy in education of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

EDUCATION POLICY GAPS AND CHALLENGES

So far in this study, numerous policy gaps have been discussed to some extent. For the purpose of this sub-heading, attempts shall be made to present their brief versions.

The first of these gaps effectively relates to the readiness of the policy actors, especially those who are affected by the policy itself. According to the European CERI Report of the OECD (1973), if schools are viewed merely as passive elements in a national innovation (such as the affirmative action policy in education for the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans in this case) then the effectiveness of such policy will be doubtful. The report further says that the imposition of innovation from within often creates constrains and confusion inside and would bring the school to respond in a way that it is inimical or hostile to the institutionalization of the proposed change. Therefore, the formal adoption of new practices at some higher administrative level does not necessarily imply their actual acceptance and use in schools. This is not to say, however, that there is no potential problem-solving capacity among the professional staff in schools or Pacific Island nations. If these were taken into account when
schemes for improvement were being planned (both by bringing such staff into consultation and allowing them some discretion as to the means of implementation in their own schools), there would be a greater likelihood of innovation successfully permeating the whole system. Sharma (2008) further notes that this is consistent with the change literature when he stresses that readiness is used here to discuss a school’s or the education system’s practical and conceptual capacity to adopt the policy. It takes into consideration both individual and organizational factors.

The second perceived policy gap is concerned with the relevance of the policy to its users. Relevance, says Sharma (2007; 2008), refers to what the policy really has to offer to its users. For instance, a great number of TVET graduates remain unemployed and tend to experience considerable difficulty in obtaining employment. For the affirmative action programme, the schools were supplied with books through the choices of school managers rather than referring to the teachers, who could have made a more meaningful choice for such essential school resources. The books were neatly stacked on the school library book shelves without being used by students and teachers.

The third policy gap is found to be operating against the successful management of policy programmes and projects that concerns resources. For instance, Sharma (2000) found in his study that TVET was more expensive than academic education because costs were higher in equipping vocational classrooms and for training technical teachers. These impediments of the lack of resources, under-qualified teachers and the poor management of TVET innovations had contributed significantly to their failure or partial acceptance. For the affirmative action programme, continuing maintenance of computer hardware and software as well as schools high powered generators to continuously meet the needed electricity outputs was an identified handicap towards meeting Fijian and Rotuman education initiatives. The affected areas were those in rural, remote and very remote islands that generally accommodate Fijian and Rotuman schools.

The fourth policy gap is in relation to the lack of reliable databases on local, regional as well as global policy programmes and projects. In most instances, there are insufficient qualitative data on the management and implementation of programmes and projects. Relevant technological facilities are beginning to be readily available, even in some of the remote schools but qualified personnel to effectively operate them remains a sore thumb for obvious reasons. The local qualified people, who are still very few in numbers, need to be
appropriately remunerated. This would temporarily replace overseas experts who find it a real challenge to continue serving in those rural institutions for more than two successive years.

Finally, there is still a lack of policy analysis by those that could be entrusted with this responsibility or due to the unavailability of more reliable research based data. For the essential importance of this special skill and knowledge, Sharma agrees with Patton (online) who says that policy analysis is the:

…processes through which we identify and evaluate alternative policies or programmes that are intended to lessen or resolve social, economic or physical problems.

For Fiji’s more holistic advancement, there is a need to secure better funding sources from internationally recognized multinational technological giants such as Digicel. Such reliable sponsorship would definitely provide better and more permanent policies to match Fiji’s permanent economic and educational challenges facing all members of the relevant stakeholder community.

This calls for more effective and efficient measures to provide stop-gap for policy gaps in education. According to Torjman (2005), such initiatives should take into account the process of implementing the measure and at the same time assessing its impact. In this situation, it is clear that the proper implementation of policy is crucial to effectiveness, efficiency and consistency.

Ideally, most policies and programmes should assess and correct their courses on an on-going basis. The need for continuing feedback within the policy process, say Torjman and Leviten-Reid (2004) is based on the assumption that evaluation is important not just for accountability purposes. There is also a vital learning component implicit in the implementation process, which leads to improved quality practice when lessons are widely shared and vital information are taken note of. From the above views on policy, this study wishes to briefly focus on the impact of the above.

The Impact of the above Analysis on the Study

The above views have clearly portrayed the importance of the need to always have an in-depth understanding of the policy. These are shown in how the policy is framed to suit its purpose and those that are included to be assisted in the usage of the policy.
The above discussions have also shown that there is a need to understand the policy relationship to its theoretical and conceptual framework of this study through the systems theory and planned educational change. It emphasizes the need to clearly identify a theoretical framework to assist in analyzing and understanding the policy.

In addition, it shows the need to recognize the existence of certain educational policy gaps with their accompanying challenges. This would be a necessity if policy was to be more usefully utilized for the purpose it had been devised for.

MANAGING PLANNED EDUCATIONAL CHANGES

The theoretical and conceptual understanding of this study is also derived from the review of relevant literature in the earlier portion of this chapter, as well as the relevant experience gained from the discussions in Chapter 2 of this study. Moreover, further discussion is also centered on critically reviewing other relevant literature on the management of planned educational change, before developing an analytical framework for this research study. In particular, it discusses the basic concept of planned change and its sequential process of initiation, implementation and institutionalization. This is then followed by the identification and examination of the internal and external factors that facilitate and/or impede the successful management and implementation of a planned educational change. For this study, it is the 2000 Blueprint for the Affirmative Action Policy in education for indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

A Planned Educational Change

Successfully managing a planned educational change is indeed a very important function for any organization, particularly the school. Therefore, its importance at every level of the formal education system would be very crucial to be appropriately maintained by the relevant stakeholders. However, as mentioned earlier, the immediate challenge that has been identified by most writers on the change process is that not all of those that are involved have a clear understanding of what should change as well as how to go about it (Huberman & Miles, 1984; Louise & Miles, 1990; and Fullan, 2001). All these writers agree that whether the change is real, imposed or not, results would typically be in a certain degree of ambivalence, uncertainty, anxiety, frustration, and struggle. Another contributing factor for such negative outcomes would be the overwhelming demand on educators who are already overloaded and over expended with their normal responsibilities (Fullan, 2001). Owing to
such internal and external factors, any change or innovation could be only partially accepted or even abandoned entirely.

The above seems to reflect on the level of understanding of what educational change is for, what it is and how it proceeds (Sharma, 2000). Particularly so on the part of the implementers of change, it would equally challenge them on how well will they be able to convince the recipients of the change process to appropriately play their roles accordingly. This is crucial as there is a need to “create a more coherent picture that the people who are involved in or affected by educational change can use to make sense of what they and others are doing” (Sharma, 2000: 25). The emphasis in such a situation is, therefore, based on the common sense approach.

The problem of meaning, notes Fullan (2001) is indeed central to making sense of such educational change, as they will always attempt to achieve greater meanings and positive outcomes. When this is achieved, it will assist them in their better understating of both the small and the big pictures in the change process. In this instance, the small picture is concerned with the subjective meaning or lack of meaning for individuals at all levels of the education system. For example, if the free supply of sets of reference books and encyclopedia through affirmative action is intended for the use of teachers and students, they should not be firmly locked away in the Principal’s office but, readily available to students and teachers. Furthermore, the neglect of the phenomenology of change, Fullan (2001) says that this is how people actually experience change as distinct from how it might have been intended, which is at the heart of spectacular lack of success of most social reforms. As it is also a necessity in educational change, there is a need to build and understand the big picture in such sociopolitical processes. Therefore, on the one end, there is a need to be appropriately conscious of the values and goals and related consequences with specific educational changes. On the other, there is a need to equally comprehend the dynamics of educational change as a sociopolitical process involving all kinds of individuals, at all levels from the classroom, school, ‘tikina’, yasana’ and national levels which are at work in interactive ways.

In this study, planned educational change is used synonymously with innovation. It refers to a well intended plan which involves a more recognized shift in an existing standard or procedures. This actually distinguishes planned educational change from an unplanned, casual or unintentional change. Becher and Kogan (1992) and Velayuthum (2007), believe that an unplanned change merely effects minor incremental modifications with little or minor
impact on the overall operating pattern of an organization. Through personal experience as well as researches, it further revealed that the terms innovation and unplanned change differ considerably. For instance, Dalin (1978), Fullan (2001) and Aveau (2003) have further stressed that the essential difference between these terms rests on the notion that while an innovation is a deliberate, novel, specific change, that is thought to be more officious on accomplishing the goals of a system, an unplanned change is not. This can only further create confusion with added undesirable and expensive outcomes. Therefore, to be able to eliminate such undesirable and expensive outcomes in any change situation, those concerns should be prepared to open themselves up to shared meaning, shared cognition and interactive professionalism (Huberman and Miles, 1984; Joyce and Showers, 1988; Rosenholtz, 1989; Fullan, 1991; Nabobo-Baba, 2006). Furthermore, shared vision and evolutionary planning says Fullan (1991) and supported by Aveau (2003) and Wright (2007) should also act as powerful constraints and provide further protection against any undesirable or thoughtless change.

Sharma (2000), Aveau (2003), Wright (2007) and Junior (2010) have confirmed that the objective reality of a change refers to specific changes in material, approaches and beliefs that are expected to be achieved. Those three aspects of a change, notes Fullan (2001), are all necessary because together they represent the means to achieve a particular goal or a set of goals. For instance, in education at least, the following three dimensions would take place in a change process (Sharma, 2000: 25):

- The possible use of new or revised materials.
- The possible use of new teaching approaches.
- The possible alteration of beliefs and attitudes.

However, Sharma (2000) confirms that the objective reality has a number of limitations. Firstly, it is often not clear who actually determined the objective meanings of change and what criteria are employed to arrive at them. Secondly, the permanent existence in the multi-dimensional character of change which is that individuals and groups concentrate mainly in a particular dimensions (such as the use of new materials) and ignores the others (such as the possible attention to beliefs and attitudes). Fullan (2001) further notes that several studies show that many innovations necessitate changes in only some aspects of the objective reality.

Similarly, Joyce and Showers (1988), Sharma (2000) and Wright (2007) found that a few staff development programmes actually get beyond short-term superficial manifestations of
the changes they address. Moreover, in the present context of dynamics complexities and turbulent educational environment (Wallace and McMahon 1994), unknowable future (Stacely, 1992) and the simultaneous management of multiple innovations (Wallace 1992), it is difficult to determine the objective reality of a planned educational change especially the teaching approaches and beliefs.

Whatever situation we may find ourselves in a change process, it is always important to determine the objective reality as we may run the possible risk of appraising non-events (Fullan, 2001 and Wright, 2007).

Therefore, the success of the management and implementation of a planned educational change depends largely on how well all those concerned understand what the change is all about and the reasons why they are expected to change their existing practices (Sharma, 2000).

**The Educational Change Process**

As mentioned in Chapter 1, a strong theoretical understanding of the educational change process has recently emerged in the international change literature. However, theory building in the direction of change had begun much earlier (Mortimore and Mortimore, 1995). For instance, Taylor’s work (1911) was recognized as educational management. Particular focus was also made in theories concerning classical management (Fayol, 1916), human relations (Mayo, 1933), organization climate (Halpin, 1957), innovation (Gross et al., 1971) and organizational culture (Handy, 1984). All of the above have been used by those involved in understanding and improving the various aspects of management and change.

The theory that is quite prominent among the above theories is the work of Gross et al., (1971). This is of particular significance to this study since it provides helpful guidance concerning the implementation process of innovation under study and closely relates to innovations in organization. However, all those theories are based mainly on the following distinct features according to Mortimore and Mortimore (1995: 146):

…the clarity or how well the staff understand the innovation; the capacity of the staff to carry it out; the availability of the resources required; the compatibility of the existing organizational arrangements and the commitment of time and efforts given by the staff to the innovation.
Several writers have also drawn on, added to, or reformulated these theories such as (Louis and Miles, 1990; Fullan, 1991; Sharma, 2000). Most researchers in his field agree that the change process is a sequence of interacting phases.

Of all the above writers’ views, Fullan’s (1991; 2001) work which takes this approach to the change process is particularly relevant to the proper and relevant understanding of what is actually happening in the initiation and implementation process of the affirmation action policy in education of indigenous Fijians and Rotumans. The three broad phases that have been identified in the change process are initiation by policy advocates, implementation by policy implementers and institutionalization by policy users. According to Fullan (1991; 2001) ‘initiation’ covers the period from the first intimation of a change to the decision to proceed with implementation. In the ‘implementation phase’, an attempt is usually made to put the change or innovation into practice. The ‘institutionalization phase’ eventuates when the change becomes an integral part of the current practice. However, a decision can be adopted, rejected, modified, postponed or even abandoned. Therefore, the institutionalization phase of the change process may or may not be realized. If that was the accepted situation, then the institutionalization phase, which was concerned mainly with the sustainability or rejection of a change, might or might not exist on its own right. Fullan (2001) further clarifies this stage by saying that the institutionalization phase is mainly the extension of the implementation phase. This usually occurs when a decision to reject, modify, postpone or abandon a change is made.

Essentially, Fullan (1991; 2001) and Sharma (2000) further note that each stage of the change process involves changes in structure, practice and beliefs in various combinations. Therefore, a number of factors and themes actually operate in an interactive fashion in each phase. Through revelations from prominent change literature, it has pointed to the uniqueness of contextual settings and further emphasizes that what is relevant and workable in one situation may not be so in another (Clark et al., 1984; Huberman and Miles 1984; Crossley and Vulliamy 1986; Firestone and Corbett, 1988; Fullan, 1991; Wallace and McMahon 1994; Aveau 2003, and Wright 2007). To understand the change process further in their specific settings, it is necessary to see how the different phases of the process actually function.

The Initiation Phase

As previously highlighted in this section of the study, the initiation phase consists of the process that leads up to a decision to create or adopt and proceed with a change. Sharma
(2000), Aveau (2003) and Wright (2010) stressed that it may take many different forms, ranging from a decision by single authority to a broad-based mandate. This stage normally begins with the genesis of an idea and it may take many years for the idea to develop in an innovation and be implemented. Many such innovations have antecedents in other development or innovation. Take for example, the remedy to the problems of Fijian education that had been raised in Fiji’s Legislative Council on June 30, 1918. Not much had been done until it was again raised by the 1969 Fiji Education Commission report about 60 years later. Some positive responses had then been initiated when Fiji gained its independence in 1970. It was then called positive discrimination, but had been practiced in an ad hoc manner. This policy was further strengthened by the 2000 Interim government when it formalized the affirmative action policy on Fijian and Rotuman education under the Social Justice Act of December, 2001.

Fullan (2001) further strengthens the initiation phase by emphasizing the 3R’s of relevance, readiness and resources as essential elements in the initiation process. Sharma (2000) also maintains as previously mentioned the relevant details concerning the 3Rs. Following the initiation phase of the change, is the discussion on the implementation process of the planned change. Sharma goes on to add the fourth ‘R’, that is, the research based data. He stresses that the presence of reliable data is necessary so that an innovation can be effectively initiated.

The Implementation Phase

As stated earlier, implementation is actually the putting of the initial ideas and proposals into practice. Sharma (2000) maintains that it is concerned largely with the nature and extent of the actual change, as well as the factors and processes that influence how and what changes are to be achieved. Fullan (1991), and Goddard and Leask (1992) and Velayathum (2006) have further emphasized that the implementation phase involves the process of putting into practice an idea, programme, or a set of activities and structures that are new to the people, or the target group of the change process. Therefore, in order to understand the change process and at the same time account for the reasons why innovations fail or succeed, Huberman and Miles (1984) and Fullan (2001) have revealed that much recent literature has argued that more emphasis should be placed on actually conceptualizing and investigating the implementation phase.
The implementation phase is quite complex as it is concerned with transferring ideas and practices from initiators to other participants that include change agents as well as change users. Sharma (2000) and Junior (2010) have further suggested that transition from initiation to implementation should be handled with extreme care so that ideas and practices are supported by a broadening base of concerned groups and individuals.

Other researches and opinions have also confirmed that the scale of change depends considerably on the values, beliefs and expectations held by the participants at various levels of an organization or a system that are involved in the change process (Aveau 2003; Velayathum 2007).

What is also crucially important is the basic notion that the implementation stage has to be efficiently and effectively managed and someone has to fully accept that administrative and leadership roles. The credibility and the integrity of the leader should indeed be the most important consideration in the selection process. Sharma (2000) further states that certain responsibilities have to be delegated in order to empower the change agents and policy users to take the overall ownership of an innovation. This is exceedingly important for successful implementation. Altbach (1977), Woodhouse (1987), Watson (1994), Aveau (2003) and Junior (2010) have further emphasized that most major changes in developing countries have been supported by external assistance, technical help and physical resources at the right time and place. Local writers and academics such as Baba (1990), Thaman (1995) and Sharma (2000) have cautioned that in an international project such support could very well perpetuate dependency.

While addressing the elusiveness of the implementation process, Huberman and Miles (1984), Louise and Miles (1990) and Nabobo-Baba (2006) point out that the current international change literature describe several different ways to best investigate and characterize the implementation process. Fullan (2001) who has been influenced from such sources has suggested two ways of understanding the implementation phase. The first identifies a list of important factors associated with the implementation success. The second concentrates on essential themes that reveal the dynamics of change and account for the genuine participation of all those concerned. Sharma (2000) states that in the effective implementation phase the above mentioned factors and themes interact and function in unison rather than in isolation. Such themes and factors would be discussed in more details in the conceptual framework of the study.
The Outcome Phase of the Change

According to writers of planned change such as Ben and McLaughlin (1978) and Fullan (2001), the outcome phase of the change takes place when the change has been built in as an ongoing part of an institution. Generally viewed, the realization of this phase depends largely on the two former phases of initiation and implementation. Sharma (2000), Wright (2007) and Junior (2010); echo the news of Miles et al., (1978) that institutionalization can also be made possible through the following four factors:

- When a policy level commitment is made for the innovation or change to continue.
- When the external support is adopted to specific institutional needs.
- Where the institutional leaders make the effort to maintain the new practices.
- When the policy users have a sense of ownership.

Goddard and Leask (1992) and Aveau (2003) note that two factors may slow the time scale for the effective implementation and outcome of individual innovations. These are innovation overloads and staff mobility. On another note, Berman and McLaughlin (1978) and Bole (2007) found that even the most well-implemented innovation, might not continue beyond the period of government funding. This happens, as Wallace (1991) argues, in the case of multiple innovations in which each innovation has to compete with all the others and those which are not so important may not usually reach the outcome phase. This study confirms that while an innovation or change may have been abandoned, it certainly leaves behind some useful lessons for those involved as well as many others who may be involved in similar situations. Such experience would definitely provide learning experience which may be useful in managing future planned education changes.

As noted by Vandenberghe (1987), Wallace (1992), Wallace and McMahon (1994) and Aveau (2003), it is important to be aware that much of the change literature focuses on the management of single innovation, but provides limited guidance for schools dealing with major reforms that entail multiple innovations. Moreover, it should also be noted that if the focus is on one innovation, sufficient care must be taken that it should not lead to the neglect of a context comprising a bundle of innovations.
Wallace (1991) and Aveau (2003) further point out that innovations have to compete with one another especially those that are heavyweights, major, complex, interrelated or compulsory. McMahon (1994), Qovu (1996) and Fullan (2001) go on to point out that one of the reasons for the high degree of turbulence in schools is that they are required to implement a range of innovations simultaneously. This study confirms that such turbulence is also applicable to Fiji schools, particularly, when innovations are left unsupervised by the policy implementers, educational leaders and teachers.

The next section of this chapter is centred briefly on the need to focus on the important role that educational leadership plays in the successful management and implementation of planned educational change.

**Educational Leadership**

The important and essential role that educational leadership plays in the change process cannot be over emphasized. After all, good and creditable leadership is the cornerstone of successful institutions as well as the whole education system of any progressive country including Fiji (Qovu, 1996; Nandlal, 2008).

Moreover, it has been noted that successful initiation, implementation and institutionalisation of Government policies such as the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education depend largely on successful educational leadership. The same is further emphasized for the systems theory framework as shown in Figure 3.1. When creditable educational leadership is focused upon in its inputs, throughputs as well as its outputs, all the members of the stakeholder community would equally share the successful outcomes. It is therefore stressed that educational leadership is an integral component of the three phases of international literature that assist in amicably informing the conceptual framework of this study.

In addition, the study wishes to also focus on the instructional educational leadership at the institutional level. Qovu (1996: 204) has found the following findings in his research study of the four selected Fiji secondary school principals:

- The principals showed that there were conflicts between their wish to be an educational or instructional leader and the practical necessity of running the school.
- However, the principals could not do much as an instructional leader as a greater part of their time was actually spent on administrative tasks. All of them averaged 5.5
hours in their actual teaching responsibility out of their 35.5 hours of the one week observation period. This averaged to only 15.49 percent of their total time.

- A solution to this dilemma for principals would be for them to decide which duties were actually mandatory duties; that is, the ones they could not delegate to their assistants and the ones they could delegate as discretionary duties. Principals needed to draw a line somewhere between these two types of duties.

The principals’ instructional leadership could still be effectively and efficiently carried out if proper and appropriate professional duties are delegated to the Vice Principal and the HOD’s and is constantly followed up. Fortnightly or monthly academic assessments could ensure that the delegatory process in instructional leadership actually works.

Furthermore, Lunenburg and Irby (2006) have suggested that principals need to continue helping teachers shifting their focus from what they are teaching to what students are learning. In this approach, the role of the instructional leader is to help the school maintain a focus on why the school exists, and that is to help students learn (Glickman, 2002; Scheurick and Skrla, 2003). The main focus here is the shifting of instruction from teaching to learning.

From another perspective, both Bhindi (2004) and Duigman (2004) have focused on the important need to maintain the correct emphasis of instructional leadership in schools. This can be effectively achieved through authentic leadership by principals and authentic teachers in the manner they commit themselves through compassion, honesty and dignity in their teaching responsibility (Bhindi, 2004). Such positive attitudes, as Bhindi (2004) emphasizes are critical for the success of the school’s core business: the successful outcome of the students’ learning through the teachers’ capacity in teaching. Finally, to clearly articulate the benefit derived from adopting authentic leadership in schools, Bhindi (2004: 5) has provided the following:

> When people feel valued, they feel empowered and accept responsibility and ownership for the Soul, Tone, Wellbeing, and Success of the workplace. Such a workplace culture is not accidental but intentional. Only by creating a caring, concerned and compassionate environment in our schools, can school leaders provide the ignition and compression for quality teaching and learning and the necessary stretch for improvement and innovation.
CONCEPTUAL CONSTRUCT OF THE STUDY

The conceptual construct of the study is informed by three bodies of international literature. These have been discussed briefly in this chapter as change theory, systems theory and educational leadership.

Consistent with the rationale behind Fiji’s affirmative action policy, these bodies of literature concentrate on quality, relevance, sustainable structures and processes. The literature also discusses the establishment of collaborative learning and administrative structures, processes and leadership, so that all those involved in AAP can work, learn and manage AAP together. This would further create a learning environment where ongoing professional development as well as the improvement of the management of AAP is achieved as the processes unfold.

The conceptual structure of the study utilizes the three phases of the change process as articulated by Fullan (1991; 2001). The three phases include initiation, implementation and institutionalization. In using this approach, the various characteristics of AAP are considered.

This change process is anchored on systems theory. However, the three phases are retained replacing input, throughout and output. The feedback mechanism and the sub-systems of the systems theory are also included. Moreover, it is important to note that the term institutionalization is replaced by outcomes as discussed earlier.

Systems Theory in the Conceptual Framework of the Study

Cooper et al., (2004: 9) have suggested that “the analysis of policy through systems theory provides a holistic look at policy itself.

Systems Theory

To further support this initial comment at the beginning of this chapter, the study wishes to further focus on aspects of the systems theory framework. With the inclusion of all the following components of the systems theory, it would further assist in the wholeistic understanding of the study from its theoretical and conceptual framework.

Inputs

The first focus in this section is the process of inputs into the systems theory framework. Fullan (2001) as well as researchers such as Sharma (2000), Aveau (2003) and Wright
(2007), have maintained that the three essential elements in the process include the 3Rs: relevance, readiness and resources. Relevance includes the interaction of need, clarity and utility. For instance, teachers and students should clearly understand what the proposed innovation has to offer. Readiness indicates the capacity of the school, which includes its personnel and the whole organization that are able to be relied upon to successfully adopt the innovation. Resources mean that the organization has to have available resources at its disposal to effectively support the change process.

In this study, research findings in Table 5.1 (J) establish that an overwhelming number of policy users, policy implementers and policy initiators have favorably viewed the AAPs for Fijian education as the best strategy to alleviate Fijian and Rotuman education problems or successfully meeting the failure of not putting enough Fijians through to the top. However, the initial major drawbacks in successfully implementing the six government-initiated affirmative action programmes identified during the fieldwork trips are discussed in Chapter 6.

The above findings are consistent with that of Loucks and Hall (cited in Fullan (2001). Sharma (2000: 26) further supports this as:

…the success of the management and implementation of a planned educational change depends largely on how well all those concerned understand what the change is all about and the reasons why they are expected to change their existing practices.

Figure 3.2 should further identify all the relevant components of the Systems Theory and how they complement each other in the policy process. It should also assist readers of this work to fully appreciate the role it performs in the analysis of the AAP in the education for indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

**Resources**

The following are the essential resources that are required as inputs in the process of the systems theory framework. First, are human resources. This is essential to basically fulfill the needed functioning of the whole process of the systems theory. This is the basic initial requirements. Second, is financial resources. This is required to provide the necessary provision of funding projects and programmes of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.
Third, are other relevant resources. These are also essential for the provision of communication and transportation of materials and equipment to the identified rural, remote, very remote and outer island locations of the indigenous Fijian schools.

**Figure 3.2 Conceptual Framework of the Study**

![Conceptual Framework of the Study](image)

**Throughputs**

During the fieldwork research trips, it was found that the key stakeholders that were involved in the implementation process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education included Ministry of Education officials from the head office, MOE field officers and other civil servants from relevant government ministries and departments.

Furthermore, the inability of the policy initiators to better control and improve certain complex situations had been viewed negatively by the users of the policy and even by the implementers or change agents themselves. Literature supporting such a complex phase of implementation is also confirmed by Huberman and Miles (1984); Fullan (2001) and further supported by Sharma (2000); Aveau (2003); Wright (2007) and Junior (2010). The problem arises in the process of transferring ideas and practices from initiators to other participants that include change agents as well as change users. In further supporting other researches,
this study has established that “the transition from initiation to implementation should have been handled with extreme care so that ideas and practices are supported by a broadening base of concerned groups and individuals” (Sharma, 2000: 23).

In summary, the throughput or transformation process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education seems to have created “a certain degree of ambivalence, uncertainty, anxiety, frustration and struggle” (Sharma 2000: 26). This finds support in the work of researchers such as Huberman and Miles (1984), Louis and Miles (1990) and Fullan (2001). If such a situation is not handled with care, it could negatively influence more policy users from accepting the implementation of the policy.

**Outputs**

The study’s finding on the actual level of the policy outputs is being grouped into the two major levels of outcome: the fieldwork and the documentary findings as briefly discussed below.

The above discrepancies clearly signify that policy initiators’ views have been influenced by the feedback largely from policy implementers’ office record and not on what is actually taking place at the ground level.

As indicated earlier, the inability of the policy users to play their part and take possession of such assistance was a common occurrence in areas where AAP projects and programmes had been implemented. Whilst it would be unjustified to lay the blame squarely on the shoulders of policy users, policy initiators and policy implementers should initiate and coordinate an agreed policy plan to solve such problems forthwith.

Through its research findings, the study has also been able to identify an approach, which has been experienced to have created a positive impact on the initiators, implementers and policy users of such an initiative. The suggested approach is titled, “Service from the Heart.” Detail discussion on this approach would be further examined in the final chapter of this thesis.

As indicated under financial resources in Chapter 6, detail analysis of Table 6.2 would also be the central focus of the documentary analysis. The intention would be to try and place certain achievements and challenges of the AAP against the total financial allocations during the first five years of its implementation that is from 2002 to 2006.
Feedback

As shown in Figure 3.2 within the systems theory framework, feedback constitutes the varying views of the members of the sub-systems who are normally users of the policy. They, in most instances, would have the opportunity to openly discuss with the policy implementers on how best such policy as the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education could be more effectively implemented. In return, they should likewise indicate to policy implementers the level of commitment they are able to provide for the policy to be successfully institutionalized with them. This should indeed be the central focus of instituting such policy as taking possession of such output or taking ownership of the change is exceedingly crucial in any successful implementation (Sharma, 2000) and further supported by (Nabobo, 2006; Wright, 2007 and Junior, 2010).

Sub-systems

As can also be noted from the systems theory framework in Figure 3.2, sub-systems constitute boards, councils, institutes, local governments, associations and even the national government whose members have vested interest in the policy. They would have a lot of influence in the whole policy process and have direct links to key political figures of the ruling political party. Policy implementers in such instances have to be extremely careful in handling situations involving members of the sub-systems. The following views of a retired permanent secretary and a highly respected senior Cabinet Minister should clearly explain such type of civil servant further:

Civil servants, in my opinion, are greater political players than us seasoned politicians. They should be smart enough to say the right thing at the right time and be found to be accompanying and supporting the right people. They should be highly respected individuals and be full-time professional servants of the public at large. They are in fact trusted leaders in whatever situation they find themselves in. Above all that, I will still maintain that their performance level will also determine the level of success an elected government is able to achieve during its five year term.

Environment

The environment, as indicated in Figure 3.2 of the systems theory framework, surrounds any organization with their social, political and economic forces that impinge on the organization. It takes an added significance in today’s climate of accountability. For instance, for the
process of inputs, throughputs and outputs of the AAP on Fijian and Rotuman education, members of the environment are conscious of the amount of pressures that they exert that could determine the level of outcome of the entire change process.

Additionally, it should be noted that the social, political and economic contexts in which policy implementers work are marked by pressures at the school, district, provincial and national levels. Therefore, the present batch of policy implementers of the MOE, would find it necessary to manage and develop “internal” operations, whilst concurrently monitoring the environment and anticipating and responding to “external” demands. The quality of the implementers’ management, their ability in effectively monitoring and responding to internal and external demands is also a major interest of this study.

Therefore, the overall framework of analysis shows that it comprises firstly of the initiation, that include (a) the characteristics of AAP: need, quality, clarity, practicality and priority, (b) the student characteristics: ability and motivation, (c) teaching and learning contacts: teacher characteristics, curriculum, resources, facility, equipment and funding and (d) leadership: management structures and process. The second phase – the implementation phase – mainly deals with the management, funding, resources, facility and space, teamwork and leadership. The outcomes phase examines the output of AAP. In other words, it looks at the manner in which AAP is institutionalized. In this instance, the focus is on the achievements of the AAP in terms of reducing the gap in the educational attainment of the indigenous Fijians and other races of the Fiji citizens. It also throws light on the employment opportunity that is available to the indigenous Fijians. The feedback mechanism is included to find out whether the three phases are informed and transformed as AAP progresses. The role of the sub-systems, such as the Great Council of Chiefs (GCC), parental organizations, Governmental and non-governmental organizations has been included to find out whether they facilitated or impeded the progress of the AAP. Finally, leadership also plays an important role in the management of AAP and it is examined throughout, especially in the implementation phase.

**CONCLUSION**

This chapter discussed briefly the theoretical and conceptual orientations of the study. In doing so, it succinctly reviewed relevant literature on policy analysis and change management including educational leadership. It was stressed that the term ‘policy’ was a broad concept and difficult to define appropriately. However, the study adopted Coopers et al. (2004: 3) comprehensive definition: “a policy is a political process where needs, goals and
intentions are translated into a set of objectives, laws, policies and programmes”. This is consistent with AAP which is a political process designed to address the educational needs of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

Several theories were discussed that can be used to analyze and understand educational policies. In order to analyze and understand AAP, systems theory was considered appropriate. It was felt that the systems theory would provide a holistic study of AAP, analyzing its inputs, throughputs and outputs. Some of the strengths of the theory include the frequent receipt of feedback and the roles of subsystems or environment in the management of a policy.

The literature review in this chapter also considered the importance of the change management and educational leadership in analyzing and understanding AAP. In particular, it stressed the significance of the factors and themes associated with successful implementation. The value of educational leadership in the successful management of a policy was also emphasized. The literature review also stressed the need for instructional leaders in educational policy management especially in shifting the focus of instruction from teaching to learning. As regards to Fijian AAP, this was deemed vital.

The chapter concluded with the conceptual framework of the study that was drawn from these bodies of international literature. In essence, the three phases of the change process – initiation, implementation and outcomes – were retained. The institutionalization phase of the change process was replaced with “outcomes”. The literature review above argues for this change. As pointed out earlier, the three phases were anchored on the systems theory structure replacing input, throughput and output. The feedback mechanism and the subsystems or environment of the systems theory were included. This is shown on Figure 3.2.

The next chapter concentrates on the research methodology.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter concentrates on the research methodology adopted in this study. It has two parts. The first part comprises the theoretical views of the phenomenological perspectives, the qualitative research approach and the case study approach. It also discusses the three conventional qualitative data gathering strategies. Then it goes on to discuss the three indigenous Fijian research methods of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa. It is expected that these indigenous Fijian approaches will complement the qualitative data gathering strategies employed in the study as well as this body of international literature.

The second part discusses the actual process undertaken in conducting the study. These include the research design and the actual process followed in conducting this study. They further focus on an in-depth discussion on perspectives of the traditional qualitative data gathering strategies employed in the study, such as the two new indigenous Fijian approaches of vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa. In addition, qualitative data interpretations and data analysis are further discussed as the final part of the chapter.

PHENOMENOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

This study, as mentioned earlier, examines the management of the AAP for indigenous Fijian and Rotuman education. It tries to understand the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education from the perspectives of those involved in its management and implementation processes. This approach finds support in the theoretical perspective of phenomenology.

Patton (2002) supports this further by emphasizing that phenomenology is an attempt to clarify, describe and understand the meanings, behaviours and actions of the people that involve themselves in certain things that engage them in their daily life activities. Patton also emphasises that “space”, “time”, and the “environment” indicate the nature of when, where and how long the observer has actually experienced what really happens. Nabobo-Baba (2005) has given further support to Patton by saying that the goal of the phenomenologist is
to comprehend the meanings of people’s behaviour and interactions from their own ‘points of view’.

Patton (2002: 104), who possesses a passion for phenomenology, has taken this discussion further by saying:

Phenomenologist explores how human beings experience and transform experience into consciousness both individually and as shared meaning. This required methodologically, carefully and thoroughly capturing and describing how people experience some phenomena – how they perceive it, describe it, feel about it, judge it, remember it, make sense of it and talk about it with others. To gather such data, one must understand in-depth interviews with people who have directly experienced the phenomenon of interest.

The above views on phenomenology have provided the needed methodological orientation of the study, thus permitting the researcher to closely relate it to the implementation process of the AAP in Fiji. The various views of the policy initiators, policy implementers and policy users had been the central considerations of the outcomes of this planned educational change.

Burns (1957), Sharma (2000) and Nabobo-Baba (2006) have also pointed out that the idea of phenomenology has a strong connection within the assumptions that underpin qualitative research. This has come about owing to the fact that “phenomenology and qualitative research methodology aim to gain a deeper understanding of the nature and meaning of our everyday experiences” (Wright 2007: 67). These everyday experiences are varied according to whatever influences people are exposed to. The qualitative researcher’s interest would always be attracted to focus on these experiences. The reason for the researcher of this study’s adoption qualitative research approach is the central focus of the next section.

**QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH**

At the outset, it is noted that qualitative research approach has been given distinctive features, which do not exhibit all the traits with equal importance. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) further observe that some of the studies that could be called qualitative are in fact almost completely lacking in one or more of the qualitative approaches. The question really is not whether a particular piece of research is or is not absolutely qualitative, rather it is an issue of degree and research outcomes. To clarify these notions further, participant observation and in-depth
interview have been identified as examples of these differences as shown in the following arguments.

First, is that qualitative research has the natural setting as the direct source of data and the researcher is the key instrument. According to Bogdon and Biklen (2007) researchers actually enter and spend considerable amount of time on sites such as schools, learning about educational concerns and understanding the context. Even when technology is used, the data are collected on the premises. For instance, O’Donoghue and Punch (2003) explain that for a study in educational stratification in California, it took the author 21 months to complete the fieldwork of visiting, observing and interviewing students, teachers, principals, families and members of school boards. In this study, all the required fieldwork activities that are to be carried out have been guided by the research design as shown in Figure 4.1. Merriam (1988) and Mataitoga (2009) also note that whenever possible, qualitative researchers go to the real location as they assume that human behaviour is significantly influenced by the context in which things happen. For this study, the ‘talanoa’, ‘vitalanoa’ and ‘vakamuritalanoa’, indigenous Fijian data gathering research approach have been adopted mostly to gather qualitative data from Fijian villages.

Second, qualitative research is descriptive. This means that the data collected are generally in the form of words and pictures. According to Bogdon and Biklen (2007), the research results contain descriptions and quotations from the data to illustrate and substantiate the presentation. The collated data include interview transcripts, field notes, photographs, videotapes, personal documents, memos and other fieldwork records. In their search for better understanding, qualitative researchers write narrations to numerical symbols. They seek to analyze the data with all of their richness as closely as possible to the form in which they are recorded or transcribed.

Furthermore, it is acknowledged that qualitative articles and reports have been described by some as anecdotal. This is so since they often contain quotations and attempt to describe what a particular situation or view of the world is like in a narrative form. The written words are very important in qualitative approach, both in recording data and disseminating the findings. In this study, for instance, scores of mostly recent newspaper articles and seminar reports have been included to clearly reflect the real feelings and views of the institutions, public, private and statutory organizations on the need or otherwise of the 2000 Blueprint of the affirmative action policy in education for indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

*Policy, Rationale and Implications*

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**Figure 4.1** RESEARCH DESIGN FRAMEWORK

**PRE-FIELDWORK**

- **DEVELOPING RESEARCH QUESTIONS:**
  - Research Problems
  - Formulating Research Questions

- **DEVELOPING THE FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS:**
  - The theoretical concept of the change process.
  - The Management of educational change.
  - The theoretical framework for analysis.
  - Fijian Traditional/Cultural Concept of “AA”

- **DEVELOPING RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**
  - Participant Observation.
  - Case Study
  - Documentary Study
  - Interviews
  - “Talanoa”
  - “Vakamuri talanoa”

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**FIELDWORK**

- **SELECTING CASE STUDY SCHOOLS AND PROJECTS:**
  - Case Study 1A, 1B, 1C & 1D
  - Case Study 2
  - Case Study 3
  - Case Study 4
  - Case Study 5
  - Case Study 6A, 6B & 6C

- **DATA COLLECTION METHODS:**
  - In-depth Interviews
  - Participation
  - Observation
  - Case Studies
  - Documentary Analysis
  - “Talanoa”
  - “Vakamuri talanoa”

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**POST-FIELDWORK**

- **FIELDWORK RESEARCH:**
  - *From October, 2007 – March, 2008*
    - Case Study 1A, 1B, 1C & 1D
    - Case Study 2
    - Case Study 3
    - Case Study 4
    - Case Study 5
    - Case Study 6A, 6B & 6C

- **DATA COLLECTION METHODS:**
  - Writing Individual Case Study Reports
  - Projects
  - Schools

- **EDITING:**
  - Literature Review: Chapter 3
  - Methodology: Chapter 4
  - Blueprint for Fijian Education: Chapter 5
  - Theoretical & Conceptual Framework.

- **DATA PRESENTATION:**
  - Initiation of “AA”
  - Management of “AA”:
  - **Outcome of “AA:***
    - Case Studies 1A to 6C

- **DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS:**
  - Stakeholders’ Perceptions
  - Change Characteristics
  - Initiation
  - Implementic
  - Outcome

- **IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY**
  - The Research Questions
  - Traditional/Cultural Concepts of “AA” (Fijian Word for “AA”)
  - “NO ONE IS TO BE LEFT BEHIND”
  - Future Research
  - Policy and Practice
  - Educational Change Process
  - Research Methodology

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*Adapted from Yin (1984: 51) and cited in Sharma, N (2001: 8).*
This is further strengthened with the inclusion of photographs; as such evidence may not lie, as it would also definitely reveal the real activities associated with the policy users at ground level.

Bogdon and Biklen (2007) further point out that in collecting descriptive data; qualitative researchers approach the world in a ‘nitpicking’ way. For instance, many of us tend to be locked in our “taken for granted” world oblivious to the details of our environment and the assumptions under which we operate. We even fail to readily notice such things as gestures, jokes, those who do the talking in a conversation and the special words we use to which those around us respond. The major emphasis here is that qualitative researchers need to be focused and observant.

Moreover, Qovu (1996), Sharma (2000) and Wright (2007) have given strong support to the notion that qualitative research approach demands that the world should be approached with the assumptions that nothing is trivial, that everything has the potential of being a clue that may unlock a deeper or more comprehensive understanding of what is being studied (Bogdon and Biklen, 1992, 2007). By adopting the three indigenous Fijian research approaches of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa45, there is a lot of opportunity for the researcher of this study to venture more meaningfully into the whole world of the policy users and be able to hear personally from them the reasons why most government initiated-development programme have not been successfully implemented.

Thirdly, the qualitative researcher is also concerned with processes rather than with products. Quite important qualitative questions are bound to cross the researcher’s mind. How do people negotiate meaning? How do certain terms and labels come to be applied? How do certain notions come to be taken as part of what we know as “common sense”? What is the natural history of the activity or events under study? Answers to such questions would also clearly indicate people’s attitudes towards certain activities that are happening in their midst (Bogdon and Biklen 2007).

Moreover, Russell (2000), Aveau (2003) and Wright (2007) further confirm that the qualitative emphasis on process has been particularly beneficial in educational research in clarifying the

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45 Talanoa, Vitalanoa and Vakamuritalanoa were the three indigenous Fijian approaches adopted during the fieldwork of the study.
self-fulfilling prophecy. It means that students’ cognitive performance in a school is affected by teachers’ expectations of them. Through qualitative strategies, certain expectations are able to be translated into daily activities, procedures and interactions. The day to day process of interaction is richly portrayed in such situations. This kind of study effectively focuses on how definitions are formed, that is, teachers’ definitions of students, students’ definitions of each other and of themselves. In this research study, such formation of definitions would indeed assist the researcher to clearly ascertain the benefits that the students would derive from the types of assistance particularly from books and other school equipment that schools have been supplied with through the affirmative action initiative.

Fourthly, qualitative researchers tend to analyse their data inductively. In such situations, qualitative researchers do not search out data or evidence to prove or disapprove hypothesis they hold before entering the study. Rather, the abstractions are built as the particulars that have been gathered are grouped together. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) further clarify that the theory that is developed in this manner emerges from the bottom-up, rather than from the top-down and it includes many disparate pieces of collected evidence that are interconnected. This approach also promotes horizontal communication where research respondents have the opportunity to discuss the issue under study on their own. This mode of communication relates closely to the indigenous Fijian approach of data gathering. Glaser and Strauss (1967) have named such concept as “grounded theory”. This study benefits from this undertaking as Aveau (2003) has taken.

As a qualitative researcher, planning to develop some kind of theory about what the researcher has been studying and the direction he or she will travel come after the researcher has been collecting the data and after he or she has spent time with his or her respondents. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) further stress that researchers are not putting together a puzzle whose pictures have already been known. Instead, they are constructing pictures that take shape as they collect and examine the parts. Therefore, the process of data analysis in such situations is like a funnel, in which things are open at the beginning or top and are narrow or more-directed and specific on its way to the bottom. Qualitative researchers actually plan to use part of the study to learn what the important questions are. Furthermore, they do not assume that enough is known to recognize important concerns before undertaking the research.
The distinct benefits of such theory in regards to this study are quite numerous. First, the researcher of this study would be able to clearly identify some solutions to certain short-term problems from the focus groups or individuals. Second, these same people would likewise be able to understand and appreciate that they also play a vital role in making certain that such governmental initiated assistance are implemented with much success. Eventually, everyone would be satisfied with the overall outcomes and results. Again, this is where the indigenous Fijian research approaches of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa are employed. It creates an ideal opportunity for both the researcher and the informants to see the real situations holistically, thus positively strengthening their continuing cordial and meaningful relationships.

“Meaning” is indeed an essential concern of this research approach as the researchers are interested in the ways different people make sense of their lives. According to Bogdan and Biklen (1992; 2007), Erickson (1986), Sharma (2000), and Wright (2007), the qualitative researchers are concerned with what are called participant perspectives. The relevant questions here include: What assumptions do people make about their lives? What do they take for granted? These clearly show that by learning the perspectives of the participants, qualitative research throws more light into the inner dynamics of the situation that are often invisible to the outsider. From the perspectives of this study, the vital link that has now been “meaning fully” created has been made possible by employing indigenous Fijian research methods. As mentioned earlier, the qualitative researcher and the informants are both winners in such situations with a lot more enlightenment though unintended but, meaningful exposures and interactions in the cordial and natural setting of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa. Moreover, qualitative researchers are generally concerned with ascertaining that they capture perspectives accurately. Aveau (2003) clarifies this further by saying that some researchers who use videotape show the completed tapes to the participants in order to check their own interpretations to those of the informants. Other researchers may also show drafts of articles or interview transcripts to key informants. Still others, according to Heath (1997) and Wright (2007) may verbally check out perspectives with their subjects. Sometimes, there is controversy over such procedures, but they basically reflect a concern with capturing the people’s own way of interpreting such significance as accurately as possible. As the researcher of this study has also had the similar experience, there is a lot more respect as a result, that have been accorded by the informants from the policy initiators, the policy implementers and policy users.
Qualitative researchers in education, notes Fua (2001), can continually be found asking questions of the people they are learning to discover what they are experiencing, how they interpret their experiences and how they themselves structure the social world in which they live.

Finally, qualitative researches, say Bogdan and Biklen (2007), do set up strategies and procedures to enable them to consider experiences from their informants’ perspectives. However, the process of doing qualitative research reflects a kind of dialogue or interplay between researchers and their subjects since researchers do not normally approach their subjects with ready-made intention.

Most of the foregoing arguments have focused specifically on the examples of the differences between participant observation and in-depth interviews. To continue the need to specifically examine other approaches within the qualitative research method, case study has been identified to further strengthen this claim.

**CASE STUDY APPROACH**

In qualitative research the term “case study” bears multiple meanings. First, it can describe a unit of analysis to mean a case study of a particular organization. Second, it is a research method. This is more suited to this study. This is further supported by Yin (2002) who says that a case study as a research strategy is also used widely in many disciplines such as sociology, psychology, political sciences, business, social work, education and planning. Wright (2007) writes that the distinctive need for case study in those fields arises from the desire to understand complex social phenomena and the environment in which it exists and operates.

Of all the identified definitions of a case study, Yin’s (2002: 23) is most appropriate for this study. According to him, a case study is:

...an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.

In clarifying the above further, Wright (2007) notes that it refers to a collection and presentation of detailed information about a particular participant or a small group. It prefers to look deeply
at an individual or group. It draws conclusions about the participants in that specific context. It also allows an investigator to retain the holistic and meaningful picture of real-life situations. Yin’s (1994) earlier view further notes that a case study normally answers “how” and “why” questions and it can be exploratory, explanatory and descriptive. This view has been supported further by Best and Kahn (2003) and Junior (2010) who refers to it as the preferred strategy to use when the researcher has little control over the events and when the focus is on a real-life situation.

**Strengths of the Case Study Approach**

Like other strategies, the case study approach has its strengths and weaknesses. The strengths of the case study approach, according to Yin (2002) comes from real-life situations that offer insights and illuminates meaning that expand its readers’ experiences and understanding. He further reveals that:

> …field (case) studies reveal not static attributes but understanding of humans as they engage in actions and interactions within the contexts of situations and settings. Thus, inferences concerning human behaviour are less abstract than in many qualitative studies, and one can better understand how an intervention may affect behaviour in a situation.

Cited in Wright (2001: 70)

Without doubt, case studies in most situations are appropriately built in to reflect the reality of such situations. Sharma (2000: 162) further supports this view by saying that:

> … sensitive to the complexities and embeddedness of social truths and by carefully attending to social situation, it has the capacity to uncover, analyze, understand and represent viewpoints of people from different ideological and occupational camps.

According to Wright (2007), this sensitivity also allows the researcher and the respondents to create a trusting relationship, enabling the researcher to obtain quality information from respondents.

As stated earlier, the strengths of the case study approach lie in the use of multiple methods of collecting data from the same sources to cross-check reliability. This approach in the research
literature is called “triangulation”, a situation favouring the combination of several methods such as interviews, observations, informal conversation sessions and documentary analysis to study the same unit. In this respect, Wright (2007: 71) further says that, “it is the process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meanings or the reality about an event.” Moreover, as cited in Wright (2007: 71), this approach involves cross-checking and cross-referencing data by combining different perceptions of the same event to provide a more holistic picture. The case study research strategy is further favoured by Denzin (1989) when he states, as quoted in (Wright 2007: 71) that:

the rationale of this strategy is that the flaws of one method are often the strengths of another. By combining multiple observers, theories, methods and data sources, the researchers can hope to overcome the intrinsic bias that comes from single – methods single – observer and single – theory studies.

The emphasis of employing multiple methods to collect data is a major strength of qualitative case study research as they provide flexibility in gathering and analyzing qualitative data. Writers such as Sharma (2000), Patton (2002), O’Donoghue and Punch (2003) and Best & Kahn (2003) have all said that such multiple approaches facilitate “triangulation” that improves the generalizeability of research findings.

Finally, Patton (2002) observes that triangulation provides diverse ways of looking at the same phenomenon and adds credibility by strengthening confidence in whatever conclusions are drawn. In further favouring triangulation, other writers such as Leininger (1990), Best and Kahn (2003) and de Marrais (2004) observe that negotiating drafts with colleagues, reviewing trails, conducting member checks and feedback sessions with the subjects are other important means of establishing accurateness, completeness and conformability of data through case study strategy. Moreover, by relating the results from one study to be used in understanding similar situations elsewhere, it offers an opportunity for researchers and readers to relate the case directly to their own studies.
Limitations of the Case Study Approach

As mentioned earlier, the qualitative case study approach also has its limitations. The most common amongst them involves the issue of generalisability. In defining generalisability, Polit and Beck (2007), Mataitoga (2009) and Junior (2010) note that it is the extension of research findings and conclusions from a study conducted on a sample population to the entire population. It is basically taking findings from one study and applying them to the understanding of similar situations. The central agreement by most critiques implies that some case studies are hard to generalize because of its subjective nature and its concentration on a particular context. However, advocates of qualitative-oriented case study research such as Bogdan and Biklen (2007) say that this approach can be “rigorous, systematic, and scientific”. This simply means that such research study does not seek to generalize its findings but it should provide more understanding of the phenomenon that is being investigated. This has been accepted with the overall expectation that the results can potentially contribute valuable knowledge to the policy initiators, policy implementers and policy users of planned educational change throughout Fiji.

Furthermore, other writers have cautioned that the unavailability of sufficient “time” is another potential limitation of the case study approach. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) support this view by saying that time can create problems in fieldwork, especially with such methods as in-depth unstructured interviewing and participant observation. As previously discussed, these techniques require the researchers to spend an enormous amount of time in the field. At the same time, the unavailability of the research respondents can also delay the research process. Special attempts through continuous reviewing of the research programme have been the major focus of the researcher of this research study to ensure that such potential limitations are reduced to a minimum.

QUALITATIVE APPROACH IN DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES

Thus far the theoretical discussions have centred mainly on the best research methodology that has been adopted for this study. Qualitative approach has been the preferred methodology. In fact, the quantitative research method is employed where the values and costs of projects need to
be analyzed and tabulated to answer certain research questions. Some related statistics will be presented in Chapters 5 and 6 of the thesis to clearly show this need.

These qualitative data collection strategies are also discussed in some depth in the following section of this chapter. It is therefore appropriate at this juncture to specifically focus on the three conventional methods in qualitative data collection strategies to clearly ascertain how far each one of them actually influences and effectively contributes to the overall outcome of this research study. These three research approaches include participant observation, documentary study and interview. In addition to these three research methods is the indigenous Fijian research approach of talanoa. This then leads into the discussion of the indigenous Fijian research methods of vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa, which are also the latest contributions by this research study to the wide body of international literature.

**Participant Observation**

Patton (2002) says that “observation” is a major method of collecting data in qualitative research. Strauss and Corbin (1994), Sharma (2000) and Wright (2007) have clarified it further by saying that participant observation is defined as a research strategy that combines documentary analysis and interviewing and observation. In the conduct of observation by the researcher, it is also intended to verify and further supplement information that is gathered by other methods, such as desk study. According to Best and Kahn (2003), the combination of these methods provides a more holistic interpretation of the situation that is being investigated.

Furthermore, participant observation is actually the direct involvement of the researcher in the events being studied. In such a situation, the researcher directly engages himself and feels what it is like to be part of the group. Wright (2007) says that the researcher is therefore exposed to develop an inside view of what is happening and makes it possible to record series of behaviours as they happen. As a participant, the researcher develops rapport and trust with respondents. It therefore makes it easier to reveal the realities of their experiences that may not be possible to be obtained utilizing other approaches.
At the same time, Patton (2002) has warned against socialization as too much of it could negatively cause the participant observer to lose focus. As a final reminder in participant observation, Patton (2002: 447) has further emphasized that participant observers must possess the required skills such as:

...learning how to write descriptively, practicing the disciplined recording of field notes, and knowing how to separate details from trivia…and using rigorous methods to validate observations.

The above caution simply implies that the success of participant observation also depends on the talents and skills of the researchers and their ability to see the real life of respondents and the phenomenon from an open mind and without partiality. This study benefits from participants observations as well.

**Documentary Analysis**

Undoubtedly documents are a useful source of information, particularly for researchers. Patton (2002) has agreed that documents have the capacity to generate ideas for questions that can then be pursued through observation and interviewing. Wright (2007) notes that documents can also provide valuable information that may not have been accessible through other means. For instance, Wright (2007) stresses that documents can provide crucial information about things that the researcher cannot observe because they took place before the study began and they were a part of private interchange in which the researcher did not participate or they reflected plans that have not been realized in the actual programme performance.

To further emphasise the importance of documenting pertinent information and other records at the national level to amicably assist in documentary studies, the researcher of the current study was able to solicit the views of the late Fiji Government Archivist in a brief Talanoa session during his earlier research study. Tuinaceva said:

> It is crucial and indeed essential for any developed or developing nation like Fiji to secure a safe storehouse for all its past and even present records and documents. That is the basic reason why we are keeping and maintaining our National Archive. All government Ministries and Departments, Statutory Bodies and even Private Sector Organizations do
send us their closed files and past records to be safely kept here in the National Archive. Basically as you know, information means power. To be able to possess pertinent and authentic records, you actually have the power to settle long and outstanding matters that in certain cases actually cost a lot of money. Archives are primarily the custodian institutions of such pertinent information and records on behalf of any responsible Government. They are also the centres of researchers for any interested individual whether they are locals or overseas personnel who show research interests in the documents that we keep.

(Tuinaceva, 1995)

Furthermore, writers such as Merriam (1998) and Best and Kahn (2003) strongly argue that documentary study has a major advantage of this data gathering method because the documents are generated contemporaneously with the events they refer to. Hence, they are less likely to be subjected to memory decay or memory distortion when compared with data obtained from interviews.

According to Merriam (1998) and Aveau (2003), a major limitation of the documentary study approach has been identified. This concerns the authenticity and accuracy of documentary materials. For instance, undated archaeological findings are stored in museums, offices and private homes.

As for historic records and materials kept in custody at the Fiji’s National Archive, Tuinaceva stressed that any unsubstantiated item was always attended to ensure its immediate removal from the National Archives (Tuinaceva, 1995). However, even without dates such information is useful because it provides some directions of the phenomenon that has been investigated.

In some other situations, Bogdan and Biklen (2007) observe that it is always the researcher’s responsibility to determine as much as possible the origins and reasons behind the written documents, the authors and the contexts in which they were written.

For this study, such limitations of documentary data are least expected as there are multiple sources from which documentary evidence can be cross-checked to confirm their accuracy, authenticity and reliability. The easier availability of technological support services of computers and ICT have strengthened this claim further which really benefits the data collected.
In-depth Interviews

As indicated earlier, interviews are commonly employed in qualitative research to gather thick descriptive data which may not be collected otherwise. In this study, interview is the final qualitative research approach used before resorting to the more relaxed but in-depth mode of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa.

As for observation, interviews also require some careful planning and preparation. In this study, pre-planned guided questions as shown in Appendices 4.1 to 4.4 had been prepared, mainly to keep on track the discussion mode and not allow the whole interview process to unnecessarily lose its focus. Further, emphasis on this focused-format of interviews has been stressed by Strauss and Corbin (1994), Patton (2002) and Wright (2007) who state that the researcher must have a lot of relevant information about the topic that is being studied. This should assist the researcher to ask informed questions, considering carefully who to interview, how many people to interview, what types of interviews to conduct and how to analyze the data obtained. Bogdan and Biklen (2007:105) have given further support to this mode by saying that this requires skills in speaking, writing and listening to what the respondents say. It is necessary to:

...treat every word as having the potential of unlocking the mystery of the subject’s way of viewing the world.

Therefore, listening to almost every word and watching nearly every action of the respondent is essential to capture the true meaning of their perceptions (Wright, 2007). This provides the subjective reality of the innovation under study. Patton (2002) further supports such necessary skills in interviews by noting that asking appropriate questions, careful listening, noting nonverbal cues, monitoring the progress of the conversation and taking notes are essential skills that qualitative researchers must possess if they want to portray the real picture of the topic being researched.

In this research approach, an interview is basically a conversation between two or more people. Patton (2002) has taken this argument further by stressing that “we cannot observe people’s thoughts, feelings and intentions, so we interview them to find out their feelings and thoughts
through the lenses of their own values and codes” (Coxon and Taufe’ulungaki, 2003). It is stressed that as interview unfolds it gradually changes into conversation operating at a casual level. Therefore, a more cordial environment for interview is created. Furthermore, interview is deemed necessary when the researcher is interested in past events that are somewhat impossible to repeat. For instance, the major focus of the researcher of this study is to view almost all projects funded through the affirmative action policy. At the same time, he is also interested to find out the actual reaction of the whole community towards this top-down Government assistance that has been undertaken so far.

The study feels that there is a need to take an in-depth view of interview as identified in Patton’s (2002) study in which three basic approaches are discussed. The decision to adopt the three basic approaches is also taken to support the earlier expressed opinion that the underlying objective of adopting a methodology is “to select the best methodology in the circumstances.” The following are the three basic approaches identified in Patton’s study:

- the standardized open-ended interview;
- the semi-structured interview; and
- the informal conversational type interview.

Each approach, stresses Wright (2007), serves a different purpose and has different preparation and instrumentation requirements. In this study, all the three approaches have been combined where necessary, as they have been proved to yield rich qualitative and reliable data. The above three approaches of interviews were mainly employed on person-to-person basis for all the respondents that were classified under the three specific categories of the policy change process of initiation, implementation and institutionalization.

**Standardized Open-Ended Interview**

In qualitative research, the standardized open-ended interview is also known as a structured interview. This consists of a set of open-ended questions that are carefully worded and arranged in advance to ensure that the same basic line of inquiry are pursued with each interviewee. Furthermore, Dickson (2003) maintains that the situation permits the interviewer to ask each
respondent the same questions in a precise manner and offer each individual the same set of positive response. However, some variation may exist based on the manner the discussion unfolds. This type of interview, nevertheless, notes Wright (2007), allows the investigator to minimize the variation in the question he/she poses. Patton (1990), Sharma (2000) and Wright (2007) also support this further by stressing that it is useful and desirable to have the same information from each interviewee at several points in time. This further contributes to the triangulation of data. Standardized open-ended interviews also allow the researcher to collect detailed data systematically and be able to facilitate comparability among all respondents.

The weaknesses of this approach are that it may not permit the interviewer to pursue certain topics and issues that are not anticipated further when the interview schedule is being prepared. Wright (2007) supports the use of alternative lines of questioning with different people depending on their particular differences. Fontana and Frey (2000) note that this effectively reduces the extent to which individual differences and circumstances can be fully incorporated in the investigation. This has positively placed the writer of this research study to combine all the three approaches of interviewing mentioned above. It enables him to obtain quality data to facilitate “triangulation” at the “interview level” as well.

**Semi-structured Interview**

This second approach, in the general interview guideline, is also known as semi-structured interview. Fontana and Frey (2000) stress that this involves the preparation of an interview guideline that lists a pre-determined set of questions or issues that are to be explored during the interview. For this research study, the above interview guideline question format has largely been mentioned in the interview section of this chapter. According to Patton (2002), this guideline also serves as a checklist during the interview to ensure that the same questions are asked to obtain the same information from a number of persons. Still, there is a great deal of flexibility, as the order and the actual wording of the questions are not determined in advance. Wright (2007) goes on to say that the interviewee is often given the freedom to respond to the situation at hand and to other ideas on the research topic. While this approach creates a good interview environment, it also provides opportunities for the interviewer and the interviewee to
explore further into the topic and learn from one another. According to Patton (2002), this approach also provides better opportunity in facilitating the collection of reliable qualitative data.

In this study, the researcher has experienced the advantage of the interview guide approach in that it makes interviewing of a number of different people more systematic and comprehensive by delimiting the issues to be taken up. Rubin and Rubin (1995), Sharma (2000) and Wright (2007) have also stressed that even though certain logical gaps in the data collected can be anticipated, this mode would assist the interviews to remain fairly conversational and situational, at the same time, not losing the focus of the study.

Some writers have noted certain limitations to this approach (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007). It does not permit the interviewer to pursue other topics and issues of interests that are not anticipated when the interview guide is prepared. Patton (2000) also points out that interviewer flexibility in working and sequencing questions may result in substantially different responses from different persons, thus reducing comparability in the research results. This limitation was addressed in this study by the use of all the three approaches mentioned herein. It further proves the necessity for the researcher to be well equipped with those essential research skills, knowledge and personal qualities which have been mentioned in the earlier portion of this chapter.

**Informal Conversational**

Qualitative researchers, observed Fontana and Frey (2000), also use informal conversational interviews, commonly identified as unstructured interviews to collect data. This approach relied primarily on the spontaneous generation of questions and takes a more natural mode of conversation. Rubin and Rubin (1995), Sharma (2000) and Aveau (2003) have further clarified that an unstructured interview focuses on a specific topic, but does not have definite structure, preconceived plan or expectation as to how the interview will proceed. In other words, unstructured interview is more ‘free-wheeling’ and conversational. This interview approach notes, Wright (2007), is appropriate when the researcher wants to maintain maximum flexibility to pursue questioning in whatever direction that appears appropriate, depending on the information that emerges from observing a particular setting. Patton (2002) states that this approach works particularly well where the researcher is able to stay in the setting for a period of
time and do not depend on a single interview opportunity. For instance, Sharma (2000) became a temporary teacher for three months in his case-study schools. Owing to the opportunity of engaging in informal conversation sessions, he was not limited to any interview opportunity. He fully agreed that he was able to get all the in-depth information about TVET in the talanoa sessions which would not have been possible through other conventional approaches such as observations, interviews and desk or documentary study. He further confirmed that this was a good way to triangulate data.

In this study, the three approaches have been used concurrently during person to person and group interview sessions to solicit the required information on the initiation, implementation and the outcomes of the affirmative action policy in education for the indigenous Fijians and Rotuman.

**Indigenous Fijian Approach**

**Talanoa**

Talanoa, according to Nabobo-Baba (2006), is a process in which two or more people talk together, or in which one person tells a story to an audience who is largely a listener. Sharma (2000) also notes that “talanoa” is a Fijian customary practice which is an open, informal and unstructured discussion or a dialogue session.

Nabobo-Baba (2006) further clarifies that some talanoa sessions are more formal than others. The more formal ones may involve “yaqona” being served, normally after being mixed with water in a large wooden carved bowl. The attendance in such situation is being restricted to villagers who know those who should attend and who should not.

Informal talanoa sessions are light-hearted, with passers-by often being called in to participate. Most after-hours talanoa sessions, says Nabobo-Baba, are done around “yaqona” bowl. Sharma (2000) further observes that he was able to identify talanoa as a useful method to gather data that

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46 Fijians are now referred to from 2010 as the iTaukei by the present Military Government.
47 It was the first indigenous Fijian approach employed in the study. The whole conversation during the talanoa was conducted in the indigenous Fijian language while some had employed the dialect of the respondents.
48 ‘Yaqona’ is derived from a species of pepper plant, *piper methysticum* – a plant, the roots of which are prepared and used by Fijians (iTaukei) as a social and ceremonial drink (Ravuvu, 1983:121).
could be used in addition to the formal qualitative approaches. In this research study, the talanoa approach became necessary because the research informants were not able to discuss the full range of issues raised in other data gathering approaches. With the use of talanoa, in the informants’ own dialects, all participants were at ease in this study. This situation had further assisted in collecting certain valuable information which might not have been possible using the conversational approaches.

Sometimes in interviews, Sharma (2000) points out that he had wondered if he had really understood TVET from the perspectives of the research informants. Therefore, talanoa or informal discussion sessions had been organized to meet those limitations in his data collection. For this study, interview sessions quickly turned into talanoa when others could not control themselves in their wish to voluntarily discuss the issues. This had assisted both the researcher and the informants to fully understand and appreciate the whole purpose of the study and the varying benefits that could be gained from such an exercise.

In such a talanoa session, people often sit around the “Tanoa”\(^{49}\), as shown in Figure 4.2, drink “yaqona” and talk freely on a number of issues. Nabobo-Baba (2006) says that the use of “yaqona” in the talanoa session gives the session a transcendental atmosphere. The people in these sessions are not only communicating with each other but also with the supernatural powers with the influence of their ancestral God as used to be practised in the pre-Christian era. Such communication mode always takes place through both verbalizing and in silence. Silence is an important skill in this case.

Sharma (2000) further emphasizes that despite certain limitations considered by some, talanoa has considerable potential for future work in qualitative research methodology.

Nabobo-Baba (2006) found in her study that in the ‘vanua’ research among indigenous Fijians, talanoa rather than formal interviews are used to obtain information. In fact, talanoa embody Fijian information-sharing protocol. A talanoa session does not happen in a void. In the Fijian

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\(^{49}\) ‘Tanoa’ is a wooden carved bowl of various dimensions from at least 6 inches in diameter. It is specifically used in the mixing of ‘yaqona’ with water for the sole purpose of serving the participants of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa sessions whether held formally or informally.
community, a talanoa, or a request for talanoa, says Nabobo-Baba, occurs in a specific cultural context, with expectations articulated by the people concerned. Talanoa is also guided by rules of relationship and kinship in the indigenous Fijian context, shared ways of knowing, knowledge and worldviews.

**Guides to the Nature of Talanoa**

In indigenous Fijian research, there are certain recognized guidelines that could assist in the proper-functioning of a talanoa session. Nabobo-Baba (2006: 28) has further suggested that answers to the following questions could be employed by the qualitative researchers in order to meet their objectives in adopting talanoa as a research approach:

- What is the appropriate way to approach people when seeking information or knowledge?
- How do we ask questions without appearing abrasive?
- What are the protocols, structures and processes that determine the way the knowledge seekers ask questions?
- Who can ask and who can answer the questions? Who are the relevant repositories of knowledge?
- Who will speak on behalf of the clan? How will the selection of the sample be done so that the researcher does not exclude or insult people?
- How does “clan boundary” influence the process of research and talanoa?

As mentioned earlier, the above guidelines are relevant to this study particularly when their views as policy users who are members of the school communities in the villages, settlements, districts and provinces, would be sought to determine the actual level and the effectiveness of the implementation process of the affirmative action policy in education.

**Talanoa Protocols**

Observing the proper protocol is always a necessity in qualitative research approach, particularly when the rural indigenous Fijian communities are involved. This, as Ravuvu (1988:8) says, touches on their cultural aspects:

These include the belief and value system of the people and the various types of relationships between individuals with and between groups, and the individual and his physical environment, and together with the ‘i tovo vakavanua’ (customary practices or habit in the nature of the land). These determine how people think and act.
When the researcher of this study made his first research trip to a rural island location, he made it certain that such protocols were fully observed. The following was the response from his informants:

Mataqali, i mino tale i dua na ere i na dredre vei kemuruka. Ni sa mai ciqomi na nomuru i sevusevu, me vake ga na noda i vakarau, sa matata vinaka sara tale ga nai naki ni nomura tadu jiko mai. Mi sa vakavinavinaka, ka vakauasivi na kena segaji jiko mai na Matanitu me kemi mai qaravi jiko vakavinaka na tu i na taudaku ni vi koro vakavavalagi.

Meaning:

Mataqali (traditionally of the same clan), there is nothing else that can ever hinder what you intend to do. We have already traditionally accepted your ‘sevusevu’ and fully acknowledge the purpose of your visit. We are therefore most grateful for remembering us in your visit as we know that Government is always attempting to amicably improve its services to us, the rural dwellers.

(Kadavu, 2007)

Gaining Access Traditionally

For the talanoa protocols, Nabobo-Baba (2006) advises that they vary according to some set standards. The adequate level of recognition of such set standards by the qualitative researchers, the better the level of outcomes of the whole research process is going to be achieved. As mentioned earlier, this study also includes the participation of the rural indigenous Fijian communities. It means that the researcher has to pay special attention in the usage of ‘respectful language and dialects, the appropriate choice of words, gestures and the respectful deportment’ from the moment he sets foot in his research settings. Nabobo-Baba in her study refers to the important need “to be vakamarama” or to behave like a lady at all times. The researcher of

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50 To be ‘vakamarama’ is to behave like a lady at all times with all those that she interacts with at the research venue. She is expected to observe all the rituals, with proper dressing attire and be humble in her behaviour in full recognition of the norms of the host community.
this study likewise also emphasises the need “to be vakaturaga\(^{51}\)” or to behave like a gentleman at all times as well.

For the finer details of the guideline of talanoa protocols, Nabobo-Baba (2006:28) has suggested the careful observance of the following standards to vary according to the

- participants ages, clan membership and social status;
- gender and clan membership of the researcher who is requesting knowledge;
- status of who is being requested to Talanoa;
- people present in the house who hear and validate the speakers’ account;
- yaqona that is presented formally at the beginning to request the speaker to speak and the yaqona that is provided by the owner of the house where the talanoa is taking place and which is to be drunk during the talanoa and vitalanoa;
- gifts presented on arrival;
- types of questions being asked, and
- clan boundaries

By appropriately observing all of the above talanoa protocols, the researcher of this study is concurrently adopting the indigenous Fijian methods of gaining access to his research sites and settings. This then leads into the process of gathering data in the indigenous Fijian way of research.

**Gathering Data in Talanoa**

As a means of gathering data with the rural indigenous Fijian communities, Nabobo-Baba (2006) seems to favour talanoa rather than formal interviews as a preferred way of obtaining data. This was supported by an incident that happened in a particular rural village with the researcher of this study and his respondent, in a cassette tape recorded interview. In the process of the interview, the following humorous remarks were made by the rest of the talanoa congregation:

Na qase kiari i sa yatayata i rua tu. Daka qai vakacalai iko.
Kua so ni vakabauji kia sara ni sa tutu ga i vale.
Na jina ga ko via kila, i jiko ga kia vei kemi. Muru qai laki vitalanoa ruarua tale i na dua na gauna.

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\(^{51}\) To be ‘vakaturaga’ is to behave like a gentleman at all times with all those that he interacts with at the research venue. He is expected to observe all the rituals, with proper dressing attire and be courteous in his interaction with those in the host community.
Meaning:

That old man has lost his sense of focus. He is bound to mislead you. Do not believe in him as he prefers to stay alone at home. All the pertinent information you need is here with us. You two can have your session at a later date.

(Galoa Village Hall, 2009)

After having positively responded to the above, the researcher was more excited with the renewed responses from almost all those, all males, in the talanoa session. As a result, he was fully satisfied with all the responses that he received within the ensuing fifty minutes that followed.

Vitalanoa\textsuperscript{52} sessions followed immediately after they noticed that the researcher had securely placed his cassette tape-recorder back into its case. There were about 30 in the gathering. Four were the researcher’s uncles, close relatives of both his parents with their ages ranged from 68 to 77. About five were of the same age group as the researcher while the rest were made up of some of the village youths whose ages range from 21 to 25. The others, who were the core of the male population, about 20 of them, had gone for a Methodist Church function on the main island of Kadavu, located ten minutes by powered outboard motor fibre-glass boat.

The vitalanoa session went on between two, between three to five and even between the elders who had placed themselves in the customary position at the head of the gathering, about ten to twelve feet away from the ‘tanoa’. The youths also had their own vitalanoa behind the ‘tanoa’, whilst the ones who were closer to the researcher had also attentively paid closer attention to some of his thoughts on the important topic of the day Fiji wide, the National Council for Building a Better Fiji (NCBBF) Charter.

Whenever the researcher had the opportunity, he took note of some of the thoughts from some of the participants in the vitalanoa sessions who later became his respondents for the vakamuritalanoa sessions that followed the next day.

\textsuperscript{52} Vitalanoa is an indigenous Fijian approach in qualitative study. It supports talanoa and vakamuritalanoa. It normally occurs casually before, during and after a formal talanoa session between two, three, four or even five participants employing their own dialects.
Vakamuritalanoa

As the third Indigenous Fijian research method in qualitative research used in this study, vakamuritalanoa normally follows on from talanoa and vitalanoa sessions. As stated earlier, vakamuritalanoa is more in-depth, more personal, and a more one-to-one relationship between the qualitative researcher and the informant. Vakamuritalanoa, as an indigenous Fijian research approach is being introduced for the first time in this study.

Nawadra (2008) agrees that when a qualitative researcher continues to seek more in-depth information from an informant, who has had an earlier talanoa session with the researcher, this follow-on process is termed as vakamuritalanoa. He clarifies this notion further:

Ni ko via lesuva tale e dua na veitalanoa kei koya e a sa soli tukutuku oti ki na nomu vakadidike, baleta ni ko via vakamatataka e dua nai tukutuku e a solia vei iko, se ko via kila vakatitobu eso tale nai tukutuku ko kila ni a se bera ni a vakamatataka sara e na nomudrau veitalanoa taumada, oqori ga na vakamuri talanoa.

Meaning:

When you intend to follow-up on an earlier talanoa with your informant for further clarification or for more in-depth information, that follow-up process is rightly called, vakamuritalanoa.

(Nawadra, 2008)

The Nature of Vakamuritalanoa

Normally, a meaningful and cordial relationship exists between the qualitative researcher and the informant. As their earlier talanoa sessions had prompted this vakamuritalanoa, they should by that time be more committed to assisting each other. Whilst the researcher is to better understand the informant’s personal, official status and position the informant is to also exhibit a more cooperative stance by readily providing whatever information that is being sought by the researcher.

It is essential that the vakamuritalanoa is conducted in a more conducive environment, particularly favouring the informants. This involves the choice of location, time and the voluntary provision of such essential necessities as morning tea, afternoon tea, lunch, dinner or
‘yaqona’. Any other materials or financial needs that are required during the vakamuritalanoa have to be met by the researcher as well.

It will not be necessary for the researcher to spend nights in the informants’ household in the vakamuritalanoa. Instead, prior arrangements had to be negotiated for him to be at the research studies whenever he was required.

The actual research activities in the vakamuritalanoa include a combination of observation, talanoa and vitalanoa, among the researcher and the respondents.

To record the sequence of events during the vakamuritalanoa, the researcher has to have a field notebook, a cassette tape recorder and a camera. The immediate extraction of the recorded data after the vakamuritalanoa would be helpful in the final compilation of the research information.

As mentioned earlier, the special nature of vakamuritalanoa ensures that special bonding of mutual trust; respect and a deep meaningful observance of the Fijian customs are maintained during and after the vakamuritalanoa sessions. It is therefore vitally important for the researchers to take special care of the information that has been shared, to know what to impart and how to impart, while deeply recognizing and valuing the entire spirit surrounding the shared information during the vakamuritalanoa.
Guides to the nature of Vakamuritalanoa

As for Talanoa, vakamuritalanoa has recognized guidelines that may amicably assist in its proper process during the fieldwork trips. Through the findings of this study and further supported by Nabobo-Baba (2006) and Nawadra (2008), the following have been suggested as the guidelines for the researchers of vakamuritalanoa:

- In re-approaching an informant for the vakamuritalanoa, what is the most appropriate way to adopt when requesting for more information and knowledge?
- How do you maintain the ‘vakamarama’ or the ‘vakaturaga’ way in asking questions without being perceived to be harsh or irritating?
- In determining the way the knowledge seekers can ask the right questions, what are the appropriate protocols, structures and processes to be followed and maintained?
- Who else should be present in the vakamuritalanoa sessions and why?
- Who should decide the location and time that are most appropriate for a vakamuritalanoa session and why?
• What level of assurance and security could the informant is provided in relation to the in-depth information that has been released to the qualitative researcher?
• How can such assurance be tangibly provided to the informant?

As mentioned earlier, such guidelines are relevant to this study particularly, when the rural indigenous Fijian communities are deeply involved. It would touch them in the way they think, act and inter-related amongst themselves in their normal settings.

**Vakamuritalanoa Protocol**

The researcher’s choice for an informant to be a subject in a vakamuritalanoa session(s) is often made after some careful considerations and deliberations. The foremost consideration would rest on the special bond of mutual-trust, respect and sincere acceptance between the researcher and the informant. This is also in regards to how well they are able to take special care of the information that is due to transpire between them. The informant is usually widely recognized and respected in the community as an authority on their culture and tradition with some in-depth information on the community’s economic and social background.

The right choice for the informants in the vakamuritalanoa would also ensure the appropriate level of support that would be forthcoming from the community. Nabuka (2008) clarifies this further with the following:

Io, tau. Ni dodonu ga nomu digitaka o koya ona vakamuria na nomudrau a veitalanoa taumada, na vinaka talega ni veitokoni era na solia ve iko na lewe ni vanua. Baleta talega ni ra kila ni ra sa matataki tiko mai vua e dua era vakabauti koya, ka ra dokai koya dina.

**Meaning:**

Yes, Tau (of the same ancestral God). When you make the right choice of who should be your informant in the vakamuritalanoa, you will also be fully supported by the whole community, knowing that they have been represented by someone who they believe and deeply respect.

(Nabuka, 2008)
**Gaining Access in Vakamuritalanoa**

Gaining access in the vakamuritalanoa would be more personal and be a one-to-one relationship between the researcher and the informant. Basically, this vakamuritalanoa method of the indigenous Fijian research is closely related to the qualitative research methods of observations, in-depth interviews, and the talanoa and vitalanoa sessions. This is supported further by Fua (2007) who says that ‘Nofo’ (the Tongan version of vakamuritalanoa) is a combination of observation and talanoa. This is followed in this study.

Once the choice of the informant of the vakamuritalanoa is established, the researcher would informally approach the subject by telephone or in person to confirm the venue and time of the session. If the vakamuritalanoa is to be conducted in an office according to the informant’s preference, the session would be preceded with a well-prepared lunch or morning tea.

If the informant prefers to have the vakamuritalanoa in the relaxed environment of his home, the researcher has to appropriately approach the session by providing the essential necessities of morning tea, afternoon tea or lunch and dinner, either a day earlier or personally brought by the researcher prior to the vakamuritalanoa session. In one such vakamuritalanoa session with a Head Teacher of a primary school in Kadavu, the researcher had to observe the solemn traditional custom of acknowledging the earlier death of the informant’s elder brother by offering as his “Boka” (six four gallon drums of kerosene and a kilo of pounded ‘yaqona’). This indicated the close blood relationship that existed between the researcher and the informant. In return, the researcher was reciprocated with a ‘three foot sized Trevelly’ (special fish) in deep recognition of adhering to this indigenous Fijian customary practice.

The above had assisted in firmly establishing an assured positive response by the informant once the researcher started to gather the required data through the ensuing vakamuritalanoa session.

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53 A collection of 4 gallon drums of kerosene, yaqona and in some cases, one or two whales tooth that are presented to the host signifying deep sorrow for the passing away of a close relative. The researcher and the host were also closely related through their parental grandparents.

54 A special species of Trevelly fish (Saqa) specially selected for chiefs as a Fijian customary practice that are normally provided by the traditional fisherman (gonedau). In this instance, it was a matter of reciprocal undertaking for the host to her kinship.
Gathering Data in Vakamuritalanoa

To have a vakamuritalanoa, one becomes part of the setting, which means that the researcher must be immersed in the context to the point that there is minimal impact on the natural setting. Also, by appropriately observing this ethical conduct, the researcher was readily accepted which further strengthened the important need to support and work alongside the informants. It is in such process of working together that the researcher normally shows humility and willingness to “learn” from the informants.

Fua (2007), who refers to vakamuritalanoa as Nofo in the Tongan language, says that this indigenous research strategy is also flexible and is able to be adapted to suit the purpose of the research. For instance, it has been used in the village contexts in some of the Pacific Island Countries such as Tonga, Nauru, Marshall Islands and Samoa.

Although traditionally taken to mean living or at least spending a few days in a place, Fua further clarifies that ‘Nofo’ sessions have also been adjusted to suit several purposes. For instance in Tonga, researchers spend a day in the field for at least two days. In Nauru, it was reduced to one day and for five hours during one day of fieldwork. For this research study in Fiji, vakamuritalanoa had been conducted from 10:00am to 4:00pm according to the preference of the informants and in the privacy of their homes. Fua (2007) further emphasizes that “reading the terrain” is vital to knowing how long a Nofo or vakamuritalanoa should take place.

Vakamuritalanoa, when used with talanoa, Fua (2007) stresses that it has been proven to accelerate data saturation within that particular field site. In Tonga, for instance, it was initially planned that field researchers would spend three days per village site, but after two days of fieldwork, the collected data had already shown repetition. The combination of the three indigenous Fijian research methods of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa has enabled the researcher of this study to collect a vast array of special information and with specific details regarding each system of knowledge.

Vakamuritalanoa has been identified and appropriately developed by the researcher of this study to further complement talanoa, and vitalanoa as well as other conventional approaches that were
carried out during the fieldwork trips. Essentially, while recognizing that Pacific culture is strongly oral in tradition, it is also in our silences and our behaviours that we speak and relate to others. Fua supports this further by saying that this is not always captured through Talanoa alone. She further says that when talanoa is combined with vakamuritalanoa, a field researcher is then better able to “read” the silences, the innuendo, the implied meanings and the hidden language of the Pacific people.

With the identification and further development of vakamuritalanoa it has consequently allowed the researcher to fully understand the context in its totality. That is, the participant is understood within his context, taking into consideration his belief, relationships, circumstances, economics, politics and all aspects that make up this person’s way of being (Fua, 2007). This means that the data collected is specific in its context and it is also understood within that particular context.

When vakamuritalanoa is used in combination with or after talanoa and vitalanoa, it is indeed a physically and mentally demanding form of research. It is stressed that vakamuritalanoa also need some modern research equipment such as cassette tape recorders and cameras knowing:

- There is a need to amicably capture and appropriately document what Fua (2007) calls the continuing recognition that Pacific culture is strongly oral in tradition and it is also in our silences and our behaviours that we tend to speak and actually relate to others.

- As the indigenous peoples of the PICs, we need to vigorously promote what we value and inherit from our ancestors to positively inform our global neighbours that in our own contexts, there are certain things that are unique to us and they should recognize us for this uniqueness.

Previously, indigenous Fijian researchers would only have him or her as the research tool. This has changed. This means that the informants and respondents are now interested to read, see and hear the extracts of their contributions and responses. As mentioned earlier, research tools include a cassette tape recorder, a camera, field notes and guided in-depth research questions in the fieldwork.
ETHICAL PROCEDURES

The necessity of establishing a morally correct methodology in any research study is indeed the central focus of this investigation, which calls for the in-depth study of the case-study settings. This is further supported by Cohen and Manion (1994) when they say:

Social scientists generally have a responsibility not only to their profession in its search for knowledge and quest for truth, but also for the subject they depend on for their work… (They) must take into account the effect of the research on participants, and act in such a way as to preserve their dignity as human being.

(Cohen and Manion (1994)
(Cited in Sharma, 2000: 170)

As a result of the above emphasis, the researcher of this study is fully committed to adhere to proper attitude, responsibility and respect by adopting the “informed consent” approach. For instance, in certain situations, there were only handfulls that were actually shy to participate in interviews, but were quite comfortable in the talanoa or group sessions. Other interviewees were assured of their confidentiality and anonymity in compliance with the research ethics adopted in this study. Furthermore, Diener and Crandall (cited in Sharma, 2000: 170) have further clarified this approach by saying that the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in any investigations after being informed would be a personal decision. At the same time, Winter (1996) and Nabobo-Baba (2004) have identified the following six guiding ethical principles for researchers of such study as this one together with his research informants.

- Make sure that the relevant persons, committees and authorities have been consulted and that the principles guiding the work are accepted in advance by all.
- All participants must be allowed to influence the work and the wishes of those who do not wish to participate must be respected.
- The development of the work must remain visible and open to suggestions from others.
- Permission must be obtained before making observations or examining documents produced for other purposes.
- Descriptions of others’ work and points of view must be negotiated with those concerned before being published.
- The researcher must accept responsibility for maintaining confidentiality.

(Winter, 1996: 16-17)
The above assumptions were given to everyone who was to be engaged in this research study before the research process began. For instance, as mentioned earlier, initial step was taken formally to seek permission from six permanent secretaries of the relevant Government Ministries to allow the researcher to conduct research in their respective organizations. As the researcher was a recently retired senior civil servant and a government Member of Parliament, there were positive and overwhelming responses received which had actually encouraged him. This provided a sense of easiness and trust amongst the researcher and the research informants. It also set the positive stage for all involved to be more open and willing to share their opinions on the benefits and non-benefits of the affirmative action policy in education of indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

As mentioned earlier, the study adopted the ‘informed consent’ approach. Therefore, the anonymity and the confidentiality of the research respondents were observed. However, to exclusively observe this in a small community is not always possible. Wherever such situation arose, prior approval was sought from the concerned research respondents. Their choice to participate in the investigation or not was respected. Furthermore, the draft transcripts were returned to the concerned respondents for validation and comments. The comments and suggestions were accommodated, and accordingly further additions and deletions were made. Therefore, in a few cases where respondents were identifiable, prior approval was obtained and when they were happy the data were presented in the thesis. Nevertheless, attempts were made throughout the study to provide anonymity and confidentiality to research respondents.

GAINING ACCESS FOR FIELDWORK

As acknowledged by writers such as Sharma (2000), Wright (2007) and Bogdan and Biklen (2007) that the first challenge that faces a qualitative researcher is getting permission to conduct a planned study. In certain instances, it has been established that some have been able to circumvent this initial challenge by conducting covert research, the collection of data without their subjects’ knowledge. Sharma (2000) and Nabobo-Baba (2005), however, suggest that whilst some excellent researches have been achieved in that manner, the advice to the new qualitative researchers is to employ the overt approach. Researchers should actually declare their
interest at the outset and seek the cooperation of those that they intend to study. Bogdon and Biklen (2007) support this further by saying that under most circumstances, if permission is well negotiated, doing research openly provides the advantage of release from the duties of being a regular participant and therefore, the freedom to come and go as they wish. As emphasized in the ethical procedures section of this study, it is vitally important to know and recognize that lying is not only awkward, but also offensive. Moreover, when the researcher is caught in misrepresentation, it is not only embarrassing, but also can be quite devastating to the whole research study.

Bogdan and Biklen (2007) also emphasize that qualitative researchers are in a somewhat unique position when negotiating entry in that many people are not familiar with the approach. For some of them, research means controlled experiments or survey research. Whilst that perception can cause problems in communicating with gatekeepers, it offers some advantages. For instance, when people are told that the researcher plans to spend some time on the premises in an unobtrusive manner, that he is not going to require people to fill out forms, answer specific questions, or alter their normal routine, the response is often taken that the researcher is not really doing formal research. This situation provides the researcher with less ‘red-tape’ to cut through and also gives him the needed time and space to conduct his study without much hindrance.

Gaining access, according to Bogdan and Biklen (2007), is not something that occurs at the beginning of the research study. Throughout many studies, permission is sought and cooperation has to be gained as the researcher moves out into new territories and meets new people. Furthermore, in explaining himself at the start of the study and during its course, the informants of the research study will consequently have questions, many of which will recur. To further assist the qualitative researcher, the following is a list of five such common questions with brief suggestions about how to effectively respond (Bogdan and Biklen 2007: 87).

- “What are you actually going to do?”

A general rule to follow in answering all questions is to be honest. The researcher should not lie and not be too specific or lengthy in his explanations. He should not use a lot of research jargon, as he is bound to scare or turn-off people.
• “Will you be disruptive?”

This is a common concern of school personnel. They fear that the presence of the researcher will interfere with their routine work. It is important to allay these fears. Part of being successful is being non-disruptive. Instead, the researcher should share with them his intention of fitting his schedule around theirs.

• “What are you going to do with your findings?”

Most people ask this question because they fear negative publicity or the political use of the information the researcher gathers. The researcher should tell them that he does not plan to use anyone’s name and that he will also disguise the location.

• “Why us?”

People often want an explanation of why they or their organizations have been selected for the study. If the researcher has heard positive comments about them that help direct his choice, he should tell his subjects. The researcher is not a news reporter looking into their institution. He is an educational researcher trying to study them and their institution so that he can better understand education.

• “What will we get out of this?”

Many school personnel expect reciprocity. They figure that if they provide the researcher access, they should get something in return. He should decide what he is prepared to give. Guard against bargaining. The relationship that the researcher forms becomes especially meaningful during fieldwork, though they may lose importance later.

Finally, qualitative researchers should note that negotiating permission is indeed tricky. To further assist the researcher, the following three bits of advice have been suggested to be taken into consideration (Bogdan and Biklen 2007: 89):

Be persistent.

Often the difference between the person who gets in and the person who strikes out is how long and how diligently he is in pursuit.

Be flexible.

If the researcher’s first idea of how to proceed seems ill conceived, he should come up with a different plan or a new approach altogether.
Be creative.

Often gatekeepers appreciate a new idea. For instance, researchers may be personally influenced to take small gifts to his subjects. Holiday greeting cards are not out of the question, and although they may not get the researcher in, they may still keep the door open.

For this study, it was important to pay careful attention on how and when to seek access for fieldwork research activities. As discussed earlier, it was a normal matter of official protocol to inform the six permanent secretaries of the relevant Ministries well in advance as a way for gaining the required access to their respective organizations.

This early initiative had also benefited both the researcher as well as the respondents in giving them a fair opportunity to know what to expect and how they were going to respond to each other. For the researcher, he also had to submit in advance his research schedules with the attachments of Figure 4.2, Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 in order to be given approval both by his Supervisor and the relevant USP authorities for the required funding for the research study.

The schools that the researcher had identified had been randomly selected from a list provided by the Special Projects Division (SPU/AMU) of the MOE. Each of the four Divisional Education Offices had played their supportive role quite well by contacting the identified schools’ management, school heads, teachers, students and communities at least two weeks in advance before the researchers’ scheduled visits. This was quite evident because by the time the researcher had made his final assurances directly with the identified schools, they were fully aware of the purpose of the visits and were fully prepared to receive him.

Another advantage of paying careful attention on how and when to seek access for fieldwork was experienced by the researcher. He had to continuously revisit those individuals, organizations as well as those schools in order to reconcile his research findings which are the permanent characteristics of any qualitative research project. Such re-visits had further established the cordial and truthful relationship between the researcher and the respondents. Their draft copies of recorded interviews, talanoa, vitalanoa, and vakamuritalanoa were further discussed amongst them with some needed amendments made to everyone’s satisfaction. This had also prompted the cooperative and responsible attitudes of the respondents that whatever had been the outcome
of in this study had been to everyone’s genuine feelings and personal contribution. In this way, the researcher was able to make the study transparent to the respective audiences.

Moreover, in the process of finally visiting the Divisional Education Offices, schools and communities, the Fijian traditional protocol ceremony of ‘sevusevu’ was presented at each of those selected centres. ‘According to Ravuvu (1983: 120) ‘sevusevu’ is:

The ceremonial offering of yaqona by the host to the guest, or the guest to his / her host was done in respect of recognition and acceptance of one another.

‘Sevusevu’ is also recorded by Unaisi Nabobo-Baba (2006: 26) as

The ‘yaqona’ presented by the visitor on arrival at the home, village or meeting one is entering or attending. The ‘sevusevu’ is an appropriate customs, and shows respect for the owners of the home, ceremony or function. Once the ‘sevusevu’ is accepted, the purpose of the visit is readily embraced.

According to Sharma (2000), ‘sevusevu’ the Fijian customary way of seeking access is not only accepted with sincere appreciation, but it also sets a sense of intimacy for the research. It was during such ceremony, the chief host, the DEOs for his field staff and the school heads for his / her teachers, the researcher was formally welcomed, introduced to the staff and explained the purpose of the visit. This was also an opportunity for the researcher to officially address everyone present, outlining the aims of the study, the research methodology and the ethical procedures that were to be observed.

In this study, the schools were the central contacts for parents and other members of the research population.

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

have indicated that the data collection and analysis are always conducted together, rather than as distinct and separate phases. She explains that the analysis process starts in the pre-fieldwork stage, where the research questions are formulated and then carries on to the fieldwork and post-fieldwork stage of the whole research process. As indicated earlier, the research design framework shown in figure 4.1 provides the required guideline to this research process. This simply means that the data collection and data analysis is definitely an ongoing process. Without this ongoing analysis, Merriam (1998) notes that the researchers take the risk of ending up with data that are unfocused, repetitious and overwhelming in the sheer volume of material that needs to be processed. Such early analysis, says Cohen et al. (2002), reduces data overload further by separating the significant features of unused data for future use in other related studies.

Furthermore, Strauss and Corbin (1994), Cohen et al. (2002), and Holiday (2002) have stressed the importance of clearly understanding that qualitative data analysis involves the processes of coding, cataloguing, cross-examining and theorizing.

As qualitative analysis requires the creative involvement of the researcher, it has fulfilled Crabtree and Miller’s (1992) assertion that nearly as many analysis strategies exist as qualitative researchers. Although there is no one right way to conduct qualitative analysis, other authors such as Crabtree and Miller (1992), Maxwell (1996) and Junior (2010) have developed categorization of methods to assist in the discussion of analysis. In fact, the choice of the strategies and analysis depends upon the research questions on what is already known about the research topics and on the methods of data collection.

Wright (2007) further observes that whilst there are many different qualitative research paradigms that are bound to influence how researchers approach the task of data analysis and interpretations, there is always a common sequence of steps that are observed across a number of paradigms. Miles and Huberman (1994) have offered some helpful suggestions for analyzing data as they are being collected, with the following view points as cited in Wright (2007: 83):

- devising and affixing codes to field notes derived from observation, interviews or documentary analysis;
- familiarizing with the data through review, reading, listening;
- noting the researcher’s reflections on the observation (e.g. as margin notes);
identifying preliminary patterns themes and relationships;
conducting a more focused investigation of observed commonalities and differences in the next wave of data collection;
gradually arriving at interpretations;
verifying these integrations (e.g. using coding to check the study participants, triangulating from different data courses, or getting another member of the research team to examine the chain of evidence).

QUALITATIVE DATA INTERPRETATION

Data interpretation refers to developing ideas about research findings and relating them to the literature and broader concerns and concepts. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) further note that this involves explaining and framing ideas in relation to theory, other scholarship and action as well as showing why their findings are important and making them understandable.

However, it has been recognized that while it is relatively easy to come up with an explanation or the difference between data interpretation and data analysis, it is in fact much more difficult to separate the two in the process of conducting qualitative research. This is the accepted truth because the findings and ideas about findings emerge together.

Bogdan and Biklen (2007) also emphasise that when it comes to focusing the task of analyzing and interpreting the research findings and trying to make sense out of the collected materials, it will always appear impressive when one is involved in a first research project. As for those who have never undertaken such research activities, analysis looms large and more so the task of interpreting. Whilst they can be avoided by remaining in the research field collecting data, this situation should be handled with caution as anxieties are due to start mounting. For instance, such niggling questions will cross the researchers mind thus creating unnecessary confusions and worries such as:

I didn’t get anything good;
I have wasted my time;
this job is impossible; and
my career will end with this mess of unanalyzed field notes in my computer.

Bogdan and Biklen (2007: 159)
Bogdan and Biklen (2007) have ensured further that such experiences have also crossed the minds of many early qualitative researchers during data analysis and interpretation stages. As suggested earlier, such complicated situation can be resolved through the proper breaking and amicably regrouping of data into their relevant sequential formats.

At the same time, it has been suggested by some novice qualitative researchers that there is a greater need for more qualitative research literature to specifically focus on the data analysis and interpretation of research findings (Wright 2007). This study has noted that both the above and their integration have so far failed to receive enough attention.

As suggested by Bogdan and Biklen (2007) there are many different styles of qualitative research and there are a variety of ways of handling data analysis and interpretation. They have therefore suggested the following two approaches:

First, analysis and interpretation are concurrent with data collection and are more or less completed by the time the data are gathered. This approach is more commonly practiced by experienced fieldworkers.

Second, it involves collecting data before doing the analysis and interpretation. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) have suggested this approach since reflecting about what we are finding and making design decisions while doing the fieldwork is part of every qualitative study. However, qualitative researchers approach this mode but never follow it in its pure form.

It has been further suggested by Sharma (2000), Wright (2007) and Junior (2010) that the beginning researchers should borrow strategies from the ‘analysis-in-the-field’ modes, but leave the more formal analysis and interpretation until most of the data are fully collected and assembled. This approach should assist in solving the problems of establishing rapport and getting on in the field as they are bound to be complicated and too time consuming for beginners to enable them to actively pursue analysis and interpretation. There is also a lot of juggling in the process.

Moreover, new researchers often do not have the theoretical and substantive background to plug into issues and themes when they first arrive on the research scene. Therefore, to effectively
employ on-going analysis and interpretations, one must have an eye for the conceptual and substantive issues that are displayed. However, this would be something someone new to the field, is not likely to be comfortable with, unlike an experienced qualitative researcher (Bogdan and Biklen 2007).

It has been further suggested that there is a need to delay attempts at fully-flagged, ongoing analysis and interpretation, as some analysis have to take place during data collection. For instance, there is a need to decide on the focus. This is based on thinking and making judgements about the data analysis. Without it, the data collection has no direction, thus the data collected may not be substantive enough to accomplish analysis and interpretation later.

In the second part of this chapter, various accounts of the actual data interpretation will be examined further, guided by the seven additional ideas as suggested by Bogdan and Biklen (2007) that can amicably assist the researcher of this study to continue moving along with confidence in his data interpretations.

**THE ACTUAL PROCESS FOLLOWED IN CONDUCTING THIS STUDY**

Before focusing on the process which was actually followed by the researcher in conducting this study, it would be more helpful to the readers to be first informed of the research design. This was considered necessary as it had assisted the researcher in connecting the empirical data to the study’s initial research questions and ultimately to its conclusion.

**RESEARCH DESIGN OF THE STUDY**

As mentioned earlier, the research design of this study has been structured and adapted from Yin’s (1984: 51) study format. The format comfortably meets the nature of this study’s research questions that have been posed, the amount of control required and the desired end product or outcome of the study.

Sharma (2000) notes that whether expressed implicitly and explicitly, this notion of logical sequence is central to the successful conduct of a research study. Merriam (1998) has described this research design further as an “architectural blueprint” which is basically a plan for
assembling, organizing and integrating data and it results in a specific end-product. Aveau (2003) and Wright (2007) have taken the discussion further by saying that it is a plan that guides the researcher in the process of collecting, analyzing and interpreting data. They also confirm that it is a model of proof that allows the researcher to draw inferences concerning casual relations among the variables that are under investigation. This shows that the success of a study is determined by the research design and how it is carried systematically throughout the study.

The research design in Figure 4.1 actually contains a flexible plan for this study. It also clearly outlines its three interrelated phases: pre-fieldwork, fieldwork and post-fieldwork. The main emphasis of the three phases centres on the discussion of the key research findings, its implications in response to the research questions of the study and its recommendations and implications to the many research audiences.

Through recent experiences in this study, it is quite important to revisit certain research sites to reconfirm data and other related information that has been earlier collected. This was needed as shown in Table 4.3, to reconcile other qualitative data such as extracts of in-depth interviews, talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa from members of school communities. Presented hereunder are the actual research process followed in conducting the study.

**RESEARCH PROCESS**

The data collection strategies that were actually employed by the researcher in the study had comprised of the following:-

- Interviews – using guided and in-depth guided questions.
- Direct Observations – in the company of school principals / head teachers.
- Documentary Analysis.
- Talanoa – indigenous Fijian research method.
- Vakamuritalanoa and Vitalanoa – newly established indigenous Fijian methods of research study.

**In-depth Interviews**

As detailed in Table 4.1 a summary of fieldwork activities and all interviews were conducted using the three basic approaches of the:
- Standardized open-ended interview,
- Semi-structured interview, and
- Informal conversational-type interview.

The interviews were mainly employed by the researcher on person-to-person basis for all those respondents who were classified under the three specific categories of the policy change process: initiation, implementation and institutionalization.

For those in the initiation and implementation categories, the following pre-prepared guiding sheets for the interview were used together with recorded cassette tapes:

- Interviewee Profile - Appendix 4.1
- Guiding Questions for the Interview - Appendix 4.2
- In-depth Guiding Questions for the interview - Appendix 4.3
- School Profile - Appendix 4.4

For those in the institutionalization categories, the respondents representing the school communities (teachers and others) were also interviewed by the researcher using those pre-prepared guiding sheets as those used for the initiators and implementers. In addition, and only for school heads (Principals and Head Teachers), an additional sheet titled school profile was specifically set aside for them to respond to the twelve pre-prepared questions.

Almost all the interviews were conducted both in the Fijian language, as well as in the informants’ own dialects. This had actually assisted the researcher to obtain rich qualitative data and had enabled the whole interview process to operate in an amicable manner.

The commitment to employing person to person informal interviews by the researcher as a strategy was needed to be able to establish a clearer insight into the minds and feelings of the research respondents. Much success in this intention depended on the question formats and the ways such questions were carefully put across to the respondents. This had assisted the researcher in seeking the release of pertinent and in-depth information by the respondents. For instance, a school principal had showed his frustration concerning the diversion of his school library books to his neighbouring school by the Ministry of Education. Such information would not have been easily received if the school principal was in the company of his school staff.
For this study, all group interviews were taken in the form of talanoa sessions. The successful outcome of the interviews depended on the control of the sessions.

**Participant Observation**

In this research study, sampling during fieldwork, which was part of participant observation, had been planned to be consistent with the following as its guidelines:

- Who the research respondents were?
- How many research respondents were required?
- How were they selected?
- What questions were asked?
- What to record and how?
- What to see and how long to spend with each respondent and in each research settings?

However, the fieldwork was initially planned to take about 24 weeks. Owing to the researcher’s commitment as a part-time tutor/marker at the University of the South Pacific’s School of Education, the 24 weeks had to be extended to 60 weeks and had to be split into five fieldwork trips.

Table 4.3 further clarifies how the extended period was utilized:

- **1st Visit and Revisits** took 16 weeks (Nov 2007 to Feb 2008)
- **2nd Visit and Revisits** took 8 weeks (June 2008 to July 2008)
- **3rd Visit and Revisits** took 16 weeks (Nov 2008 to Feb 2009)
- **4th Visit and Revisits** took 8 weeks (June 2009 to July 2009)
- **5th Visit and Revisits** took 12 weeks (Sep 29th 2009 to Dec 29, 2009)

Whilst it was important for the researcher to meet the deadline that was being set by his Supervisor, it was also essential that he had to meet his contractual obligation with SOE as its Graduate Assistant by devoting at least eight hours per week towards his tutoring responsibility. Failing to meet the above would have meant the forgoing of his Graduate Assistant Scholarship, which would have been disastrous.

For the decision to match the demand of the fieldwork with the allocated time, the researcher had been overwhelmingly assisted by the MOE personnel: the Minister, his Permanent Secretary,
almost all of the head office personnel, all the four Divisional Office field staff, as well as school heads, teachers and the members of the school management committees. The types and levels of assistance freely rendered by the officers clearly indicated that the implementers of the affirmative action policy were willing to have others to verify and if possible to provide some indication as to the level of achievement that have been attained so far. Incidentally, this was also the core concern of this research study.

To further clarify the finer details of a day’s activities during the field work, a typical day’s programme is presented in Table 4.1 to show how the day was actually spent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.1:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TYPICAL DAY PROGRAMME (9:00am – 5:00pm)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Familiarization Visit (Introduction and ‘Sevusevu’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Briefing – School Principal and Head Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Distributing Interview Guideline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Viewing Projects funded through the “AA” programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Interviewing:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ School Principal and Head Teacher ▪ Teacher (s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Student (s) ▪ School Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Community Rep (s) ▪ Mother (s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Talanoa sessions with the School Community, Parents and other focused groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Vakamuralanoa with certain individuals deriving from earlier interviews, Talanoa and Vitalanoa sessions employing the local dialects as the medium of the oral communication.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In carrying out the above research activities within the identified guidelines, the varying forms and levels of responses received clearly provided almost all the required information that the researcher had anticipated to solicit from the various categories of informants. The following Tables 4.2 and 4.3 below exhibit these guidelines in their respective framework: a summary of fieldwork activities and a summary of fieldwork schedules.

Some other data and pertinent information had been retrieved at a later date by the researcher while revisiting relevant research sites and individuals by successfully adopting the more relaxed and comfortable indigenous Fijian research methods of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuralanoa.
Table – 4.2:  Research Methodology: A Summary of Fieldwork Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Enquiry</th>
<th>Data Collection Methods</th>
<th>Sources of Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics of the Innovation. (the planned)</td>
<td>• Participant Observation</td>
<td>• School Heads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(educational change)</td>
<td>• In-depth interviewing</td>
<td>• Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Talanoa</td>
<td>• Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Vakamuritalanoa</td>
<td>• School Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Documentary analysis</td>
<td>• Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• School Communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Mothers’ Club</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Women’s Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Documents provided by the MOE and the schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Other documents by the PM’s office, the Legislature, and other stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiation</td>
<td>• In-depth Interviewing</td>
<td>• Government Ministers (Past &amp; Present)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Talanoa</td>
<td>• Politicians (Past &amp; Present)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Vakamuritalanoa</td>
<td>• Permanent Secretaries (Past &amp; Present)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Documentary analysis</td>
<td>• Documents provided by the MOE, schools, PM’s Office and Legislature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Documents from other local and global stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>• Participant Observation</td>
<td>• Permanent Secretaries, (PS) (MOE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• In-depth interviewing</td>
<td>• 4 Deputy PSs, MOE:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Talanoa</td>
<td>• <strong>Directors:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Vakamuritalanoa</td>
<td>• Primary TVET Exams Special Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Documentary analysis</td>
<td>• DEO (Eastern)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• DEO (Central)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• DEO (Western)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• DEO (Northern)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• PEOs, SEOs, Eos.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Special Project Division Personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• School Heads, Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Teachers’ Organizations, Other Stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Documents provided by the schools, MOE, EU, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutionalization</td>
<td>• Participant Observation</td>
<td>• School Heads, Teachers, Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• In-depth interviewing</td>
<td>• Parents, School Committees, Chaplains, Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Talanoa</td>
<td>• Mothers’ Club</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Vakamuritalanoa</td>
<td>• Women’s Organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Documentary analysis</td>
<td>• MOE Staff – Teachers’ Organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• MOE’s and Schools’ Development Plans</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Sharma (2000:175)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Visits</th>
<th>Actual Time Taken and Duration</th>
<th>Contact Personnel</th>
<th>Sources of Data – Organizations and Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; Visit and Revisits</td>
<td>Nov 2006 to Feb 2007 (4 months)</td>
<td>Permanent Secretary (PS) Permanent Secretary (PS) Permanent Secretary (PS) Secretary General (SG) Secretary – Public Service (SPS) DPS, MOE – Special Projects Division Staff; MOE, Special Projects Division Individuals</td>
<td>Ministry of Education (MOE) Ministry of Multi-Ethnic Affairs (MMEA) Ministry of Fijian Affairs (MFA) Legislature Public Service Commission (PSC) Ministry of Education (MOE) Ministry of Education (MOE) Urban Communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; Visit and Revisits</td>
<td>June 2007 to July 2007 (2 months)</td>
<td>Directors: - Primary - Secondary - TVET - Curriculum - Exams - Special Projects Director, MEA Scholarship PAS, MFA Scholarship Manager, PSC’s WPSU PRO, Legislature SEO, European Union (EU) FTA &amp; FTU Executives Stakeholders</td>
<td>Ministry of Education MMEA MFA PSC Parliament EU FTA and FTU USP, FIT and TPAF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; Visit and Revisits</td>
<td>Nov 2007 to July 2008 (2 months)</td>
<td>DPS, MOE: Professional Director, TVET Director, Special Projects Division DEO (Eastern) DEO (Northern) SEO (Cakaudrove) Individuals</td>
<td>MOE MOE MOE MOE, 4 schools &amp; communities, Kadavu Province MOE, 4 schools &amp; communities, Cakaudrove Rural Province</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Visit and Revisits</td>
<td>June 2008 to July 2008 (2 months)</td>
<td>SEO, Early Childhood Education Director, MEA Scholarship PAS, MFA Scholarship Manager, PSC’s WPSU Director, Special Project Division SEO, Special Education</td>
<td>MOE MMEA MFA PSC MOE MOE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Visit and Revisits</td>
<td>Sept 29&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; 2008 to Jan 2009 (3 – 5 months)</td>
<td>DEO (Central)</td>
<td>MOE, 1 school &amp; communities, Rewa Province MOE, 1 school &amp; communities, Naitasiri Province</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Observation**

In this research study, the researcher was also a direct observer. He was directed to the various sites where assistance that had been provided through the affirmation action programmes had been kept (texts and library books) and where buildings had been constructed.

The strength of this direct observational study method, as experienced by the researcher, was his direct contact with the real situation. He was able to examine what was actually happening rather than only what had happened. It was therefore the most direct means of studying what and how the various affirmative action programmes had been dispatched to schools and how far they had been utilized for the various reasons they had been acquired to match, particularly for those rural, remote and island schools.

Additionally, the researcher found out that it was almost impossible to record and note down all the observations as the events sometimes happened almost simultaneously and within a short period of time. To be able to overcome this challenge, the researcher used a cassette tape recorder to record some of the observations and a camera, to assist in taking inventories of objects in a setting. These recordings were transcribed during the tabulation and presentation stage of the study.

Moreover, by following the above direct observation method, the researcher was able to establish that the data collected were quite useful in either confirming or contradicting the data further through interviews, documents and other data gathering approaches that were based from official records of government ministries and departments. It also helped determine the next direction of research and all other detail activities that were associated with it.

Therefore, by adopting this direct research method, it helped to lessen the temptation for the researcher to fall into that over-socialising trap. He also found out that he had ample time to meaningfully engage in the talanoa sessions.
Documentary Analysis

As mentioned in Table 4.2, documentary evidence in this study included the following that had been classified under the three specific categories of the policy change process:-

- **Initiation:** Documents provided by the Ministry of Education, Schools, Prime Minister’s Office and the Legislature. Other documents from local and some global stakeholders.

- **Implementation:** Documents provided by the schools, the Ministry of Education, the European Union (EU) and other relevant stakeholders.

- **Institutionalization:** Documents and other information provided by the Ministry of Education, Schools’ Development Plans, Teachers’ Unions, and other relevant Stakeholders.

The above documents had consisted of the Schools’ Development Plans, (immediate, medium and long-term objectives), vision, mission statements with accompanying values, circulars, memorandums, financial reports, statistical reports, national development plans, examination records, students’ reports and records, school magazines and newspapers, media articles, teachers’ work plans, students’ texts and exercise books. As confirmed by Hammersly and Atkinson (1983), Yin (1984), Bogdan and Biklen (1992, 2007), Sharma (2000) and Wright (2007), cross-validating these documents with the ones obtained from other sources and approaches such as interviews and assisted observations had provided the researcher of this study with more insights into the affirmative action policy in education of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans. Furthermore, Watform (quoted in Wright 2007: 104) has emphasized that documentary evidence cannot “simply be understood at face value”. Therefore, the initiation of the production of such documents was carefully probed and systemically analysed. This influenced the researcher’s decision to cross-check the documents with the data obtained through interviews, assisted observations, talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa sessions, to clearly establish a more complete picture of the management of affirmative action in education of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans. At the same time, the researcher kept an open mind and tried to understand the position of the writer that produced the documents.
As the production of the reports on the initiation, implementation and institutionalization of affirmative action had covered the whole period from 2001 to 2006, it also assisted the researcher with relevant information that were valuable in suggesting the direction for interviews and observations. Such information was also used by the researcher to compliment and cross validate data obtained from other sources.

Documents used for the analysis of this study had been sourced from Government documents: the MOE’s Annual Reports, (1996 to 2009) and the AAPs reports, (2002 to 2006) that were obtained both from the MOE’s Special Projects Unit as well as from the Prime Minister’s Planning Section Office. The Parliamentary Research Division together with its Library in the form of Parliamentary Papers had also provided other useful documents particularly, the recorded proceedings of the parliamentary debates on the affirmative action initiatives. The above sources had provided the researcher with sufficient information that had been amicably used to further cross-check and validate figures and other related facts that had been obtained through-out the research study.

The Indigenous Fijian Approaches

The researcher of this study had also adopted the three indigenous Fijian approaches while gathering qualitative data. This had greatly assisted in accessing pertinent and valuable information from the various respondents. The following were then the normal trends of things pertaining to the talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa approaches during the data gathering sessions:

**Talanoa**

As confirmed earlier by Nabobo-Baba, (2006) that when conducting research among indigenous Fijians, Talanoa rather than formal interviews were more favourably employed to obtain information, as talanoa embody Fijian information-sharing protocols. This situation was even favoured by a group of teachers in an urban Primary School in the presence of their Head Teacher and the Principal of the neighbouring Secondary School. After traditionally accepting the researcher’s ‘sevusevu’, the head teacher said:
Master, sa keitou vakavinivaka vakalevu saraga na nomuni itokani ka keitou sa mai waraki kemuni tiko oqo e daidai ena vuku talega ni koronivuli. Sa keitou marautaka na nomuni nakinaki medatou mai veitalanoataka na veika bibi me baleta na kena vukei na nodra vuli na noda gone itaukei. Sa keitou nanamaki tiko kina. Ia, sa dua tiko na nietou kerekere bibi. Sa na rawa beka medatou veitalanoa vata kece ga, ka oti, moni na qai lewa ga se ko cei vei keitou moni na qai lesuvi koya tale mai ena dua na gauna moni na qai digitaka ga vakataki keummi, me na vukea na kena vakamatatataka sara vakavinaka na inaki ni nomuni vakadidike oqo.

Meaning:

We, teachers and on behalf of the school are indeed very grateful to welcome you to our meeting today, Master. We are also happy for this opportunity to be able to discuss and talk things over on the important issues of the preferential programme for the education of our indigenous Fijian children. We are in fact prepared for it. At the same time we have a special request. Could we all congregate in a Talanoa in this session and at the end of it you can then decide on the ones you need to revisit later to further clarify other related and relevant issues regarding the intention of your research study.

This suggested trend of the research approach through talanoa had been decided upon by the focused group of twelve teachers, the school secretary and the school handyman as a result of the familiarization visit by the researcher to the school two weeks earlier. After readily accepting their suggestion, the researcher briefed the group on who was going to chair the talanoa session, the pre-prepared guiding and in-depth guiding questions and the filling in of the group’s profile and the school profile form. The researcher was also careful to properly set up his cassette tape recorder and have his note book easily available for noting down other important points during the two and a half hours of talanoa and vitalanoa sessions that followed. There were four fifteen minutes breaks in between which also presented the opportunity for other teachers to join in the talanoa as well as the vitalanoa sessions.

As anticipated, the entire talanoa session was indeed very fruitful and very successful. Apart from other issues raised everyone had admitted that the community awareness programme conducted by the MOE Head Office staff would have had achieved a lot more if teachers had been asked to be a part of the implementation team network. On the same note, the Head Teacher said:
Keimami lomani kemami na Qasenivuli ni keimami dau guilecavi rawarawa wale tu ga ena veivakatorocaketaki ni vuli vaka oqo. Ia, ni dua ga na ka e yaco vei ira na gonevuli kei na nodra i tubutubu, e dau totolo sara na neimami dau tarogi mai kina na Qasenivuli.

Meaning:

We teachers often feel that we are always left out by not being recognised by our head office staff in such policy matters as this one. But, when something happens to our pupils or our school parents, there is always an instant concern from them.

However, during the interim vitalanoa sessions that followed in between the breaks, the researcher was further assisted to clearly identify his informants for the vakamuritalanoa sessions that followed in the following two weeks.

Vakamuritalanoa

At this stage of the research study, there was already a meaningful and cordial relationship existing between the researcher and the informants. This special bonding was crucially important to be amicably observed by both the major players preceding the vakamuritalanoa and more so afterwards. This was vitally important as certain information that was shared between them would not have been reported in the manner that had been talked about in the vakamuritalanoa but had been expressed in a more diplomatic format and still maintaining its full implications. For instance, a Head Teacher, who was attached to the Head Office of the MOE’s Special Project Division, had shared the following with the researcher in vakamuritalanoa session:

Au sa vakatura eso na vakasama tale eso au nanuma ni rawa ni na vakavinakataka cake kina na neitou Community Awareness Programme. Ia, ni da tamata vakarogoca ga na lewa, au sa dau yaco sara ga e kea, me vaka ga koni sa kila.

Meaning:

While I was a member of the Community Awareness Programme of the Head Office staff, I used to suggest other ways and means of improving our strategies. As I was a subordinate, I could not do much but continue towing the line, as you know.
As the vakamuritalanoa session was meant to follow-up on the earlier talanoa and vitalanoa with the informants to further clarify more in-depth information that had been earlier provided, certain very sincere views had been fully discussed that touched on the foundation of the Indigenous Fijians views, values, beliefs, aspirations and ways of life. For instance, a couple, the husband was 63 years old Indo-Fijian and the wife was a 60 year old indigenous Fijian woman had related the following to the researcher:

Tau, sa noda I tovo tudei na tamata kecega meda dau veivukei, veinanumi, veiraici ka dau veikauwaitaki se vanua cava ga eda bula tu kina. Keirau vakabuata ni o koya sara tale ga oqo e yavutaki kina na veivuke ni vuli oqo vei ira na gone kei na itubutubu era sega soti nira rawati ira sara tu vakavinaka. O ira na veiliutaki, era kila vinaka tu ni dua e leqa ka kere veivuke, eda na sega tale nida na mataboko so didivara kina. Eda na wasea na cava laailai ga e tu vei keda. Oqo talega e vakadeitaka na yalo ni Kalou ka da sucu vata kaya mai. Na noqu vakabauta Vaka-Muslim, mai neitou vala na Koran, e yavutaki kina nai vakavuvuli talei oqo, ni o ira era sa rawati ira tu, e dodonu mera dau solia lesu tale ki na lewenivanua na veika mera vakacegui kina o ira era malumalumu tu na ituvaki ni nodra bula. Tau, ko kila vinaka, nida mate ena sega sara na ka eda na kauta lesu vata kei keda. Meda dau veivukei ga kina, nida se bula tiko, eda na qai saumi dina ga kina mai lomalagi, se era na qai tauca na kena veivakalougatataki ko ira na luveda kei na makubuda.

Meaning:

Tau, (of the same ancestral God) it is well embedded in all our cultural beliefs and values that we tend to care for one another with affection and love where-ever we live and exist. We tend to now believe that this is also the basis of such preferential treatment for those that are socially and educationally backward in our society. Moreover, those in leadership positions are very familiar with our normal and instant response when someone amongst us is in need of assistance. We instantly give and share whatever little we have. This is our natural response which we believe we were born into this world with and is God given. In my religious belief as a Muslim and sourced from the Koran, those that are well-off are obligated to give back to societies material gifts to benefit those that need them. As you only know too well Tau, when we die, we return empty handed. So, we need to continue with such assistance whilst we are still alive as the heavenly blessings will continue to shower on us as well as on our future generations for such good deeds.

Waiyevo, Taveuni (Nov. 2007)
The above views clearly revealed the true feelings of those in rural and island locations on such AAP in education for the indigenous people. It also proved that once they were properly and fully informed of such Government initiative, they would then accordingly appreciate the important need to always provide for those that were underprivileged in our society.

**Data Analysis**

Finally, the foregoing discussions have underpinned the theoretical framework upon which this research design and research process was anchored.

This process of analyzing data as conducted by the researcher through qualitative study approach was indeed very tedious and time-consuming which required a lot of patience and painstaking effort. However, relief had been provided by suggestions attributed towards Miles and Huberman (1994) and supported by Aveau (2003) and Wright (2007) which was reflected in the following three steps that were used to analyze the data of this research study.

First, was the actual transcribing of the tape recorded data from the interviews, talanoa, vitalanoa, and vakamuritalanoa. This was done mainly during the tabulation and presentation period of the study. While it was time consuming and at times quite a tiring activity, it was nevertheless quite exciting as it fully reflected varying views of respondents from the three main categories of the policy process: policy initiators, policy implementers and policy users. It was also successful in the full exposure of quality and original data. This would not have been achieved if the recording of such qualitative data was solely carried out only in the English language. Thaman (2008) supported this indigenous Fijian approach further when she maintained that researchers need to enlist the in-depth feelings and true intentions of the informants especially when the English language was not their first language.

Each interview was dated and labelled according to the interviewee’s name and his / her responding categories as shown in Appendices 5.1 (A) to 5.1 (D). The transcribed data were read and continuously revised which assisted in checking mainly for grammatical errors, repetitions and redundancies. At this stage, the researcher took further notes, comments and queries and searched for regularities and tried to establish if there were set patterns already
developed in the data. This then led him to the next step of his data analysis which was the transformation into categories of the data patterns and their regularities.

Second, was the researcher’s attempt to develop categories and the related themes that assisted in the interpretation of the meaning of the collected data. This was the coding procedure phase of the data process. Following the conceptual framework of the study, the pieces of data collected were grouped into their respective categories. These included the following:

1. The perceptions of relevant stakeholders.
2. The characteristics of the innovation.
3. The initiation.
4. The implementation.
5. The institutionalization.
6. The feedback.
7. The Sub-systems.
8. The Environment.

There were sub-headings that were created under the above broad headings. For instance, under the characteristics of innovations, the created sub-topics included the need, quality and practicality. The collected data were then grouped under the created sub-headings and later coded with their respective numbers to clearly signify their appropriate headings. Next, was the sorting out and grouping of data into their respective categories by using the “cut and paste techniques”. This delicate process was carried out manually for each research respondent. The data that did not fit the above categories were labelled as “general” and were then set aside for future references. The data that were grouped under each category were also further read and re-read for grammatical errors, repetitions and redundancies before they were then printed and sorted out for future reference. The respondents were each given an alphanumeric code as their identification number. For instance, for the alphanumeric code of P1, 2007: 3 refers to the first school principal interviewed, the year, and page number in the fieldwork notes. These codes were actually used throughout the process of data analysis to clearly indicate who made the comments, at what time and in what circumstances. These were also used in the research report.

The third and final stage in this analytical process was the actual writing of the research report. As anticipated, this provided the whole and realistic picture of the study. It basically involved making cross inferences and thereby developing related theoretical perspectives where appropriate. This process had been clearly referred to by Miles and Huberman (1984: 228) as moving up “from the empirical trenches to a more conceptual overview of the landscape”.

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This proper organization of data had contributed overwhelmingly towards the possible theorizing of the data collected that eventually assisted in revealing the various aspects of the 2000 Blueprint for the affirmative action policy in education of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

**CONCLUSION**

The major focus of this chapter has been centred on the research methodology adopted in this study. These include the three traditional methods in gathering qualitative data as well as the three indigenous Fijian research approaches of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa. Whilst talanoa has also been widely recognized and effectively employed in other Pacific Island Countries (PICs) such as Tonga, Samoa, Marshall Islands and Nauru, the other two indigenous Fijian research method of vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa are being introduced for the first time in this research study.

Vakamuritalanoa, as mentioned earlier, normally follows on from talanoa and vitalanoa sessions. However, it is more in-depth, personal and on one-to-one interaction between the researcher and informant. This situation arises when a qualitative researcher continues to seek more in-depth information from an informant, who has had an earlier talanoa and vitalanoa sessions with the researcher.

The Research Design of the study, as shown in Table 4.1 is focused upon how the study had been structured. This has been framed to assist the researcher to follow a logical pathway to achieve more meaningful and conclusive conclusion. This is then concluded with the discussions on the qualitative data analysis and qualitative data interpretation that this study had been largely dependent upon.

The usage of the three indigenous Fijian research methods had greatly assisted the research study to enlist the in-depth views and feelings of the grassroots people in their traditional settings as policy users of the AAP in education of the Fiji Government.

These discussions on the Research Methodologies of the study are then followed by the tabulations and presentations of the entire findings of the study. These constitute the content of the next Chapter.
CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF DATA

INTRODUCTION

This chapter sets out to present the findings of this research study on the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. It includes results of the following research activities:

- The findings of fieldwork activities; mainly from the views and opinions of policy users (PU), policy implementers (PIM) and policy initiators (PIN).
- The documentary findings of the implementation of the six affirmative action programmes for Fijian and Rotuman Education since 2002.

The above data directly answer the research questions listed in the first chapter. To assist in the need to align the research results with the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study, the chapter has been structured in four phases. First, are the characteristics of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. Second, is the initiation of the policy. Third, is its implementation. Finally, the discussion is focused on the institutionalisation or outcomes phase of the policy.

FINDINGS OF FIELDWORK ACTIVITIES

The data in the findings of fieldwork activities are presented in percentage to enable some comparisons to be focused upon. Whilst the data clarify the actual views and opinions of respondents from the three major stakeholders of policy users (PU), policy implementers (PIM) and policy initiators (PIN), they allow some comparisons to be initiated in the results that were obtained from different locations. The data collected in this category were sourced from the overall responses of the three major players. Their response was guided by the pre-prepared research questions. As mentioned in Chapter 4, the pre-prepared guiding questions, presented in Appendixes 4.2 and 4.3, had greatly assisted the process of talanoa, vitalanoa and
vakamuritalanoa. It had amicably followed the designated time allocated for the research process while maintaining a clear direction of the interview procedures.

The findings obtained from the three major stakeholders as mentioned above had been assessed through the Graduated Assessment Scale (GAS) as shown in Appendix 4.5. These results were further tabulated in the four Tabulation Assessment Sheets (TAS) as shown in Appendix 5.1(A) to Appendix 5.1(D). All these results were then transferred to Appendices 5.2 and 5.3 employing the Summative Assessment Scale (SAS), before their final presentations in Table 5.1 (A) to Table 5.1 (J) respectively for the ten guiding questions. The responses to the four in-depth guiding questions are also detailed in Table 5.2. More information is provided in Appendix 4.6.

Additionally, other detailed explanation concerning the above three newly introduced data analysis instruments are further focused in Chapter 7 under the new findings of the study. The next focus is on characteristics of the AAP.

**CHARACTERISTICS OF THE AAPs**

As discussed earlier, successful management of any planned educational change depends on the characteristics of the innovation itself. It has impact on potential users and the way it is perceived by all those concerned with its management. Based on the fieldwork and documentary findings, the characteristics of the AAP for Fiji and Rotuman education are discussed below around the important variables of need, quality, practicality, clarity and priority as suggested in the change literature. As many of the core themes have already been elaborated in other chapters of the study, this initial section has been devoted briefly upon some of those core themes.

**Need, Quality, Practicality, Clarity and Priority**

As established in the fieldwork and documentary findings, the following would show the necessity to continually implement the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education while maintaining its needs, quality, practicality, clarity and priority in the identified areas throughout Fiji.

**Clarity and Priority**

According to the fieldwork findings in Table 5.1 (A) and Table 5.1 (B), the implementers and users of the policy did not clearly understand the rationale behind the policy. They claimed that
there were other assistance from local aid agencies that they had been accustomed to. They had not been properly informed of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. Both groups of PUs further revealed that other AAPs of the Government had not been adequately discussed with them by the implementers of the policy.

Table 5.1 (A)

1. **Knowledge of AAPs by the three Major Players: Policy Users, Policy Implementers and Policy Initiators:** (Lack of knowledge by PIMs and PUs)

| Policy Users (Teachers) (PU) | 77% were barely aware  
23% were minimally aware  
Therefore 77 percent did not understand the AAP adequately whilst 23 percent had better understanding of the policy. |
|---|---|
| Policy Users (Others) (PU) | 70% were barely aware  
17% were minimally aware  
13% were satisfactorily aware  
Therefore 87 percent did not understand the AAP sufficiently whilst 13 percent had better understanding of the policy. |
| Policy Implementers (PIM) | 43% were minimally aware  
10% were satisfactorily aware  
7% were adequately aware  
40% were fully aware  
Therefore 53 percent did not understand the AAPs adequately whilst 47 percent had better understanding of the policy. |
| Policy Initiators (PIN) | 100 percent were fully aware and they were all from the ruling Political party. Views from the Parliamentary Opposition Party were also the same in spite of their vocal opposition in the Parliament Chamber. Whilst they admitted that pressing needs were from the interior, rural and island schools and communities, they maintained that such important government policy should be for all those who were socially and educationally backwards throughout Fiji, particularly the HART residents, the informal residential communities and residents of squatter settlements. |
| The Average Overall Outcome | 72 percent of PU did not understand the AAPs sufficiently whilst 28 percent of this had better understanding of the policy. For the PIMs, 53 percent of them did not understand the AAP adequately whilst 47 percent had better understanding of the policy. However, 100 percent of PINs were fully aware of the AAP. |

Source: Refer to Appendices 4.3 of Chapter 4, 5.1 (A), 5.1 (B), 5.1 (C) and 5.1 (D), 5.2 and 5.3 of Chapter 5.
Date: April and May, July and August, and October and November 2008.
TABLE 5.1 (B)

Knowledge of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Awareness Level</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy Users (PU)</td>
<td>83% were barely aware</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17% were minimally aware</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore 83 percent were barely aware of the AAP for Fijian education, whilst 17 percent were minimally aware.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Users (Others) (PU)</td>
<td>74% were barely aware</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13% were minimally aware</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13% were satisfactorily aware</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore, 74 percent were barely aware of the AAP for Fijian education, whilst 26 percent were minimally aware or satisfactorily aware.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Implementers (PIM)</td>
<td>43% were minimally aware</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13% were satisfactorily aware</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3% were adequately aware</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44% were fully aware</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore, 56 percent were either minimally aware or were satisfactorily aware of the AAP for Fijian education, whilst 44 percent were either adequately aware or well aware of the policy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Initiators (PIN)</td>
<td>100 percent were aware</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All of them were from the ruling political party. Opposition members of Parliament also agreed in principle. Most of them also maintained that the AAP should be for all those living below the official poverty line and it was Government’s responsibility to set aside adequate annual budgetary provision for its implementation. Full financial commitment from government is the best alternative for such an important development initiative.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Therefore the Average Overall outcome</td>
<td>94 percent of PU were either barely aware or minimally aware of the AAP in education for the indigenous Fijian students, whilst,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 percent of PU were either satisfactorily aware of were fully aware of the AAP in education for the indigenous Fijian students.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>53 percent of policy implementers were either minimally aware or were satisfactorily aware, whilst</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47 percent were either adequately aware or were fully aware of the availability of the AAP for the education of the indigenous Fijian students.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100 percent of PIN were fully aware of the AAP in education for the indigenous Fijian students.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Refer to Appendices 4.3 of Chapter 4, 5.1 (A), 5.1 (B), 5.1 (C) and 5.1 (D), 5.2 and 5.3 of Chapter 5.
Date: April and May, July and August and October and November 2008.
Table 5.1 (A) shows the results of the three major player’s knowledge of the 23 programmes out of the initial 29 programmes under the Fiji Government’s 2001 Social Justice Act. Table 5.1 (B) only shows the results of the three major players’ knowledge of the 6 programmes together with its 7 sub-programmes specifically under the 2001 Social Justice Act. More information is provided in Appendix 1.1

**Fieldwork Findings**

The following is an extract from a talanoa session with a village headman (Turaga-ni-koro) in a very remote island school community:

Na i sau ni qaravi vuli vei keimami na tu yawa yani vakaoqo, e sa bau tara bi saraga vakailavo. Vakabibi, na ka keimami dau rawata mai ena i teitei kei na kena volitaki na sásalu mai waitui. Ia, na mataqali veivuke ni vuli ka sa yacovi keimami mai oqo, e dua na ka kemami na dau gadreva tu ga ena veigauna kece sara, vakauasivi na kena dodonu me na dau sikovi mai vakawasoma na qasenivuli kei ira na gonevuli.

Na levu talega ni nodra talevi keimami i mai na Dauraivuli, ena vukea sara talega na kena vakamatatataka vei keimami na neimami raica na i tavi dina vakaitaukei ni koronivuli. Oqo sara ga na mataqali veiqaravi keimami na dau gadreva tu ga vakawasoma me baleta na nodra vakavulici vakavinaka na luvei keimami.

**Meaning:**

The cost of education for those of us in our very remote location is indeed very high. Particularly, when we cannot find any easier access for the marketing of our garden produce and sea resources. However, when we are now being favourably considered for the easier provisions of better educational infrastructures, equipment and facilities, it is indeed a welcoming opportunity. This would also encourage the frequent visits of our Education Officers to continually assist the teachers and our children. It will further encourage parents and the community as owners of our school to fully accept our rightful role and responsibility in the proper education development of our children. This is what we will always continue to need.

Following the above talanoa response, the researcher was asked by an informant to read his response to the rest of the talanoa group. All of them had fully agreed to his views together with the following emphasis.
First, the Government needs to positively assist the remotely located community in the marketing of their garden produce and sea resources. The community needed to be continually empowered to better handle their financial, social and other obligations more independently.

Second, the MOE has to ensure that their assistance needed to be regularly followed through. They viewed this as crucially important for the better outcomes of the teaching capacities of the teachers and the learning capabilities of the children.

### Table 5.1 (C)

**The Importance of the AAP for Fijian Education: (Quality and Practicality).**

| Policy Users (Teachers) (PU) | 83% positively viewed it as very effective  
|                            | 3% viewed it as a better strategy for Fijian Education problem  
|                            | 14% viewed it as minimally or least beneficial  
| Therefore, 86 percent viewed it as very effective or was the better strategy to alleviate Fijian education problems, whilst 14 percent viewed it as minimally or least beneficial. |
| Policy Users (Others) (PU)  | 87% positively viewed it as very effective  
|                            | 13% viewed it as good strategy to alleviate Fijian education problems.  
| Therefore, 87 seven percent viewed it as very effective or would be the best strategy to alleviate Fijian education problems, whilst 13 percent viewed it as a good strategy to adopt for the alleviation of Fijian education problems. |
| Policy Implementers (PIM)   | 100 percent viewed it as the best strategy to adopt for the effective alleviation of Fijian education problems. Some also admitted that they were the very people that should be responsible for the effective implementation of the AAPs. Others maintained that they would always need the closer and more tangible support of policy initiators particularly, in the areas of financing, transportation and adequate provision for better qualified technical officials. |
| Policy Initiators (PIN)     | 100 percent viewed it as the best strategy to adopt to effectively sustain the alleviation of Fijian education problems. They were all from the ruling political party. They admitted that a lot more would be achieved if adequate financial provision was annually allocated for the policy.  
|                            | Similar sentiments were the response from the Opposition members of Parliament. A vocal opposition MP once stated as recorded in the “Talanoa” session with the researcher as follows:  
|                            | “If Government is really serious in implementing important policy initiatives, it should allocate sufficient funding and guard against any form of abuse from its own Party supporters.” |

The Average Overall Outcome 93 percent of PU, PIM and PIN viewed the policy as the best strategy to alleviate Fijian education problems, whilst 7 percent viewed it as least beneficial or minimally beneficial for the alleviation of the Fijian education problems.

Source: Refer to Appendices 4.3 of Chapter 4, 5.1 (A), 5.1 (B), 5.1 (C) and 5.1 (D), 5.2 and 5.3 of Chapter 5.

Date: April and May, July and August and October and November 2008.
In addition, they requested, as parents and essential stakeholders for the better education of their children, that they also need to be regularly visited by Education Officers for their important responsibility. Only then, they agreed, that such affirmative action programmes and projects would be better utilised to an appreciable level of satisfaction for everyone concerned.

Table 5.1(C) and Table 5.1(J) further confirm the quality and practicality of the AAPs towards improving the academic performance of the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students. The research findings have been recorded during the fieldwork trips from the collective views of the PUs, PIMs and PINs.

**Table 5.1 (J)**

**The Need for the Government to continue with AAP on Fijian Education and Why**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Policy Users (Teachers)</strong></td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>supported its continuation and be reviewed every 10 years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(PU)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>97% supported its continuation if its major objective was a ‘catching-up’ initiative and be reviewed regularly. Its overall outcome to be annually reported to Parliament. Therefore 97 percent was the most favoured option.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Policy Users (Others)</strong></td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>supported its continuation and be reviewed every 10 years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(PU)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>97% supported its continuation if its major objective was a ‘catching-up’ initiative and be reviewed regularly. Its overall outcome to be annually reported to Parliament. Therefore 97 percent was the most favourable option.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Policy Implementers</strong></td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>supported its continuation until the academic disparity between indigenous Fijian students is effectively bridged. To be reviewed every 10 years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(PIM)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>97% supported its continuation if its major objective was a ‘catching-up’ initiative and be reviewed regularly. Its overall outcome to be annually reported to Parliament. Therefore 97 percent was the most favoured option.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Policy Initiators (PIN)</strong></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>supported its continuation if its major objective was a ‘catching-up’ initiative and be reviewed regularly. Its overall outcome was to be annually reported to Parliament. Therefore 100 percent was the only favoured option.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Therefore, the average</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall outcome</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>On average, 98 percent of PIN, PIM and PU supported its continuation if its major objective was a ‘catching-up’ initiative and to be reviewed regularly. Its overall outcome was to be annually reported to Parliament. The initiative was viewed as one of the best solutions to solving Fijian education problems.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Rationale of the AAP for Fijian Education

The necessity of this policy is to provide better and more meaningful development of the education of indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students. This was necessitated by the revelation that their education gap with other ethnic students, particularly the Indo-Fijian students, had continued to widen. It was believed that special provisions assigned within the policy framework for Fijian and Rotuman schools and students would greatly assist to achieve a more positive outcome of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.

The next section of the chapter is focused on the initiation of the policy.

INITIATION OF THE AAP

This study has supported Fullan’s (2001) findings that the management of planned educational change indicates that innovations are initiated from many sources and for different reasons. As mentioned in Chapter 2, there are number key factors that are associated with initiation decision. These include the relevance of the innovation, the readiness of its clientele and the presence of relevant resources. These are all critical to this phase as well as the other phases of the AAP.

Specifically, for the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, it is evident from the analysis of its research findings that its initiation had also been influenced from a number of sources and for many reasons. Moreover, it had been noted during the study that the users of the policy, as well as the subordinate officers of the MOE as policy implementers, have not been included in its initiation process. Therefore, the research findings that have been recorded in Tables 5.1(A), 5.1(B) and 5.1(D), together with its accompanying explanations should clearly substantiate such negative situation further. However, the initial focus of this section is centred on the advocates of the AAPs for Fijian education.

Advocates of the Policy

It was established during the fieldwork trips that the initial advocates of the policy were the representatives of the policy users through the village, ‘tikina’ and provincial councils. They had been convinced with the real needs and situations existing at the grassroots level. This had prompted them to approach the Government for assistance to improve the quality of Fijian and Rotuman education to attain better examination results. Other strong advocates had been the
National Council of Women, academics, church organizations, other NGOs and the Fijian Teachers’ Association. Advocacy also came from the members of a retired teachers’ organization and the senior citizens who had previously served as senior officers of the MOE.

Table 5.1 (D)

Who were the Initiators of the Policy?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy Users (Teachers) (PU)</th>
<th>47% were barely aware of who the policy initiators were. 33% were minimally aware 20% were aware</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore, 80 percent were either barely aware or were minimally aware who the policy initiators were, whilst 20 percent were either adequately aware or were fully aware.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy Users (Others) (PU)</th>
<th>23% were barely aware 47% were minimally aware 30% were fully aware</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore, 70 percent were either barely aware or were minimally aware who the policy initiators were, whilst 30 percent were either adequately aware or were well aware.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Policy Implementers (PIM) | 100 percent were fully aware of who the policy initiators were. Majority of them felt that they, the implementers ought to be also involved at the initiation stage rather than to be just told that their responsibility was the implementation of the policy. Moreover, only the senior MOE officials had decided on the strategies to undertake whilst the DEOs and other MOE field officers were directed to support the adopted strategies. |

| Policy Initiators (PIN) | 100 percent were fully aware of who the policy initiators were. They were all from the ruling political party. Some admitted that the initial decision was carried out by the 2000 Interim Government. All they had to do was to support it further to be implemented by the Civil Servants. It was the best solution to solving the long-standing Fijian education problems that was launched by His Excellency the President on 25th April 2001. Whilst the opposition Members of Parliament had wished to also actively participate in the initiation of the policy, they agreed that politics had prevented them from getting involved. One of them said the following to the researcher in a “Talanoa” session: “Being a new political party, members would definitely want to show their supporters that they also have the capabilities of upholding their interests in such important government initiatives.” |

| The Average Overall Outcome | 75 percent of PU were either barely aware or were minimally aware, whilst 25 percent of them were either adequately aware or were fully aware. 100 percent of PIN and PIM were fully aware who the policy initiators were. |

Source: Refer to Appendices 4.3 of Chapter 4, 5.1 (A), 5.1 (B), 5.1 (C) and 5.1 (D), 5.2 and 5.3 of Chapter 5.
Date: April and May, July and August and October and November 2008.
Rationale: PU need to be informed who the PIN were to assist them in the proper implementation and coordination of Government policies.
The combined effort of the above advocates had finally convinced Government to eventually initiate the AAP for the education of the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman people.

**The Initiators of the Policy**

The findings of this research study as shown in Table 5.1(D) clearly reveal perceptions of the PUs, PIMs and PINs on who the initiators of the policy were.

**More Research Findings on Policy Initiation**

As mentioned in Table 5.1(D), most PIMs had not been involved in the initiation process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. They felt that this had prevented the policy users to claim ownership of the implementation process which had also been discovered during the fieldwork trips to have limited its effectiveness and efficiency. This was not easily noticed during the fieldwork trips but surfaced when a planned programme had to be abandoned as the targeted community had not been informed earlier of the implementers’ visit. This breakdown in communication had confused school teachers of the locality as they were not even informed of their supervisors’ visit.

**IMPLEMENTATION OF THE AAP**

As discussed earlier, the fieldwork findings had indicated that the majority of people involved in the initiation process had a bureaucratic orientation. This was facilitated by employing the problem-solving orientation. This had a considerable impact on the implementation process of the policy.

The implementation process of the AAP was located at four levels of Fiji’s education system: national, divisional/provincial, school and classroom. As shown in Appendix 5.4, the process involved the Permanent Secretary for Education, the Deputy Secretary (special project or asset management unit), Primary and Secondary, the Director SPU or AMU, the programme coordinators, school principals, head teachers, teachers, students and the school management and the communities. At all levels everyone as well as groups, had acted as change agents and required others to make use of what they perceived as the innovation brought by the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.
Findings from the fieldwork, as recorded in Table 5.1(E), clearly indicate the overall perceptions of the three major stakeholders on which one of them, as a group, was the implementer of the policy.

**Table 5.1 (E)**

**The Implementers of the Policy**

| Policy Users (Teachers) (PU) | 37% were barely aware of who the policy implementers were.  
30% were minimally aware  
13% were satisfactorily aware  
13% were adequately aware  
7% were fully aware  
Therefore 67 percent were either barely aware or were minimally aware of who the implementers of the policy were, whilst 33 percent of them were either satisfactorily aware, adequately aware or were fully aware of who were the implementers of the policy. |
|---|---|
| Policy Users (Others) (PU) | 40% were barely aware of who the policy implementers were.  
33% were minimally aware  
27% were fully aware  
Therefore, 73 percent were either barely aware or were minimally aware of who the implementers of the policy were, whilst 27 percent of them were well aware of who the policy implementers were. |
| Policy Implementers (PIM) or “Change Actors” | 100 percent were fully aware of who were the implementers of the policy. Most of them as policy implementers felt that they would still need the closer assistance of policy initiators for the adequate provision of finance, transportation and adequately qualified technical officials to be able to sustain the implementation programme of the policy. |
| Policy Initiators (PIN) | 100 percent were fully aware of who the policy implementers were. |
| Average Overall Outcome | 70 percent of PU were either barely aware or were minimally aware, whilst 30 percent of them were either satisfactorily aware, adequately aware or were fully aware who the policy implementers were. One hundred percent of PIM and PIN were well aware. |

Source: Refer to Appendices 4.3 of Chapter 4, 5.1 (A), 5.1 (B), 5.1 (C) and 5.1 (D), 5.2 and 5.3 of Chapter 5.

Date: April and May, July and August and October and November 2008.

Rationale: It is always essential for policy users to be also aware who the policy implementers of the government policies are as they need to work closely with them for the successful outcome of the policy.
In addition to the fieldwork findings, the major sources of the documentary findings that detail the six specific areas of the blueprint’s affirmative action plan had been provided by the Fiji’s Parliamentary Papers of 2003, 2004, 2005 and 2006 respectively. Other sources include records provided by the MOE’s Special Project Unit, the Prime Minister’s Planning Office, the Hansard Reports and the official sources from other government ministries and departments. They were the basis of the documentary analysis of the study.

The above mentioned Fiji Parliamentary Papers indicated that the MOE’s Special Project Unit under the DSMOE had been coordinating the Affirmative Action programmes since 2001. More information on the overall control of the APP is provided in Appendix 1.1.

**AAP Programmes that had been Implemented**

The following were the six AAP programmes that were implemented in 2002.

- Enhancement of Fijian and Rotuman education through its four sub-programmes
- Improvement of rural education and disadvantaged schools
- Vocational education and training
- Special education
- Student Loan Scheme (SLS)
- The three Government sponsored scholarships schemes

**Enhancement of Fijian and Rotuman Education: (4 Sub-Programmes)**

The overall objective of the programmes was to raise the level of participation as well as the academic achievement of indigenous Fijians and Rotumans to those of other ethnic groups. The advancement would eventually contribute to achieving the national strategic development target of improving the quality of life for Fijians and Rotumans (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 83, 2006). The programme has been supported by the following four sub-programmes since 2002:

- Sub-Programme - 1   Centres of Excellence
- Sub-Programme – 2   Upgrading of boarding facilities for Registered and Non-registered schools
- Sub-Programme – 3 Provisions for text books and library books
- Sub-Programme – 4 Community Outreach and Adult Education Programmes

Centres of Excellence (COE): Sub-Programme 1
The development of selected secondary schools since 2002 had focused both on the quality of education of their students as well as their total development. The following are the three components of the development of the Centres of Excellence:

- Physical structure, upgrading and maintenance of classrooms.
- Staff development and enrichment programmes (including school programmes for students).
- Community awareness and adult education to enhance partnership.

Objective of the Centres of Excellence (COE)
The main objective of establishing COE schools was to promote quality in all aspects of education through the following measures:

- Strengthening of the administrative structure of schools;
- Increase, modernize or upgrade school facilities;
- Upgrading the quality of education; and
- Improving the school to deliver quality output.

Table 5.3 Below shows the Funding Allocation for each COE and the year they had been established:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>YEAR OF ESTABLISHMENT OF COE</th>
<th>$AMOUNT ALLOCATED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nabua Secondary</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>402,096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naitasiri Secondary</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>264,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nadroga / Navosa High</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>264,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratu Kadavulevu</td>
<td>2003 – 2004</td>
<td>1,023,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levuka Public</td>
<td>2003 – 2004</td>
<td>450,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suva Grammar</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vunisea Secondary</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,581,119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Education Special Project Unit as cited in Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper No. 108 (2005: 10)
Constraints and Challenges

First, is the lack of adequate funding which has been a major constraint in fully developing the COE. For instance, in regards to the physical infrastructure development, the following cost estimates at Table 5.4 below clearly indicate what was required to fully complete the schedule of work as well as reflect the extent of capital work that was still outstanding. As can be seen, the estimated cost had far exceeded the total budgetary allocation that had been provided to the MOE Special Project Unit. Such shortfall had been quite discouraging to policy implementers or change agents.

Table 5.4: Total estimates of work required

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>ESTIMATES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ratu Kadavulevu</td>
<td>$3,223,364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levuka Public</td>
<td>$4,625,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vunisea Secondary</td>
<td>$8,965,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suva Grammar</td>
<td>$2,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>$19,313,364</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MOE Special Project Unit as cited in Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper No. 108 (2005:11)

The total amount in Table 5.4 of $19,313,364 had far exceeded the approved budget allocation for the four Centres of Excellence of $1,673,000 which is 91.34 percent deficit. Conversely the Special Projects Unit (SPU) of the Ministry of Education has only been granted 8.66 percent of its requested fund totalling $1,673,000 from the estimated cost of $19,313,364 which had been submitted earlier to the Cabinet. However, the Special Project Unit (SPU) was not able to provide the actual expenditure of the approved $1,673,000 for the four COE schools.

Upgrading of Boarding Facilities for Registered and Non-registered Schools: Sub-programme 2

According to the Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 108 (2005: 18), the major factor contributing to the low academic achievement of the rural-based students is their inadequate boarding facilities.
This confirms the findings of the earlier six Education Commission reports and reviews since 1909 (Fiji Islands Education Commission / Panel, 2000: i). Such negative situation has been related to the poor economic conditions in rural areas which would continue to exist for several decades (Narsey, 2003).

**Objective**

The main objective of the sub-programme was to improve the standards of boarding facilities of the rural schools.

**Constraints and Challenges of Sub-programme 2**

The main constraint affecting this sub-programme has been the delay created in the submission of deed forms and the memorandum of understanding (MOU) from schools. This has been effectively preventing the timely commencement of projects. Other major constraint was the difficulty in the timely monitoring of projects by the MOE’s Special Project Unit. This largely owes to staff shortages, transport problem and delay in the project implementation at the school level. Another hindrance was the undisciplined and “vakavanua” (casual) attitude of the policy users to their approach in spending insufficient time for the final completion of projects. It also showed that they were not well-prepared to manage the implementation process of the policy.

**Provisions for Text Books and Library Books: Sub-programme 3**

The introduction of this sub-programme into the policy was in response to the concerns of the Ministry of Education on the extreme shortage of prescribed text-books in Fijian managed schools, both in rural and urban areas. While this concern has been a permanent feature within the Fijian and Rotuman education, the failure to live up to this challenge would continue to hinder whatever attempt is made to improve the teaching capabilities of the teachers and the learning capacities of the students.

**Objective**

The main objective of this programme was to ensure that Fijian schools have adequate text books to facilitate the teaching learning process with the ultimate goal of improving the academic performance of Fijian and Rotuman students.
Constraints and Challenges of Sub-programme 3

The constraints and challenges to this sub-programme had been identified as:

- Delays in receiving book lists from schools at the MOE head office.
- Delayed price quotations from book shops to the MOE head office.
- Delayed supply of textbooks by book shops to selected schools.
- Lack of person power for the packing and delivery of textbooks to selected schools.
- Insufficient and decreasing budgetary allocation owing to the overall decreases in the funds specifically allocated to the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.

Community Outreach and Adult Education Programme: Sub-programme 4

It is crucial to promote in the Fijian community, especially among parents and school management and committees, a stronger appreciation of the importance of proper educational opportunities that should be made available for their children.

Objective

The objective of this sub-programme was to assist parents and other members of the community to understand and appreciate their roles in their children’s education. Its long term aim was to achieve priority for education ahead of other social and cultural obligations which was currently the trend amongst the Fijian and Rotuman communities. As shown in Table 5.5, funding allocated for 2002 to 2005 was $200,000. This was expended on the MOE’s awareness programme team’s visits to all the selected venues throughout Fiji’s fourteen provinces as well as Rotuma, Rabi and Kioa.

Challenges and Constraints of Sub-programme 4

The main challenge of this sub-programme was to bring about a change in the attitude of Fijian parents so that education was given the highest priority among families of Fijian and Rotuman students wherever they were located. As for the other initiatives, the major constraint was funding. For instance, the 2005 allocation had been reduced from $60,000 to $20,000. This had
unfortunately limited the entire sub-programme’s coverage. Table 5.5 below shows the budget allocation for this sub-programme for 2002 – 2005.

Table 5.5: Funding for Community Awareness and Adult Education Programme (2002 – 2005) ($200,000).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>ALLOCATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>$60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>$60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>$60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>$20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>$200,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Improvement of Rural Education and Disadvantaged Schools

As stated earlier, there has been a marked disparity in the academic performance and achievement of students in urban and rural schools. The negative influential factors of this over a number of decades had been attributed to the permanent and scattered nature and remoteness of rural schools, together with the low economic status of the supporting communities. These permanent features would continue to confront relevant authorities with the increasing challenge of formulating a more permanent means and ways of at least alleviating Fijian and Rotuman education problem. This would be a better alternative rather than continue to apply temporary measures of remedying it. Government intervention was therefore imperative to improve access to educational opportunities for the disadvantaged communities.

Objective

The objective of this programme was to improve rural education and disadvantaged schools. This would enable them to provide better education opportunities to students in rural areas and in other disadvantaged schools.

In addition, about $44 million had been provided by the European Union (EU) since 2005 to fund the Fiji Education Sector Programme. The major emphasis was for the education priorities
in 300 schools in rural and disadvantaged urban areas. Further, detail discussions would be focused on this special and fairly important educational assistance in Chapter 6.

**Challenges**

Rural schools have always had problems in attracting qualified teachers while there had been sufficient supply of teachers available mainly in urban schools. However, the continuing lack of incentives for them to work in rural areas would always remain a permanent feature. What has also been noted as important characteristics in rural and island schools included isolation, inaccessibility and related high costs of rural lives. These factors had been the major inhibiting influence for teachers and the development of schools in the remote and scattered island locations. This has been appropriately identified by this research study as part of permanent education problems confronting any attempt to improve the quality of education for the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

**Vocational Education and Training: Programme – 3**

The Government Report (2006) shows that over 50 percent of the 17,000 school leavers each year cannot find employment. The Government is, therefore, committed to addressing this concern by providing vocational training in order to prepare students for

- paid employment;
- higher education;
- self-employment; and
- life – skills for those who are returning to rural and village living.

Through the Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Unit of the Ministry of Education, Vocational Training programmes are now part of the normal school curriculum.

**Objective**

The programme’s four main objectives of vocational training include the following

- To enhance personal educational development.
- To enhance opportunities for employment.
- To enhance participation in economic, social and other relevant activities.
- To provide opportunity and access to further education.
Challenges

The key challenges to the implementation of the programme included:

- Lack of clear national TVET policy direction by policy initiators or lack of political will.
- Lack of coordination amongst stakeholders or lack of effort by policy implementers.
- Lack of appreciation and community support by policy users at the Village, ‘Tikina’ and Provincial level on the importance and relevance of TVET in their daily living.
- Need to amend and adjust the TVET curriculum to meet the changing needs of the industry.
- Need for the upgrading of technical skills and knowledge of staff on new technologies and employee demands.
- Need to clearly maintain with the industry and community an unobstructed pathway to ensure that student’s skills and knowledge are meaningfully utilized.

(Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 83 (2006: 12)

Special Education Programme – 4

This programme was being instituted specifically to cater for needs in the area of special education. It would enable the physically handicapped students to have easier access to education and other training programmes suitable for their needs.

Objective

The goal of this programme was to improve access to education at pre-school, primary, secondary and tertiary education for the disabled students.

Challenge

A major constraint of this programme had been the continuous shortage of staff to effectively coordinate special programmes that had been implemented and those that were pending. According to the 2009 MOE’s Annual Report, there was only one officer who had been coordinating the work of Special Education Unit. Therefore, there was an urgent need for additional and appropriately qualified staff to manage this programme.
**Student Loan Scheme (SLS): Programme – 5**

The present administering agency of this programme is the Public Service Commission (PSC). However, when the student loan scheme was re-established in 2000, it was administered by the Ministry of Education. Its transfer to the Public Service Commission was effected in 2002 where it still remains.

**Objective**

The primary goal of this programme was to provide equal access to education and training to tertiary students who are economically disadvantaged or are from low income families.

**Challenges**

The Government report (2005) shows that the student loan scheme would eventually be self-financing from loan repayments by students. At the end of 2005, the five year term of Government funding for the scheme would have been self-financing. The Public Service Commission debt recovery process must have the capacity and staff to manage the loan repayment exercise so that more disadvantaged students can be assisted from the Student Loan Scheme.

Relevant data was not provided by the PSC to ascertain the success rate of recovery process from students. Although the data provided confirmed that the highest number of loan recipients were Fijians, data was not provided to confirm the number of Fijian students who have graduated and have found employment. Statistics on the total number of students that had applied for the assistance under the scheme in 2004 were not provided by PSC. This information would have been useful in assessing whether the need was beyond what Government could provide in terms of budgetary allocation to continue to finance the SLS.

**Government Sponsored Scholarships: 3 Government Scholarships Schemes**

The Government over the years has been setting aside annual specific budgetary allocation for three sets of scholarship awards to cater for tertiary studies for qualified Fiji nationals. The three scholarships schemes are also administered under the following two Government Ministries and one government department:
According to the Government report (2005) the three scholarship schemes have had a fair degree of success under the affirmative action initiatives over the years as shown under their respective section. The need is, therefore, for the three schemes to continue with much better implementation strategies and monitoring capabilities.

Ministry of Multi – ethnic Affairs (MMEA) Sub-programme – 1

This Ministry’s scholarship scheme was first established in 1996 with an allocation of $300,000 from the Poverty Alleviation Fund. It assisted the scholarship recipients to get access to higher education which their parents could not financially afford.

Apart from local institution study awards, there were two approved overseas institutions for which scholarships were also considered. These were the Emalus USP Campus (Vanuatu) for students studying Bachelor of Law and the Alafua USP Campus (Western Samoa) for students studying a Bachelor in Tropical Agriculture of the University of the South Pacific.

Objective

The goals of the programme are to provide equal access to education and training through scholarship grant by the Government. This is to ensure that the programme is implemented in a fair and transparent manner and in accordance with the set criteria and guidelines set aside for students from disadvantaged families within the Indo-Fijian and minority communities.

Challenges

In 2004, the MMEA experienced budgetary difficulties owing to the increase in the number of new students. Further, the MMEA has also started offering scholarships for the Fiji School of Medicine (FSM), Bachelor of Law and Bachelor of Agriculture in Vanuatu and Samoa respectively. These programmes were rather expensive and required additional costs.
The increase in the new students in 2004 combined with continuing administrative demands of the scheme had clearly emphasised the need for more qualified staff in the Scholarship Unit of the Government.

The following are some of the challenges in delivering this programme:

- Reducing failure rate: research is being done on the factors affecting the students’ performance and regular counselling of students.
- Keep track of graduates: ensure sponsored students graduate and are therefore placed in the labour market and ensure they serve their bond period.
- Curb incidence of misrepresentation and misleading information provided by parents and students alike.

**Ministry of Fijian Affairs Education Scholarship: Sub-programme – 2**

This Government sponsored scholarship programme has been administered by the Ministry of Fijian Affairs (MFA) as the Fijian Affairs Scholarship Scheme (FASS). Since its establishment in the late 1983, a financial provision of $3.5 million had been provided as a Government grant towards the scheme. The 2006 policies and management guidelines of the MFA showed that the first phase was implemented for five years from 1984 to 1988, with further Government approval for a second phase from 1989 to 1993. In 1994, the fund was further increased to $4.7 million per annum until 2000. Since 2001, it has increased annually until it stood at $8 million in 2006. By 2011, the amount earmarked for the MFA Scholarship had increased to $10 million. This is reflective of the increasing demand for scholarships from the target groups and Government’s continuing commitment to the programme.

Prior to 2001, this Affirmative Action policy was known as a positive discrimination scholarship policy of the Government. Its main intention was to address the educational gap between the Fijians and Rotumans, and the other ethnic groups in the country. It did not discriminate on the basis of income or gender. It has enabled many Fijians and Rotumans to successfully compete at the highest levels of education in which many have successfully completed (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 83, 2006).
**Objective**

The goal of the FASS included the provision of access to education and training. Whilst the major intention was to increase the number of Fijians and Rotumans with tertiary qualifications, it was to achieve parity with other communities in respect of professional and technical qualifications.

**Challenges**

The FASU was faced with several challenges while ensuring that the objective was met. Firstly, the FASU staff needed to provide appropriate advice and guidance to potential students on their future career path. The lack of transport facilities to amicably perform the needed service was indeed a long standing problem.

Secondly, the FASU had been continually faced with the difficulty in recruiting qualified Fijian tutors for extra tutorial programme organized for students. Likewise, tutors had also reported the absence of many students at agreed tutorial times and venues.

Thirdly, it was indeed a challenge to the Unit to change parents’ mindset about the scholarship scheme and the importance of education through parents’ workshop. Many of them still feel that the scholarship should provide everything to the students.

Fourthly, another unwavering challenging task was the monitoring of students’ academic performance. This was owing to the large number of the student population and the continuing difficulty in accessing records of their lecture and tutorial attendance, test results and the submission of assignments. To complicate this further, students with uncooperative attitude have often preferred not to seek assistance through the counselling service available at the FASU.

There was also a critical need to meaningfully align the awarding of scholarships with Fiji’s national human resources and training needs. The MFA is continually reviewing the FASS to effectively address concerns relating to priority areas of the study, skilled manpower requirements and training needs.
Public Service Commission (PSC) Scholarship: Sub-Programme – 3

This sub programme was officially recognized as the Fiji Government Scholarships Scheme. It was established in 1978 as a ‘Cost Sharing Scholarship Scheme’, through the recommendation of the ‘Kapadia’ Report. To firmly ground its activities, the Workforce Planning and Scholarships Unit (WPSU) was established under the PSC with the sole responsibility of administering all Fiji Government Scholarships in particular as well as awards to local tertiary institutions. Additionally, the WPSU as the scholarship authority of the country also administered overseas awards provided through grant by overseas donor agencies.

For this purpose, WPSU Handbook further indicates that a scholarship selection committee had been established with the responsibility of identifying critical person – power needs for which scholarships are to be awarded. It was to be responsible for all the Fiji Government Scholarships decisions.

Aims and Objectives of the WPSU

The following are the main objectives of the WPSU.

- To implement government scholarships policies, i.e. the administration of all scholarships awards to pre-service and in-service students both at overseas and local institutions on funds provided by the Fiji Government and the various donor agencies.
- To assess the national workforce needs as a basis for the award of the Fiji Government Scholarships.
- To carry out workforce planning and related exercises, and draw up plans in consultation with various Ministries and Departments as well as the private sector and no-government organizations.
- The administration of the student loan scheme.
- To award, through the Government Selection Committee, scholarships to pre-service students as well as civil servants so as to develop and meet the national workforce requirements in areas where there is still shortage.
- To assist in the placement of scholarship awardees after successful completion of their study programme.
- To monitor and provide counselling services to individual scholarship students in their progress and after the completion of their study programme.
- To ensure the recovery of student’s contribution in the Cost Sharing Loan Scheme i.e. from the students themselves or their guarantors if the students may default in their payments. (However, students’ contribution had been removed since 2008).
- To maintain appropriate students’ files, records, and other relevant statistics for official purpose and retrieval.

Fiji Parliamentary No. 66: 2004 (46-48)

Challenges

As for the other two Government ministries that are also entrusted with the similar responsibility of managing Government sponsored scholarships, the PSC’s WPSU is particularly very mindful of the various challenges that confront its management.

Students in local institutions need to be paid regular visits by the WPSU staff for counselling services and other administrative matters. There is also an important need for them to maintain a closer liaison with the senior management of their respective institutions. All these noble intentions can never be effectively carried out owing to transport problems.

Closer and continuing monitoring of students’ academic performances is an important necessity. Many students have failed to perform to the expectation in the absence of this needed service, particularly first year students. While transportation is an obvious problem, qualified staff members of the WPSU have to be available for such important services rather than making use of the ordinary clerks or accountants, who have never studied at such tertiary institutions.

More well-qualified students have been unsuccessful in securing awards over the years. Unless the Government was able to inject more scholarship funds, many of those successful and well qualified secondary school graduates would have to resort to other things as their hopes and wishes would never be met. This is quite important to take note of as securing paid employment is now more difficult than what it was initially hoped for.

The next focus is centred on the levels of the implementation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.
THE LEVEL OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE POLICY

The focus of this section is centred largely on the documentary analysis of the study and supported by its fieldwork findings. In all the 11 programmes and sub-programmes, the major challenging issue that faced the implementers of the AAP is the inadequate annual financial allocations specifically set aside by the Government to match the programme requirements. It was claimed by the PUs, PIMs and PINs that this had been the main cause of concern that affected the levels of the implementation.

The levels of the Implementation of the Centres of Excellence Programme

Upgrading work since 2002 has exceeded $3 million as illustrated in Table 5.6. In view of the limited funds, total allocation for 2005 had been directed to Queen Victoria School for the upgrading of classrooms and accommodation halls. This has resulted in the stalling of the development of Ratu Kadavulevu School as a Centre of Excellence for technology education.

Table 5.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>No. of School Assisted</th>
<th>Exp. Value</th>
<th>Allocation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>$0.93 million</td>
<td>$1.0 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>$1.07 million</td>
<td>$1.0 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>$0.60 million</td>
<td>$0.6 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>$0.76 million</td>
<td>$0.6 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>$3.36 million</td>
<td>$3.2 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The Ministry of Education has set performance levels for the Government schools which are classified as Centres of Excellence (COE). By the end of the fifth year of establishment, the COEs were expected to achieve 90 to 100 percent passes in all the external examinations. In addition, 50 percent passes in the Fiji Junior Certificate Examination (FJC) and the Fiji School Leaving Certificate Examination (FSLC) were to be more than 400 and 250 marks respectively.
Furthermore, schools which engaged in vocational courses would achieve 100 percent pass to enable them to have an easier access to the job market.

However, the 2005 pass rates in the FSLC for COEs in Table 5.7 below show a general decline when compared with their 2004 performance. Out of the 10 schools, only three had recorded an increase, including Adi Cakobau School a late inclusion in 2004. The Centres had recorded an average pass rate of 52.15 percent in 2005 compared to 62.46 percent in 2004, reflecting a declining in national trend which had been 75.14 percent and 85.0 percent respectively for the same periods.

Table 5.7: FSLC Examination Pass Rate for COEs: 2002 – 2005 (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>COMMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nabua Secondary</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>Need to continue to improve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naitasiri Provincial School</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>Need to improve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nadroga / Navosa Provincial</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>Need to improve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratu Kadavulevu</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>Need to improve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levuka Public</td>
<td>62.7</td>
<td>63.9</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>Need to improve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suva Grammar</td>
<td>61.8</td>
<td>64.4</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>Need to improve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vunisea Secondary</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queen Victoria</td>
<td>95.7</td>
<td>92.4</td>
<td>92.7</td>
<td>89.2</td>
<td>Need to improve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bucalevu Secondary</td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>Need to improve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adi Cakobau</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>95.4</td>
<td>96.0 Improved performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MOE Special Project Unit as Cited in Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper No. 83 (2006: 7)

In the Fiji Seventh Form Examination (FSFE), three of the five schools had improved their results in 2005 as shown in Table 5.8 below. Although the average pass rate of the five schools had decreased in 2005 to 75 percent compared to 80.8 percent in 2004, it was still higher than the national average pass rate of 70.7 percent.

Table 5.8: FSFE Pass Rate for Centres of Excellence (COEs): 2002 – 2005 (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>COMMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ratu Kadavulevu</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>Badly need to improve performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suva Grammar</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>59.0</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queen Victoria</td>
<td>92.4</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>Need to improve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bucalevu Secondary</td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>92.2</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>Need to improve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adi Cakobau</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>95.3</td>
<td>95.7</td>
<td>Continuing improvement with high performances outcome.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MOE Special Project Unit as Cited in Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper No. 83 (2006: 8)
All stakeholders should also be aware that while the target for the fifth year of implementation looked achievable in the FSFE, the programme as a whole needed reviewing and consolidation in order to achieve similar results at other levels.

**The levels of the Implementation of the upgrading of boarding facilities for registered and Non-Registered Schools Programme**

Table 5.9 shows the value of the Government grants from 2002 to 2005 that had benefited 189 primary and 86 secondary schools. It also shows that the number of schools that had been assisted had decreased owing to decreasing amount of funds that had been allocated towards their projects. There had been more primary schools included in the programme although the amount of funds granted to them had been slightly lower than the amount for secondary schools. For the four years, an average amount of $12,804.23 had been set aside for each primary school, whilst $29,883.72 had been allocated to each secondary school.

**Table 5.9: Allocation of Boarding Grant (2002 – 2005)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>Primary School ($)</th>
<th>Number of schools assisted</th>
<th>Secondary Schools ($)</th>
<th>Number of schools assisted.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>$1,000,000</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>$1,000,000</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>$500,000</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>$500,000</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>$500,000</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>$500,000</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>$420,000</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>$470,000</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>$2,420,000</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>$2,570,000</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MOE Special Project Unit as Cited in Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper No. 83 (2006: 8)

**The Levels of the Implementation of the provisions for Text-Books and Library Books Programme**

The performance indicators of the programme as at Table 5.10 include the following:

- increase in the quality and quantity of Fijian and Rotuman students that are attaining higher education; and
- the achievement of better academic results and standards by those students.

The Government had allocated a total of $1,086,000 from 2002 to 2005 for this sub-programme which had assisted 233 Fijian primary and 97 secondary schools. Table 5.10 below shows how the targeted amount of financial assistance was given out when the programme was initially
started in 2002 with a total of $486,000 that covered 95 primary and 27 secondary schools. However, the following three years from 2003 to 2005, the amount had not exceeded $200,000 for each year which was probably owing to the decreasing government financial allocation for the sub-programme.

Table 5.10: Allocation of Text Book Grant (2002 – 2005) for Fijian schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Primary Schools ($)</th>
<th>Number of Schools assisted</th>
<th>Secondary Schools ($)</th>
<th>Number of schools assisted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>$200,000</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>$286,000</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>$100,000</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>$100,000</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>$100,000</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>$100,000</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>$100,000</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>$100,000</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>$500,000</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>$586,000</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Education, Special Projects Unit as Cited in Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper No. 83 (2006: 9)

Table 5.10 above indicates that there were a lower number of secondary schools (97) that had been assisted when compared to that of the primary schools (233). It clearly reflected that the text books for secondary schools were more expensive than those for primary schools.

This also reflects the expensive costs for secondary school education. The average allocation for the four years for each school indicates that $2,145.92 had been provided for primary schools whilst $6,041.24 was given to secondary schools.

The proper maintenance and the upkeep of these vital resources in the education of Fijian students had always been one of the main items of discussions and reflections by the Ministry of Education Special Projects Unit’s Outreach Team (SPU Annual Report).
Table 5.11: Provincial and Divisional Education Allocation of Text Book Grant (2002 – 2005) ($1,086,000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROVINCES (14) AND ROTUMA (1)</th>
<th>DIVISIONAL EDUCATION OFFICES (4)</th>
<th>($)</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>($)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>DEO Central</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Naitasiri</td>
<td>162,900</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>412,680</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Rewa</td>
<td>108,600</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Tailevu</td>
<td>97,740</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Namosi</td>
<td>21,720</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Serua</td>
<td>21,720</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DEO Northern</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Cakaudrove</td>
<td>119,460</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>260,640</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Macuata</td>
<td>86,880</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Bua</td>
<td>54,300</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DEO Western</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Ba</td>
<td>119,460</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>238,920</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Nadroga</td>
<td>65,160</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Ra</td>
<td>54,300</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DEO Eastern</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Lomaiviti</td>
<td>76,020</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>173,760</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Lau</td>
<td>43,440</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Kadavu</td>
<td>43,440</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Rotuma</td>
<td>10,860</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1,086,000</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,086,000</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Figures derived from Ministry of Education Special Projects Unit and Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper No. 3 (2006: 9)

Figure 5.1: Provincial Allocation of Text Books Grant: (2002 – 2005) (%), Source: Table 5.11
Figure 5.2: Divisional Education Allocation of Text Book Grant: (2002 – 2005) 
(Amount and %) Source: Table 5.11

Note:

The above data in Figures 5.1 and 5.2 have been presented in the pie-graph format to show another method of presenting research data rather than continue to maintain the presentation in the table format.

The levels of the Implementation on the improvement of Rural Education and Disadvantaged School Programme

The following performance indicators for this programme have to be achieved by 2020:

- improved standards in all schools in rural and semi-urban areas;
- greater access to qualified teachers; and
- uplifting of the general standards of education at all levels.

As success indicators, certain number of Fijian rural schools has been upgraded with the provision of facilities through the building grant scheme and other subsidies since 2002. For instance, in 2004, 59 schools had been assisted from a budget of $967,600. Rural students have also been assisted with a remission of fees allocation of $895,021. A total of 597 schools had also been assisted through tuition fee-grant totalling $4,818,175 and a per capita grant of $133,850.
Tuition fee free grant had been paid to qualified schools for Fijian students from Forms 1 to 5, while students in Forms 6 and 7 were also eligible to apply for remission of fees grants. Per capita grant had also been paid directly to schools to assist in the procurement of teaching and learning resources. A salary grant of $17,870,629 had also been utilized for rural teachers’ salaries. Twenty four schools had also benefited from the consolidated education programme allocation of $74,500.

There had been an increase in the number of rural teachers who were given the opportunity for in-service training. Rural teachers had also been the target group for the Secondary Teachers Training Cycle Programme by the Ministry of Education. Many of them have gone through this training at the Fiji College of Advanced Education (FCAE) as well as similar workshops at various centres.

**The levels of the implementation of the Vocational Education and Training Programme**

The Ministry of Education has approved and implemented programmes such as training of TVET teachers at the Fiji College of Advanced Education (FCAE), for those that have already obtained FIT Certificates or Diplomas. The achievements of the programme cannot be ascertained at this stage because of the non-availability of data from the Ministry of Education.

The Ministry of Education has also introduced TVET education from primary level as part of the compulsory education programme. The completion of the Lautoka Teachers’ College (LTC) TVET facilities by 2005 had been a step forward in promoting national vocational training particularly from early childhood development stages.

Furthermore, the intention of the funding of facilities for vocational training institutes was to continue to improve the physical standard of those schools. These include the Ratu Kadavulevu School, Tailevu North High School, Naleba College, Nakauvadra High School as well as the Montfort Boys Institutes at Veisari near Suva and Savusavu in Cakaudrove in Vanua Levu.

Lately, there had been an increasing number of privately-owned vocational training institutes. This has necessitated the call by government for the formal establishment of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). This initiative is to be effectively coordinated by the Ministry of Education with the assistance and cooperation of the relevant line Government agencies and
external stakeholders. Work on this, had been progressing between the Ministry of Education and the Training and Productivity Authority of Fiji (TPAF). Meanwhile, the review of the TVET assessment system had not been undertaken in 2004 due to insufficient funds.

As of 2004, there were 48 secondary schools with Vocational Training Centres and out of which, 10 were operating under franchise with the Fiji Institute of Technology (FIT), and offering courses for Stages 1 and 2.

In 2004, the Ministry of Education had conducted an employment creation survey for 239 unemployed youths in the provinces of Serua and Namosi. As a result, 30 piggery projects, 5 chicken projects, and 2 canteen businesses had been established. A similar survey had also been conducted at Tamavua Village, an urban Fijian village of Suva city, where 17 village youths had also been assisted with piggery projects.

**The levels of the implementation of the Special Education Programme**

The following indicators should show the level of output of the programme:

- improved access for education for disabled persons,
- improved standard of education in special schools, and
- improved standard of living for students and others with disabilities,

Nadi Sangam School was used as a pilot secondary school to accommodate students with disabilities and to provide them with opportunities for secondary education.

In 2004, the Ministry of Education’s Special Education Unit had adopted appropriate measures to improve educational opportunities for students with disabilities. Outreach programmes addressing issues affecting students had promoted informal and fruitful discussions between Head Teachers, parents and key stakeholders. Positive responses had therefore been noted and more community outreach programmes had been planned for 2005 and beyond.

Assistance worth $100,000 had been awarded to Project “Heaven” to meet the cost of studying and testing primary students’ hearing and sight impairment which had been completed in 2004. The study had found that 10 percent of those children had some mild degree of hearing and
vision difficulties. This had translated to mean that 14,000 primary school students had been affected.

The levels of the implementation of the Student Loan Scheme Programme

Since the goal of the student loan scheme is to provide the means of equal access to education and training, the specified performance indicator has resulted in the increase in the number of students that have had access to the scheme.

From 2002 to 2003, a total of 349 students have benefited from the scheme with a total of $1.88 million as financial assistance.

Some students who have graduated and found employment are attempting to pay their debts under the scheme. By 2004, they have repaid just over $28,000. The low recovery rate is attributed to the limited number of staff available to manage and effectively co-ordinate the scheme.

Despite the increase in the number of students that have been assisted under the programme in 2005, the value of assistance as shown in Table 5.12 below had declined by 5 percent when compared to 2004.

Table 5.12: Student Loan Scheme (2004 – 2005)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SLS New Awards</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Cost ($)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corpus Christi</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20,020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAE</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>411,211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FSM</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>307,371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTC</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>314,864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USP</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>878,721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCA</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18,561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>1,950,748</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Public Service Commission Scholarship Unit / Cited in Fiji Parliamentary Paper Number 83 (2006: 16)

In 2005, 281 loan scheme students had graduated from the various approved institutions while 51 had dropped out. Figure 5.3 shows a dramatic increase of over 200% in the number of students that have graduated in 2005 and had entered the workforce compared to 2004 and 2003 respectively (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 83, 2006: 17)
The levels of the implementation of the MMEA Scholarship Programme

As shown in Table 5.13, the allocation for the MMEA scholarships in 2003 was increased to $3.5 million. A total of 692 awards were granted of which 653 were for students from the Indian community, while 39 were granted for students from the smaller minority groups. Minority community candidates who had qualified under the set criteria, found tertiary institution placements and were provided with the awards. With 1,044 continuing students, the total number of students on MMEA scholarships in 2003 was 1,736.

Altogether, 130 students had graduated at the end of Semester 1 of 2003 from USP with a further 600 students graduated at the end of Semester 2.

With a budgetary provision of $3.5 million in 2004, the MMEA awarded scholarship to 853 continuing students and 1,014 new awards. This brought the total to 1,867 students being assisted. The new awards in 2004 had seen 953 Indian and 61 minority community students received scholarships.

Table 5.13 shows the increasing budgetary provision for MMEA Scholarship scheme from $2 million in 2001 to $3.5 million in 2004. Correspondingly, the scheme has offered more scholarships for those students that have applied. These numbered 2,195 in 2001 to 3,694 in 2004.
Table 5.13: MMEA Scholarship Awards (2001 – 2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2001 Budget</th>
<th>2002 Budget</th>
<th>2003 Budget</th>
<th>2004 Budget</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$2m</td>
<td>$2.5m</td>
<td>$3.5m</td>
<td>$3.5m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of students applied</td>
<td>2,195</td>
<td>2,473</td>
<td>3,464</td>
<td>3,694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of students interviewed</td>
<td>2,082</td>
<td>2,390</td>
<td>3,033</td>
<td>3,594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsuccessful Applicants</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of scholarships awarded</td>
<td>594</td>
<td>814</td>
<td>692</td>
<td>1,014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuing students</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>617</td>
<td>1,044</td>
<td>853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL ANNUAL AWARDS</td>
<td>1,274</td>
<td>1,431</td>
<td>1,736</td>
<td>1,687</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Multi-Ethnic Affairs as Cited in Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper No. 108 (2005: 44)

Table 5.13 shows that the MMEA had handled a steady increase of applicants who were eligible for interview which numbered 2,082 in 2001 to 3,594 in 2004. Increase in the annual awards had also been noted from 2001 to 2002 (157 awards) and 2002 to 2003 (305 awards) but has experienced a drop in the total awards (49) from 1,736 in 2003 to 1,687 in 2004.

In the five years up to 2005, a total of 4,262 students have been assisted under the MMEA scholarship funding of $14.65 million. In 2005 alone, a total of 3,722 applications were received and processed.

Out of these, 1,095 (29 percent) were successful. Of this number, about 57 percent of the awards were taken up by USP students, followed by FIT with 40 percent, and 3 percent to students of other institutions.

The level of the implementation of the MFA Scholarship (MFA) Programme

In 2002, the total budgetary provision for the programme was $5.5 million. This funded 1,581 awards of which 110 were for overseas studies and the rest were for local tertiary institutions. There were 322 local graduates in 2002 of which 168 had graduated from the University of the South Pacific, 152 from the Fiji Institute of Technology and 2 from the Fiji School of Medicine (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 66, 2004).

In 2005, the programme received a $500,000 budgetary increase. The total allocation of $6 million had funded scholarships for 130 students for overseas studies, and 1,613 scholarships for students studying in local institutions. Expected number of graduates for 2003 from both FIT and USP was 50 (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 108, 2006).
Following the budgetary increase, more scholarships have been offered for studies at both local and overseas institutions. An increase of 20 scholarships for overseas studies was recorded for 2003, over those awarded for 2002. Similarly, there was an increase of 142 for local scholarships for 2003, compared to 2002. However, the reported number of graduates for 2002 and the anticipated numbers for 2003, showed that there was much room for improvement considering that the underlying purpose and performance indicator of the programme was:

More Fijians and Rotumans are to attain professional, technical and other higher educational qualifications.

Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper no. 108 (2005: 83)

An allocation of $6.3 million in 2004 was able to fund scholarship awards for 121 students for overseas studies and 2,516 scholarships for students studying in local institutions.

Of the 30 overseas students expected to graduate at the end of 2004, 18 graduated (60 percent success rate), 8 failed to graduate (26.7 percent) but were allowed to continue and complete their studies, while 4 students had their scholarships terminated, (13.3 percent failure rate) and an overall 86.7 percent success rate.

In 2004, there were 905 students on local scholarships at USP. Of the 193 who were expected to graduate, 47 had their scholarships terminated, (24.4 percent failure rate and 75.6 percent success rate). A total of 261 students’ scholarships had been terminated due to poor academic performance.

From 2001 to 2005, a total of 2,951 Fijian students of which 114 overseas and 2,837 local had graduated under this scheme. This achievement is again in line with the scheme’s underlying purpose as quoted above (Fiji Parliamentary Papers 2002 to 2006).

**Overseas Awards**

For the 5 years up to 2005, a total of 539 students were on overseas scholarships administered by the MFA out of which 113 or 21 percent had graduated from their respective universities. It would not be easy to actually determine the success rate of the programme as some of those students had commenced their courses four or even five years earlier, while others would need to continue theirs’ into 2006, 2007, and 2008 and even into 2009. It was established that they had
started their studies in 2003, 2004 and 2005 respectively. However, the number that graduated in 2005 was more than double than that of 2004 as shown in Figure 5.4 below. At the same time, it was noted that the cost per overseas student stood at over $30,000 per annum. This revealed that for the 534 students over the 5 year period, the MFA had to spend a total of $16.17 million for their overseas studies or an annual average budgetary expense of $3.234 million (Fiji Parliamentary Papers 2002 to 2005).

Figure 5.4 shows that 2005 pass rate of 35 percent was the best performance year of the five year period. The pass rate had continued to decrease to 18 percent in 2002 and 16 percent in 2004. However, the increased pass rate in 2005 at 35 percent should provide an even better performance base for 2007 as well as 2008. The figure also shows that the overall average rate of termination was 3.8 percent while the graduation rate averages to 22.6 percent. It is hoped that future analysis would be annually based to be able to clearly reveal the actual performance level of the MFA overseas sponsored students thus a clear indication of the effectiveness of the programme.

**Local Awards: the University of the South Pacific**

Between 2001 and 2005, over 740 Fijian students had graduated from USP and have either joined the workforce or continued with further education, but there was not available data to determine the actual figures. At the same time, the termination rate of 56 percent during the same period was an issue that needed closer scrutiny as the scholarship scheme had been established for more than 20 years since 1984 (Fiji Parliamentary Paper No. 83, 2006: 18).

**Fiji Institute of Technology (FIT)**

In the last 5 years, over 2,000 students have benefited from the scholarships provided by the MFA and 740 have actually graduated with trade certificates and diplomas.

**Fiji School of Medicine (FSM)**

Since 2001, over 40 students had attended the FSM under the MFA scholarship scheme. The annual quota awarded to FSM was 10 which unfortunately had limited the number of new intake. However, the average pass rate for the last five years had been fairly impressive at 97 percent.
The cost ratio per student was approximated annually at $20,000 and for 110 students during the five year period the total amount was $11 million.

**Figure 5.4: Variable Performance Rate of Overseas MFA Sponsored Students: 2001 – 2005**

![Graph showing variable performance rate for MFA students from 2001 to 2005.](image)


**The Level of the Implementation of the PSC’s Scholarship Programme**

Table 5.14 shows the record of PSC’s local scholarships that had been awarded from 2000 to 2007. In 2000, of the 562 awards given, Indigenous Fijian students received 255 awards or 45.4 percent, Rotuman students received 12 awards or 2.1 percent, ethnic minority groups received 18 awards or 5.5 percent and the Indo-Fijian students received 264 awards or 47 percent.

For the 523 awards that were made available in 2001, 261 awards or 50 percent had benefited the Indigenous Fijian students, 13 awards or 2.4 percent were given to Rotuman students, 14 awards or 2.6 percent were given to the ethnic minority groups and 235 awards or 45 percent went to the Indo-Fijian students.
Table 5.14

NEW LOCAL PSC SCHOLARSHIP AWARDS (2000 – 2007)
STATISTICS BY GENDER AND ETHNICITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>EF</th>
<th>ER</th>
<th>OC</th>
<th>OI</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Years</td>
<td>1,160</td>
<td>1,170</td>
<td>2,330</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: PSC’s Annual Reports, 2000 to 2007.
Key: EF = Ethnic Fijians; ER = Ethnic Rotumans; OC = Other Minority Groups; OI = Indo-Fijians.

The awards for 2004 were also the same for 2003 which were 535. The Indigenous Fijian students received 330 or 61.7 percent of the awards, 14 or 2.6 percent of the awards went to the Rotuman students, 20 or 3.7 percent of the awards were given to the ethnic minority groups and 171 or 32 percent of the awards benefited the Indo-Fijian students.

For the 487 awards that were made available in 2005, 295 awards or 60.6 percent were given to Indigenous Fijian students, 9 or 1.8 percent of the awards were set aside for Rotuman students. The same amount of awards was also given to the ethnic minority groups while the Indo-Fijians received 174 awards or 35.8 percent.

In 2006, the total number of scholarships was increased to 516 awards. Of these, 304 or 58.9 percent of the awards went to the Indigenous Fijians students, 10 or 1.9 percent benefited the Rotuman students, 136 awards or 26 percent were given to the ethnic minority groups and 68 or 13.2 percent of the awards were allocated to the Indo-Fijian students.

Finally in 2007, 497 scholarship awards were made available by PSC. Of these, 283 awards or 56.9 percent were given to the Indigenous Fijian students, 7 or 1.5 percent were received by the
Rotuman students, 8 awards or 1.6 percent was given to the ethnic minority groups and 199 awards or 40 percent went to the Indo-Fijian students.

On average, 55 percent or 2,330 of the 4,231 total awards for the eight year period had been received by the Indigenous Fijian students of that total, Rotuman students had benefited with 92 awards or 2.3 percent, the ethnic minority students had been given 269 awards or 6.3 percent and the Indo-Fijian students has received a total of 1,540 awards, which was an equivalent of 36.4 percent of the total awards.

Unfortunately, figures could not be obtained from the WPSU of the PSC to ascertain the number of graduates during the eight years from 2000 to 2007. It is therefore assumed that a good number of the 4,231 scholarship awardees would have already graduated from the eight local tertiary institutions, including the two premier ones, the USP and the FSM.

**Figure 5.5** PSC SCHOLARSHIP AWARDS (2000 – 2007) (%) STATISTICS BY GENDER AND ETHNICITY

Source: Table 5.14 (Statistics by Gender & Ethnicity) PSC’s Annual Reports 2000 to 2007
THE INSTITUTIONALISATION OR OUTCOMES OF THE AAPs

Institutionalisation, as discussed in Chapter 2, occurs where an innovation or a planned educational change is embedded in the policy or practice of a school or a system. For this to actually take place, Miles (1983), Fullan (1991), Velayuthum (2006) and Wright (2007) pointed out that the management of the planned educational change must be linked to what is currently occurring in the system. Miles (1983: 18) further stresses:

...institutionalisation must be approached by providing supports and warding off threat.

Fullan (1991) further clarifies that innovations that are successfully implemented normally get institutionalised.

The level of the outcomes of the Policy

For this research study, the level of the outcomes of the AAPs for Fijian and Rotuman education has been identified through the varying status of its implemented programmes. As mentioned in the earlier part of this Chapter, the policy constitutes six programmes, with four sub-programmes for Programme 1 and three sub-programmes for Programme 6.

Moreover, the three Government sponsored scholarships as sub-programmes six had been successfully managed by their respective managements for a number of years before they had been incorporated into the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.

Therefore, the first focus is centred on the fieldwork findings to determine the levels of outcomes of the policy as discussed in Table 5.1(F) and Table 5.1(G) respectively. The two tables actually reveal the varying views of the PUs, PIMs and PINs on the outcomes as well as the important changes that have also been achieved so far on the AAPs for Fijian and Rotuman education from 2002 to 2006.

The negative views in Tables 5.1(F) and 5.1(G) below have been expressed specifically on the outcomes of school projects implemented by the MOE in rural, remote and isolated island locations. However, as noted earlier, a completely different picture had been viewed by the same stakeholders regarding the two Government scholarships and the Student Loan Scheme.
The Fieldwork Findings on the Level of Outcomes of the Policy

Table 5.1 (F): What has been the Outcome so far of AAPs for Fijian and Rotuman Education?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Viewed the Policy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy Users (Teachers) (PU)</td>
<td>57% viewed it as least beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27% viewed it as minimally beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13% viewed it as satisfactorily beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3% viewed it as adequately beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore, 84 percent viewed the policy as either least beneficial or minimally beneficial, whilst 16 percent viewed the policy as either satisfactorily beneficial or adequately beneficial in its outcome so far.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Users (Others) (PU)</td>
<td>47% viewed it as least beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47% viewed it as minimally beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6% viewed it as satisfactorily beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore, 94 percent viewed the policy as either least beneficial or minimally beneficial whilst 6 percent viewed the policy as satisfactorily beneficial in its outcome so far.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Implementers (PIM)</td>
<td>50% viewed it as minimally beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>37% viewed it as satisfactorily beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13% viewed it as adequately beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore, 50 percent viewed the policy as minimally beneficial whilst the other 50 percent viewed the policy as either satisfactorily beneficial or adequately beneficial in its outcome so far.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Initiators (PIN)</td>
<td>15% viewed it as minimally beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40% viewed it as satisfactorily beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45% viewed it as adequately beneficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore, 15 percent viewed the policy as minimally beneficial, whilst 85 percent viewed the policy as either satisfactorily beneficial or adequately beneficial in its outcome so far.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Overall Outcome</td>
<td>61 percent of PU, PIM and PIN viewed the policy as least beneficial or as minimally beneficial in its outcome so far, whilst 39 percent viewed the policy as satisfactorily beneficial or as adequately beneficial in its outcome.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
The difference between satisfactorily beneficial and adequately beneficial is clearly shown in Appendix 5.2

These are clearly discussed in Chapter 6. The overwhelming successes that have been achieved so far have been attributed towards the Government scholarships since their inception in 1983 and 1978 respectively. More successful outcomes have been noted from 2002 to 2011 when they had been incorporated under the AAP for Fijian education. The same successful outcomes rendered by the SLS have also been expressed accordingly, specifically by the students themselves.
Table 5.1 (G)

The Important Changes that have been achieved so far on Fijian and Rotuman education through AAPs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy Users (Teachers) (PU)</th>
<th>37% viewed it as least beneficial so far 47% viewed it as minimally beneficial 13% viewed it as satisfactorily beneficial 3% viewed it as fully beneficial Therefore, 84 percent viewed the policy as either least beneficial or minimally beneficial, whilst 16 percent viewed the policy as either satisfactorily beneficial or fully beneficial so far.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy Users (Others) (PU)</td>
<td>37% viewed it as least beneficial 50% viewed it as minimally beneficial 7% viewed it as satisfactorily beneficial 6% viewed it as adequately beneficial Therefore, 87 percent viewed the policy as either least beneficial or minimally beneficial whilst 13 percent viewed the policy as either satisfactorily beneficial or adequately beneficial so far.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Implementers (PIM)</td>
<td>57% viewed it as minimally beneficial 30% viewed it as satisfactorily beneficial 13% viewed it as adequately beneficial Therefore, 57 percent viewed the policy as minimally beneficial whilst 43 percent viewed the policy as either satisfactorily beneficial or adequately beneficial so far.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Initiators (PIN)</td>
<td>10% viewed it as minimally beneficial 50% viewed it as satisfactorily beneficial 40% viewed it as adequately beneficial Therefore, 10 percent viewed the policy as minimally beneficial whilst 90 percent viewed the policy as either satisfactorily beneficial or adequately beneficial so far.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average overall Outcome</td>
<td>60 percent of PU, PIM and PIN viewed the policy as least beneficial or minimally beneficial so far, whilst 40 percent viewed the policy as either satisfactorily beneficial or as adequately beneficial so far.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was evident during the fieldwork research trips from both the categories of policy users as well as the policy implementers, that the achievements so far concerning other AAP programmes at 40 percent clearly showed the failure of Government (policy initiators) for not allocating sufficient funds towards the AAPs for Fijian education. This had disappointed many of them.

The following views were expressed by a policy user during a talanoa session:

Government had been fully aware through our annual reports over the years the amount of assistance that was required particularly in rural secondary and primary schools for the indigenous Fijian students. That was the major reason for the 2000 Interim Government to have placed its 2001/2002 annual financial estimates for the AAPs at $8.436 million. After its official announcement by His Excellency the President in April 2001, we were tasked
to distribute the pre-prepared booklet to all these Fijian schools. For them to be easily satisfied with the PS Education’s inability of only spending approximately thirty eight percent of that amount was something we had never dreamt of. It was a major drawback to the whole AAP initiative. Furthermore, the MOE is now preaching to Fijian parents to place education as their top priority. Isn’t this a joke as education is not a priority of the MOE as shown in its above response?

FTA Office (2010)

To further clarify the low level of positive changes and achievements that have been experienced thus far in the implementation of the AAP for Fijian education, the above retired PIM further elaborated as follows:

In our various submissions over the years to the PS Education pertaining to the improvements of school infrastructures, school facilities and school equipments for Fijian schools, the MOE head office had prioritised since 1998, its development approach accordingly as follows:

Priority One: School facilities and equipment such as school stationary, textbooks, photocopiers, computers, water supply, and electricity, construction of roads and supply of small boats to island schools.

Priority Two: Immediate repairs of classrooms, teacher’s quarters, dormitories and other boarding facilities and strengthening of early childhood education.

Priority Three: Construction of new and additional classrooms, new dormitories and other boarding facilities, school playgrounds and other means of improving the teaching capacities of teachers and the learning capabilities of students.

It is now over 11 years and we also have this AAP for the improvement of Fijian and Rotuman education. What else is there that is still preventing our decision makers from actively initiating such needed policy to its maximum benefit for the better educational development of the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students? Funding sources have always been available both locally and internationally such as the European Union (EU), the AusAid, the NZ Aid and the Japanese Educational Assistance. Those are my sincere feelings and I will always hold them dear to my heart for the long overdue educational development of the indigenous Fijian children.
Following on from the above outcomes of the level of fieldwork findings of the study, is the documentary analysis, also on the outcomes on each of the six Programmes with their seven sub-programmes.

The Documentary Analysis on the Level of Outcomes of the Policy

Views expressed under each programme had been accessed from Fiji Parliamentary Papers, 2002 to 2005 respectively.

The Level of the Outcomes of the COE Programme

Given the overall improved examination results of the CEO schools, particularly in the total number of external examination passes, against the mere 8.66 percent approval rate of its approved budget estimates of $1,673,000 out of the total $19,313,364 requested fund, this sub-programme should definitely continue. It should however strongly support the need to continue focusing on achieving quality examination passes, so that Fijian students could fairly compete with other ethnic groups at the higher academic level. Increase budgetary allocation is therefore a vital issue. Moreover, development work on the present group of Centres of Excellence schools should first be completed to the required standard before including the remaining three Government secondary schools.

Therefore, the overall outcome of the Government’s financial assistance to such projects listed under the enhancement of Fijian education in programme one, had been summed up in Table 5.1 (F): 61 percent of policy users, policy implementers and policy initiators viewed the policy as least beneficial or minimally beneficial.

The Level of Outcomes of the Upgrading of Boarding Facilities for Registered and Non-Registered Schools Programme

There has been supporting evidence to prove that this sub-programme has contributed quite positively to the uplifting of academic performance of the indigenous Fijian students in particular, in rural and remote schools. This has certainly lightened the burden of parents in funding their children’s education. The Ministry of Education should continue to provide further support for the programme to progress further with the provision of more human and financial resources.
The level of the outcomes of the Provisions for Text Books and Library Books Programme (Sub-programme 3)

This sub-programme has contributed positively to the enhancement of academic performance of those Fijian students that have been assisted and as such it should be continued. However, schools would need to be more punctual with their requests, while the supply of textbooks from bookshops must be improved.

The level of the outcomes of the Community Outreach and Adult Education Programme (Sub-programme 4)

The Government report (FPP, 2006) further re-emphasized that it was crucial to continue to promote in the Fijian community, especially amongst parents and school managements, a stronger appreciation of the importance of education. This sub-programme therefore, needs to be strengthened and it requires additional funding if positive results were to be expected from rural education and disadvantaged schools.

The level of the outcomes of the Improvement of Rural Education and Disadvantaged School Programme (Programme 2)

The upgrading work of rural schools and facilities had been disrupted when Cyclone Emi had struck certain rural and urban areas of Fiji in 2003. Cyclone rehabilitation work of devastated schools mainly in the Northern and parts of the Eastern division had subsequently diverted resources away from the normal programme of school building maintenance and construction. Consequently, the provision of building grants to schools had been affected accordingly, some with nil financial allocation altogether. Therefore, the issue of better financial allocation should also be the central focus for this programme.

The level of the outcomes of the Vocational Education and Training Programme (Programme 3)

Improvements in the number and quality of teachers, facilities, and the expansion of the programme, have been noted in the course of implementation. However, there was insufficient data to determine the number of graduates who have attained paid employment and those that were engaged in self employments. Therefore, a tracer study has been recommended to evaluate
the success or otherwise of this programme. This present study should be able to live up to that anticipation.

**The Level of the Outcomes of the Special Education Programmes (Programme 4)**

More effort was required or continued to be needed to improve the standard and service delivery for Special Education. A review was due to be conducted to be able to establish key issues and needs, and to identify strengths and weaknesses. This was anticipated to assist in improving the overall services of Special Education Fiji wide.

**The Level of the Outcomes of the Student Loan Scheme Programme (Programme 5)**

The findings in the study have established a high level of appreciation from recipients of the SLS. This is reflected in the growing number of students in the peri-urban and rural centres particularly, from low income earning families who have continued to put pressure on the Government to increase such assistance for disadvantaged students who have qualified for entry into the higher education system. This is also evident from the growing demand for Government scholarships every year.

**The Level of the Outcomes of the MMEA Scholarship Programme (Sub-programme 1)**

Under this programme, the most deserving students, particularly from underprivileged families and who are also academically qualified are assisted accordingly. Government envisages at least one child from 5,000 poor and disadvantaged families should have a scholarship award by the end of 2006. With its present rate of success, the Government’s intention would soon be a reality.

**The Level of the Outcomes of the MFA Scholarship Programme (Sub-programme 2)**

As indicated earlier, it is indeed a welcoming truth that a good number of Fijians and Rotumans who now possess degrees and postgraduate educational qualifications would not have been able to accomplish their academic success without the FASS. It has also enabled many Fijians and Rotumans to successfully compete with non-Fijians, particularly Indians at the higher level of education. However, the education imbalance between Fijians and other races is still a reality. It is therefore imperative that this scholarship scheme be continued with an increased budgetary
allocation, if there was any real intention to bridge the academic performance levels between ethnic Fijians and that of other races. However, the introduction and maintenance of the Multi Ethnic Affairs scholarship would definitely hinder any attempt to do justice to that basic requirement.

**The Level of the Outcomes of the PSC Scholarship Programme (Sub-programme 3)**

As shown through the documentary analysis, certain positive revelations have also been noted through the PSC Scholarship Programme over the years since 2002. A lot more would have been achieved if due consideration was adequately focused on the active involvement of all relevant stakeholders. These include the members of the environment in the change process as well as the feedback from individuals and groups of the sub-systems of policy initiation, implementation and institutionalization.

Moreover, it has also been noted that a fair number of indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students have been quite successful in their tertiary studies in many overseas and local institutions through the PSC Scholarship programme. This is bound to accelerate into the future as they are being given a lot of positive support by their working parents, in particular. There is also a changing trend now in the attitude of the Indigenous Fijian parents. They are slowly, but surely taking the education of their children as a top priority. It has also been noted during the study that such positive impact has been the resultant influence created by the APPs on Fijian and Rotuman education.

**Quality of Feedback from the Members of the Sub-system and the Environment**

Essentially, there had been some positive development in response to certain feedback concerning the better approaches towards the management of government policy initiatives noted during the study. This was proved to be in support of the suggested model, Figure 7.1 in chapter seven. In fact, it also points to the central issue that has emerged in this study, which is the need to amicably focus on effective leadership at every level of the policy change process.

This leadership issue was further emphasised by the Minister of Education in the 2000 to 2001 Interim Government as recorded in the talanoa and vitalanoa sessions:
When leadership fails in any situation, be it at the school, district, divisional, national or even at the international level, everything else fails and the people become more miserable indeed as a result.

However, the feedback from the members of the sub-systems and the environment had been noted during the study to have been met with two levels of receptions. For instance, feedback from policy users at the grassroot level had not been readily accommodated by the PIMs at that level as they were only following what they had been instructed to carry out as the final line of policy implementers. PUs were instead advised to follow the official channels through their ‘Tikina’ and Provincial Councils for any of their suggestions. This was viewed by the policy users, particularly those in remote, very remote and in outlying island locations as unnecessary red-tapes, time consuming and financially expensive. This approach did not assist the PUs at all to fully embrace the intention of the policy.

However, PIMs at the Divisional and National levels had exhibited a more accommodating attitude from such feedback. For instance, the attached Tables at 5.1(H) and 5.1(I) from the fieldwork findings of the study have indicated that all the three major stakeholders in the planned change process have been able to agree, amongst themselves, to the following:

a. Those that should be held responsible for the shortfall in the outcomes of the policy and why.

b. The suggested solutions to the identified shortfall.

Such feedback had been communicated to the PIMs and PINs through unofficial channels of communication such as talanoa and vitalanoa. This again showed that such relaxed and widely recognised means of communication amongst the indigenous Fijian community had been noted to break official barriers that in most cases tend to unnecessarily complicate certain crucially important issues further. It also proved that when PINs and PIMs undertake to recognise the adoption of the indigenous Fijian traditional and cultural ways of solving management problems, a lot more would be achieved. After all, the PUs or the target groups in the innovation process were also the indigenous Fijians, who deeply value and recognise such traditional and cultural approach.
Table 5.1 (H)

The people that should be held responsible for the shortfall in the outcome of the policy and why: (PIN – PIM – PU)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy Users (Teachers) (PU)</th>
<th>43% claimed that both the PIN and the PIM should be held responsible for the shortfall in the outcome of the policy.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10% claimed that all the 3 major players, PIN, PIM and PU should be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47% claimed that only the PIM should be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Therefore, on average, the</td>
<td>72 percent believed that the PIM should be held responsible for the shortfall in the outcome of the policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>following were the final</td>
<td>whilst 25 percent believed that the PIN should be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outcome.</td>
<td>3 percent believed that the PU should also be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Users (Others) (PU)</td>
<td>30% thought that both the PIN and PIM should be held responsible for the shortfall in the outcome of the policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17% thought that all the 3 major players PIN, PIM and PU should be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>53% thought that only the PIM should be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Therefore, on average the</td>
<td>74 percent believed that the PIM should be held responsible for the shortfall in the outcome of the policy,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>following were the final</td>
<td>whilst 21 percent believed that the PIN should be held responsible and 5 percent believed that the PU should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outcome.</td>
<td>be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Implementers (PIM)</td>
<td>33% admitted that both the PIN and the PIM should be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>37% admitted that all the 3 major players, PIN, PIM and PU should be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30% admitted that only the PIM should be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Therefore, on average, the</td>
<td>59 percent believed that the PIM should be held responsible for the shortfall in the outcome of the policy,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>following were the final</td>
<td>whilst 29 percent believed that the PIN should be held responsible and 12 percent believed that the PU should</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outcome.</td>
<td>be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Initiators (PIN)</td>
<td>25% believed that both the PIN and the PIM should be held responsible for the shortfall of the outcome of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40% believed that all the 3 major players, PIN, PIM and PU should be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35% believed that the PIM should be held responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Therefore, on average the</td>
<td>61 percent believed that PIM should be held responsible for the shortfall in the outcome of the policy,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>following were the final</td>
<td>whilst 26 percent believed that PIN should be held responsible and 13 percent believed that PU should be held</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outcome.</td>
<td>responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Overall Outcome</td>
<td>PIM to hold 66 percent, PIN to hold 25 percent and PU to share 9 percent of the responsibility for the overall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>outcome of the policy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The above average overall outcome, noted during the fieldwork trips have been achieved in their ‘Talanoa’ and ‘Vitalanoa’ through the consensus opinions of the PINs, PIMs and PUs in their collective responsibility on the implementation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.

Moreover, the acceptance of the feedback by the PINs and PIMs through the sub-system and the environment has reflected quite positively on the needs and practicality of improving the outcomes of the overall management of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. It further established that when quality feedback is more meaningfully framed and with the adoption of a
more appropriate approach to be followed, both the PINs and PIMs would be willing to respond accordingly.

As shown in Table 5.1 (H), 72 percent of policy users from the teachers’ category believed that the policy implementers should be held responsible for the shortfall in the outcome of the policy. The reasons are as follows:

They are the ones who are normally entrusted with all relevant resources to fully carry out government plans and policies to benefit policy users in their respective communities and locations throughout Fiji. If they require additional financial, material and human resources in the process of their implementation, they are fully aware of how to go about it (procedures), where to seek assistance from (sources) and how much more they need (estimates). That was my experience when I was attached to the then Special Project Unit (SPU) which has now been renamed the Assessment Management Unit (AMU) of the Ministry of Education’s head office.

PU, Teachers Category (2009)

As also indicated in Table 5.1(H) 74 percent of policy users in the others category believed that the policy implementers should be fully responsible for the shortfall in the outcome of the policy. Therefore, the following reasons are relevant:

MOE officials are in privileged position within the civil service set up. They are undoubtedly well equipped with relevant knowledge, expertise and technical know-how to be able to successfully implement important government policies such as the AAPs for Fijian education. They have also been used to dealing with different sets of policy initiators over the years whenever a new government comes into power. Furthermore, they have been accustomed to meaningfully work with the various levels of policy users to enable them to successfully institutionalise such government policies with them at the grassroots level. Who else should be held responsible for the shortfall in the outcome of the policy?

PU, Others Category (2009)

Moreover, the strong feeling that suggests that the policy initiator is the key person for the effective and efficient implementation process of the blueprint for the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, was expressed by a retired PEO in the then Special Project Unit (SPU) as follows:
From my previous experience, I found out that the policy initiators are the main sources of any policy decision. For instance, when the Minister of Education (MOE) finally confirms his decision on such policy, he submits it to Cabinet with all the relevant details including financing, material, human and other resources. The approval from Cabinet would carry the full government mandate as policy initiators. The MOE is to then issue relevant instructions accordingly to his policy implementers. Once his PS is fully briefed and therefore starts to initiate the implementation process, the MOE as the policy initiator needs to continually and closely monitor all the implementation activities. This also includes his constant contact with the policy users. The present MOE, Mr. Bole is setting the right and a clear example in this situation for all to learn from. (More relevant information in support of the Minister of Education is provided in Appendices 6.1 and 6.2 respectively.

PU, Others Category (2009)

It can be safely said that whilst 50 percent of the respondents believed that the PIM is to be fully responsible for identifying the suggested solutions to the shortfall of the outcome of the policy, the collective views of the policy implementers (PIMs) as shown in Table 5.1 (I) should be carefully considered by all the three major stakeholders of the policy process owing to the following views:

In our implementation process so far, we have encountered some practical challenges from all the relevant sectors. First, from our main boss, the initiator of the policy through the insufficient allocation of the funds. Second, through our sometimes indifferent attitudes as implementers in the ways we see our allied responsibilities and finally, the most important concerns from the users of this policy. If I had had the ultimate authority as a policy initiator, I would convene more seminars to get together the initiators, implementers, and the users of the policy and sort things out in a manner that would show everyone that we need to cooperatively coordinate all our respective duties and responsibilities. In this way, we should be able to be more cost effective in our operations thereby managing to do a lot more with the very limited financial resources we are annually allocated with.

PIM Category (2010)

Moreover, it was further noted by most informants that more meaningful monitoring was vitally essential for the policy to fully achieve its objectives. All the three major stakeholders, PIN, PIM and the PU have further expressed that this was an important challenge that they were continually confronted with.
Table 5.1 (I)
Suggested solutions to the identified shortfalls

| Policy Users (Teachers) (PU) | 27% suggested that PIM alone to initiate better coordination of the suggested solutions.  
|                            | 33% suggested that PIN and PIM to initiate better coordination  
|                            | 40% suggested that all the major players, PIN, PIM and PU to cooperatively initiate better coordination of the suggested solutions.  
|                            | Therefore, on average, the following were the final outcome:  
|                            | 57 percent believed that the PIM to initiate better coordination to the identified solutions to the shortfall, whilst 30 believed that the PIN to initiate better coordination and 13 percent believed that the PU to initiate better coordination to the identified solutions to the shortfall. |

| Policy Users (Others) (PU) | 43% suggested that PIM alone to initiate better coordination  
|                            | 10% suggested that PIN and PIM to initiate better coordination of the suggested solutions to the identified shortfall.  
|                            | 30% suggested that all the major players, PIN, PIM and PU to cooperatively initiate better coordination.  
|                            | 17% suggested that PIN alone to initiate better coordination.  
|                            | Therefore, on average, the following were the final outcome:-  
|                            | 58 percent believed that the PIM to initiate better coordination to the identified solutions to the shortfall, whilst 32 percent believed that the PIN to initiate better coordination and 10 percent believed that the PU to initiate better coordination to the identified solutions to the shortfall. |

| Policy Implementers (PIM) | 23% suggested that PIM alone to initiate better coordination.  
|                          | 7% suggested that PIN and PIM to initiate better coordination of the suggested solutions to the identified shortfall.  
|                          | 70% suggested that all the major players, PIN, PIM and PU to cooperatively initiate better coordination.  
|                          | Therefore, on average, the following were the final outcome:-  
|                          | 50 believed that the PIM to initiate better coordination to the identified solutions to the shortfall, whilst 27 percent believed that the PIN to initiate better coordination and 23 percent believed that the PU to initiate better coordination to the identified solutions to the shortfall. |

| Policy Initiators (PIN) | 100 percent of them suggested that all the major players, PIN, PIM and PU to cooperatively initiate better coordination of the identified solutions.  
|                        | Therefore, on average the following were the final outcome:  
|                        | The entire PIN believed that all the PIM, PIN and PU to equally share the responsibility of initiating better coordination to the identified solutions to the shortfall of the policy outcome. 33.3 percent was evenly equated to each stakeholder of the change process. |

| Average Overall Outcome | PIM should contribute 50 percent, PIN 31 percent and PU 19 percent towards the identifying solutions for the shortfall of the policy outcome. More meaningful monitoring is vitally essential for the policy to fully achieve its objectives. |

Note: The above clearly reveal the overall consensus of the PINs, PIMs and PUs in their responsibility on the implementation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education that was achieved in their “Talanoa” and “Vitalanoa” sessions.
Table 5.2 Summary of responses to the four in-depth guiding questions
(Refer to Appendix 4.3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>11.</th>
<th>100% of the PU (Teachers), PIM and PIN and 97% of PU (Others) agreed that: The following are some of the main reasons for the indigenous Fijian students’ lower academic performance than other non-indigenous Fijian students:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of motivation</td>
<td>Lack of direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of self-esteem</td>
<td>Lack of purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of self-discipline</td>
<td>Lack of Parental Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only 3% of PU (Others) agreed that the “lack of direction” was the main reason of such negative outcome.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>12.</th>
<th>100% of PU (Teachers) PIM, PIN and 97% of PU (Others) agreed that: The structure and the medium used in the learning programmes could be a hindrance to the academic advancement of the indigenous Fijian students, together with the following:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English language as medium of instruction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum as too much academically orientated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment as too much exam-oriented</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory of teaching as too much based on western principles and knowledge (pedagogy)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only 3% of PU (Others) agreed that the “theory of teaching is based on western principles and knowledge (pedagogy)” was therefore seen as a hindrance to such academic advancement of the indigenous Fijian students.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>13.</th>
<th>100% of PU (Teachers) PIM, PIN and 97% of PU (Others) agreed that: There was a strong possibility that AAP would eventually succeed in bridging the education gap further between the indigenous Fijian students and others, together with the following cautions:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It has just started legally</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Such programme should be given enough time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political will needs to be reaffirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better coordination by all stakeholders:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiators</td>
<td>- General Public Programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementers</td>
<td>- Positive Mental Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy users</td>
<td>- Be More Responsible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only 3% of PU (Others) agreed that “such programmes should be given enough time,” to fully realize its positive impacts.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>14.</th>
<th>100% of PU (Teachers) PIM, PIN and PU (Others) agreed that: The following significant changes should be further implemented under the AAP to positively improve the educational achievements of the indigenous Fijian students, together with an adequate annual budgetary allocation with the full provision of the government’s legitimate executive authority:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maintain the present programme</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better coordination by the implementers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong political will by politicians</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous awareness and adult education programmes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More trainings and seminars</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All the 3 major players PU, PIM and PIN strongly supported further the continuing maintenance of the present AAPs for the education of the indigenous Fijian students. It was also viewed by all the 3 major players that this was the best solutions in solving Fijian education problems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, 99 percent is the average overall outcome of responses from the 3 major stakeholders PIN, PIM and PU that favour the above statements listed under numbers 11, 12, 13 and 14 respectively.
As noted during the fieldwork trips, there was a need to effectively assist the PIN, PIM and PU towards their cooperative effort to better understand their respective responsibilities in the policy change process. As mentioned above, Figure 7.1 in Chapter 7 of this study should provide some helpful solutions. The suggested solutions also include the important necessity for the three major stakeholders in the change process to be meaningfully involved in all the three phases of the innovation: from initiation, implementation and institutionalisation.

Finally, Table 5.2 discusses the responses of the informants from the major stakeholders, PIN PIM and PU to the four in-depth guiding questions at numbers 11, 12, 13, 14 as shown in Appendix 4.3. The recorded response have been sourced mainly during the talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa sessions as analysed in Appendices 5.1 (A), 5.1 (B), 5.1 (C), and 5.1 (D) respectively. Therefore, the final format of Table 5.2 has been formulated in response to Appendix 5.3.

CONCLUSION

Findings from the study have so far revealed certain key issues that have largely contributed to the continuing failure in the successful implementation of this government policy the AAPs for Fijian and Rotuman education. For instance, as indicated earlier, Table 5.1(A) shows that 72 percent of the interviewed policy users (PU) were barely aware or were minimally aware of the existence of the government’s AAPs. Even teachers, who were also policy users (PU), have indicated in Table 5.1(B) the same negative views that 83 percent of them were barely aware of the AAPs for Fijian education. It clearly showed that the awareness programme promoted by their MOE headquarter staff had gone straight to the community without any due consideration in involving those teachers at the school level. This should have been handled more professionally with better inclusive approach by all relevant stakeholders. The lack of due regards in the implementation phase of the change would certainly fail to achieve its targeted objectives.

Moreover, it was established during the fieldwork trips that the implementation stage should have been led and managed by someone who has the will and total commitment for the course. He has to recognise that to successfully manage the policy, he has to appropriately delegate
certain responsibilities in order to empower the change agents and users of the policy. This should ultimately create that sense of ownership of the innovation which has also been noted to be exceedingly important to the successful implementation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, thus its successful institutionalisation with the policy users.

Additionally, the study has established in its findings the need for the PINs and PIMs to amicably consider various feedbacks from the members of sub-systems and the environment of the planned change process. Whilst the inclusion of certain feedback would indeed be pleasing to recognise, it would also assist to achieve an appreciable level of outcomes in the planned educational change process through the support of more relevant stakeholders.

The above is then followed by a more in-depth discussion of the key findings of the research study.
CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSIONS OF THE KEY FINDINGS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is specifically devoted to the discussion of the key findings of the study through systems theory and the planned educational change. As mentioned in Chapter 3, systems theory has been identified as the best theoretical framework to anchor this research study on.

For the conceptual framework, the management of planned educational change has been identified to be closely aligned to the systems theory through its planned change process: initiation, implementation and outcome.

Therefore, in this discussion, such close integration and inter-relations as inputs or initiation, throughputs or transformation and implementation and outputs or outcome would be clearly outlined through the outcomes of the analysis of the key findings of the study.

The first focus is centered on the discussion of the characteristics of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. This is then followed by the discussion on the initiation, implementation and outcome of the study.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INNOVATION

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the successful management of any planned educational change depends largely on the characteristics of the innovation, their impact on potential users and the way they are seen by the other members of the stakeholder family. The characteristics of the AAP on Fijian and Rotuman education are discussed around the important variables of needs, quality and practicality, clarity and priority.
Needs

As pointed out in the fieldwork findings, the need for the AAP is also consistent with the worldwide trend for developing countries like Fiji. A policy initiator had related the following in talanoa and vitalanoa sessions:

For Fiji, the western concept of education that we have been adopting would mean that we have to have a steady source of an adequate level of financial income at every level of our communities. The Government has to assist us to be able to be self-supporting by creating avenues for marketing our agricultural products and sea resources. This is our major challenge. If this cannot be achieved, where else are we going to secure our financial income from to meet the increasing costs of maintaining our schools? Unfortunately, this Government assistance in the form of AAP would have to be ongoing if people in remote locations are not empowered financially. This is the same story in all third world countries which do not have strong economic base to sustain themselves on a daily basis.

Moreover, the analysis shown in Table 6.1 under the need, facility and users of the AAP for Fijian education in relation to their various locations reveal a lot of information. The content of the table has been compiled from field note records of 2007 to 2010. From earlier revisits to some of the rural schools, nothing much had changed in the maintenance of classrooms and boarding facilities. Some were still to be provided with suitable desks and chairs. Those rural schools were located in the highlands of Fiji’s main island, Viti Levu, which have better accessibility by roads.

As noted in Table 6.1, educational needs in rural, remote and very remote schools continue to be a lot greater than those in urban and peri-urban schools. When this is related to low income base of the supporting communities, it is then the State to improve its service delivery under the AAP. A member of the MOE’s implementation team related the following in the talanoa and vitalanoa sessions:

Sir, what you saw in those schools is a clear reflection of our services so far. What else can we do when the funds that we have been allocated with cannot even match half of what is supposed to be carried out for those schools. We probably have to wait for one or two more years before those schools can be further serviced.
Table 6.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOCATIONS</th>
<th>NEEDS</th>
<th>FACILITY</th>
<th>USERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CAPITAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>URBAN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Classrooms</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Library</td>
<td>Student Facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PERI-URBAN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Classrooms</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Library</td>
<td>Students Facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Special Classrooms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RURAL</td>
<td>Classrooms</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Library</td>
<td>Student Facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Special Classrooms</td>
<td>Books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Boarding Facilities</td>
<td>Text Books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Office Equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching Equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Desks &amp; Chairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>REMOTE</td>
<td>Classrooms</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Library</td>
<td>Student Facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Special Classrooms</td>
<td>Books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Boarding Facilities</td>
<td>Text-Books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers Quarters</td>
<td>Office Equipments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>Teaching Equipments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sporting Facilities</td>
<td>Desks &amp; Chairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VERY REMOTE</td>
<td>Classrooms</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Library</td>
<td>Student Facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Special Classrooms</td>
<td>Books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Boarding Facilities</td>
<td>Text-Books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers Quarters</td>
<td>Office Equipments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>Teaching Equipments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sporting Facilities</td>
<td>Desks &amp; Chairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Technologies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be ascertained during documentary study, records provided by the Special Project Unit or Asset Management Unit (SPU/AMU) and the Account section of the MOE have indicated the following annual financial allocations under the AAP and the Education for All (EFA) programmes:

### TABLE 6.2: 2007 – 2011 MOE’S FINANCIAL ALLOCATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>APPROVED AMOUNT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007 – AAP</td>
<td>$3.358 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008 – AAP</td>
<td>$5.819 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009 – AAP</td>
<td>$4.225 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010 – EFA</td>
<td>$5.6 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011 – EFA</td>
<td>$6.6 million</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 6.2 therefore indicates a downward trend in the financial provisions for the MOE’s SPU or AMU annual expenditures from 2007 to 2009.

However, the MOE had increased its budget allocations in 2010 with $5.6 million and 2011 with $6.6 million respectively. In 2010 it was renamed the Education for All (EFA) initiative to replace the AAP for Fijian education as shown in Table 6.4. This timely increase should amicably match the additional educational provisions required in those schools that have been affected owing to the abolition of the Fiji Intermediate Entrance Examination (FIEE), Fiji Secondary Schools Entrance Examination (FSSEE) and the Fiji Junior Certificate Examination (FJCE). The additional provisions include school infrastructure, school equipment, new technologies as well as the overall increase in the student population.

During the fieldwork trips, it was noted that more indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students have been benefitting from the EFA initiative mainly in urban centre. For instance, whilst the initial beneficiaries have been the well established Indo-Fijian schools, these schools have however been dominated by the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students population. (See Tables 7.3 and 7.4)
Quality and Practicality

The maintenance of a high standard of craftsmanship would also be essential for their durability particularly for the construction of the infrastructures of the schools. This was viewed as an important issue as Fiji usually experience tropical cyclones and hurricane from November to April.

The difference in the quality, as mentioned earlier, had been noted between the EU projects and those under the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. Local carpenters had been noted to be engaged in both the initiatives. The major reason for the differences in their work outputs had been due to the high level of expertise in the supervision and the handling of construction materials to the designated schools by the EU implementation teams. For the AAP for Fijian education projects, supervisors, as mentioned earlier, were ordinary Education Officer (EO) with Technical, Vocational, Education and Training background. In addition, highly qualified civil engineers of the EU were noted to be frequently moving around project locations throughout the construction period. Therefore, whilst the EU was taking a more professional approach in its responsibilities, the SPU or AMU approach was undertaken according to (a) the available funding at their disposal, and (b) the implementers’ depth of technical knowledge.

Another noticeable feature experienced during re-visitations was the incomplete status of buildings and the construction of school playgrounds. In certain situations, such incomplete work was easily accepted by village elders particularly in rural and very remote schools. The following clearly explains this situation further:

Veikimami, oqo e sa bau dua madaga na ka. E liu, era dau qito tu ga na gone ena dua ga na rara lai lai ka a koto ga eke. Oqo, era sa bau vakayataka talega na neimami cauravou kei na goneyalewa ena veisiga Vakarauwai.

Meaning

At least, we now have a much better playground than the small one we had here previously. This playground is also being used by our youths in their Saturday games.
The above also shows that the level of the completion of such projects is being directed mainly towards the anticipation level of the concerned communities. In other words, policy users were easily satisfied as long as the new projects had been able to present an improved standard than what they had experienced previously.

However, whilst the initial intention was always to maintain a high level of quality output for all the AAP projects, the insufficient funding has defeated this objective. The policy users, mainly in rural, very remote and island locations were then expected to complete the incomplete projects. This was not always possible owing to the unavailability of required resources as pointed out in the earlier chapters.

**Clarity**

As discussed in the earlier part of this chapter, fieldwork findings had indicated a negative view of 72 percent from PUs of their knowledge of the Government’s AAP. At the same time, most of the PINs and 44 percent of PIMs were fully aware of the initiative. During the fieldwork trips, it was further noted that members of the communities were not usually aware of the Government projects that were available to them. One of them related the following in the talanoa and vitalanoa sessions:

E levu na veivakatorocaketaki, era qai dau kauta tikoga mai na vakaillesilisi vakamatanitu ena nodra qai dau sikovi keimami mai. Oqo, e dau vakayadua ga ena veivula. Oti ga, era sa dau lesu tale. Sa na bau dede toka mera sa qai lesu tale mai. O keimami talega, e tu na neimami itavi me keimami qarava me baleta na neimami bula ena veisiga yadua. Ni sega tale tu ga ni matata vei keimami na yaga ni veivakatorocaketaki vakaqoqo, e vinaka cake ga mera mai vukei keimami ena veika keimami gadreva, ka kakua ni ra mai vakaososoosotaki keimami wale tu ga ena veika era nanuma ga vakataki ira ni ganiti keimami.

**Meaning:**

Many of the development projects are being relayed to us only when we are visited by civil servants. This may happen once a month. As they do not immediately follow-up such visits, it’s quite distributing as we also have our own things to attend to for our daily survival. As we are also not fully aware of the benefits of such projects, it would have been better if those civil servants were to assist us in what we need instead.
Similar sentiment was reported in the ‘Fiji Sun’ (14 August 2010: 2) which noted: Capital works implemented in various provinces should be in line with the community needs. On some occasions, works are being implemented but not what the community wants. The community may opt for other genuine and urgent works to be implemented which would benefit them instead of what is being planned for them by the Ministry.

PIN Category (2010)

When the PUs at the grassroots level are not fully aware of the need for the Government AAP, it would be difficult for PINs and PIMs to expect them to take ownership of the initiative. According to fieldwork findings, the issue of “effective leadership to be able to direct an organization’s clarity of vision, commitment and firm strategies” and to be able to move the organization forward was lacking with the MOE (An Australian High Commission Staff, Suva, ‘Fiji Times, September 6th 2010: 8). This is supported by the leadership literature in chapter 3.

The statement further stated:

The current decade marks a new paradigm in the development process. It means that communities, women, youth and children are not only beneficiaries of development, but are also active actors in moving development forward.

The above partly explains the implications of Figure 7.1 which is placed in the final chapter of the thesis. The major emphasis here is that planning, initiating and implementing Government policy initiatives such as the AAP is to be the cooperative effort, under effective leadership, for all the PINs, PIMs and PUs, if successful outcomes are to be anticipated. More detailed discussion on this theme will be a major focus in Chapter 7.

Priority

During the fieldwork, it was noted that other organizations and agencies were also sponsoring certain development projects mainly in rural and remote schools. These organizations included the JICA, the AusAid and the EU. The major issue noted with those agencies was the way their projects had been implemented. Whilst emphasizing closer and continuing supervision with those that were going to own the projects, quality finishing was always their priority. A representative of one of those agencies revealed the following in a talanoa session:
It has been our priority in our project implementation in any country for that matter that quality output is always our major objective. This is to be maintained always as people are bound to ask later as who had built that particular classroom or students’ dormitory. On top of this, we feel that we should always do special things for these special gifts from God, our children. That has always been the central interest and priority of the major sponsors of our agency.

It was further noted during the fieldwork trips that the major contributing factor towards low quality output in school projects sponsored by the MOE are as follows:

- MOE project implementers were ordinary civil servants (Administrative Officers and Education Field Officers). None of them had experience in project implementing and the necessary qualifications in Civil Engineering.

- MOE’s objectives were to equally share their project implementation with local policy users on the understanding that any incomplete work was to be carried out by them. The proper completion of many projects in terms of classrooms and dormitories in rural and remote Fijian schools did not eventuate.

- Owing to the various damages sustained on building materials during transportation to designated venues, extra finance was always required for the compensation of those materials. When the building materials finally arrived, it was normally a lapse of many months, thus no one was available to carry out the extra building responsibilities. This was also seen by the Minister of Education when he visited Gau Secondary School in September 2010.

Therefore, whenever the question of priority arises in project implementation, the Special Project Unit or Asset Management Unit (SPU or AMU) of the MOE had to secure in advance for its proper place in the eyes and interests of PUs. This was noted to be a new challenging issue and was no longer taken for granted by the implementers of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education owing to the low level of preference by PUs.

Moreover, the above have shown that much of the evidence presented so far have suggested that prior to the implementation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, there was generally a lack of careful consideration of core issues indentified in the international change literature.
These were the relevance, clarity and practicality of the innovation, readiness of implementers and policy users and the suitability of resources and facilities.

Consistent with international change literature such as Wallace (1991), Bottery (1992), Wallace and McMahon (1994), Fullan (2001), Aveau (2003) and Wright (2007), the findings in the study have identified that the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education have been initiated from many sources and for different reasons. For instance, as quoted earlier, the 2000 Interim Minister for Education had stated that his views on Fijian and Rotuman education had been previously maintained in all the Education Commission Reports, Parliamentary Resolutions as well as views of many internationally reputed writers. Similar views have also been noted from policy implementers who have indicated that the need for such assistance had been noticed over so many years during the course of their duties. For Fiji, as also reported earlier, the basic reason for such assistance is primarily due to the very weak and fragile economic base particularly, for the rural, remote and very remote subsistence based population (Narsey, 2003; and 2007 HIES).

INITIATION

Discussion in Chapter 3 revealed that the key factors that are associated with initiation decisions include the relevance of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, the readiness of its clientele and the presence of resources. Other phases of the change process would also be further focused upon.

The research findings have further established that problem solving and bureaucratic motives were the important factors associated with the initiation phase. This has also been supported by local and regional writers such as Sharma (2000), Bhindi (2003), Wright (2007) and Junior (2010) in the case of innovations they studied.

Additionally, as indicated earlier, research findings in Table 5.1 (C) have been able to establish that 93 percent of PUs, PIMs and PINs have favorably viewed the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education as the best strategy to alleviate Fijian education problem or successfully meeting the ‘failure of not putting enough Fijians through to the top’ (Rodger, 1966), and (Fiji Education Commission Report, 2000).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>DEMAND</th>
<th>OUTCOME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>The GCC (Great Council of Chiefs)</td>
<td>The concern was raised in its meeting for a review to be instituted to amicably address the disparity in the standard of academic performance between the Indigenous Fijian students and those of the Indo-Fijians.</td>
<td>The first initial reaction on the need to address the concern by the higher authority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>The Legislative Council’s resolution No. 30/1910</td>
<td>The same concern had also been raised in the Council meeting on 30th June 1910.</td>
<td>The second official reaction on the concern from the higher authority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>Fiji’s Director of Education (J. D. Rodger, 1966) (Cited in Whitehead) (1986: 22)</td>
<td>He had given the first catch phrase on the same concern regarding the Fijian education problems as “the failure to get enough Fijians through to the top.”</td>
<td>A clear admission by a legitimate authority on the Government failure to amicably resolve the concern.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>The FAB (Fijian Affairs Board) (April)</td>
<td>The same concern was further raised as recorded in the 1969 Fiji Education Commission Report (Preface: vi)</td>
<td>The third official reaction on the concern.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>The Fiji Education Commission Report (Preface: vi)</td>
<td>It says: “… but there is one which needs special mention here: namely the disparity in education performance between the two major racial groups in Fiji – the Indigenous Fijians on the one hand and those of Indian extraction on the other.”</td>
<td>Sets of recommendation had been raised that served as guidelines for future educational policy directions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>Fiji’s first Prime Minister, Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara</td>
<td>He had brought in special measures to address the lack of Fijian participation in the economy and to promote Fijian education. He had indentified these issues as crucial for the stable development of Fiji.</td>
<td>The initial positive response towards Fijian education problems through special measures or positive discrimination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>Clive Whitehead</td>
<td>In his study on Government Policy titled “Education in Fiji since Independence”, he had given the second catch phrase on the disparity in the standard of academic performance between the Indigenous Fijian students and those of non-ethnic Fijians as “the Fijian education problem”.</td>
<td>The second grave concern by writers and academics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>Fiji’s Prime Minister, Sitiveni Rabuka, after the first military coup.</td>
<td>He had instituted positive discrimination measures in favor of the Indigenous Fijian interests in education and their more active participation in Fiji’s economic development.</td>
<td>Actively continued the implementation of positive discrimination policy earlier started in 1970 by Fiji’s first Prime Minister.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>The Fiji Labour party, as the senior partner in the People’s Coalition Government</td>
<td>On the Party’s behalf, the then President, the late Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara had announced its new policy at the opening of the new Parliament in June on the following: - It recognizes the special place of the Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans in Fiji’s society. - It fully safeguards and protects their rights and interest in accordance with Fiji’s constitution. - It is firmly committed to providing special support measures and assistance in administration, education, business and on land and housing.</td>
<td>Could not really activate the special measures due to their short-lived duration (12months) in Government, before the 2000 Coup.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>The Fiji Islands Education Commission Panel Report.</td>
<td>On the Party’s behalf, the then President, the late Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara had announced its new policy at the opening of the new Parliament in June on the following: - It recognizes the special place of the Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans in Fiji’s society. - It fully safeguards and protects their rights and interest in accordance with Fiji’s constitution. - It is firmly committed to providing special support measures and assistance in administration, education, business and on land and housing.</td>
<td>Provided positive ground work for the 2000 to 2001 Interim Government’s AAP for Fijian Education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>White and Puamau</td>
<td>They had made unwavering views against indifferent treatment from previous Governments on the Fijian education problem. They further reiterated that future Governments needed to be proactive and provided better or more permanent solutions to what were surely becoming permanent Fijian education problems.</td>
<td>The third grave concern raised by writers and academics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>The SDL Party had adopted the 2000 Interim Government Blueprint.</td>
<td>This was the first major initiative to be undertaken towards solving Fijian education problems. Whilst it had undertaken the Initiative to map out the future direction of the plan, Government had further strengthened it by the legally instituted 2001 Social Justice Act through Parliament to safeguard the whole AAP initiatives.</td>
<td>The first legally constituted AAP towards attempting to solve Fijian education problem.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, as briefly noted in Chapter 3, the initial major drawback in successfully managing the six Governments initiated affirmative action programmes have been identified during the fieldwork trips which will be focused upon in the latter part of this chapter. Moreover, it is essential to clarify the whole initiation process further, by providing certain findings from this study to identify the various demands, needs and resources that are required at the input or initiation stage as detailed in Table 6.3.

**Resources required at the initiation or input stage of the AAP**

**Human Resources**

The 2000 printed booklets on the AAP for Fijian education further confirm the following appointments:

- 9 additional and newly appointed Education Officers to manage the SPU/AMU at the MOE head office.
- further 13 Senior Education Officers (SEOs) to be newly appointed to specifically manage all Fijian schools in each province. They are to be based in the 13 District Education Offices. These officers are to be responsible for the planning, coordinating, facilitating and monitoring the operations and development of every Fijian school.

It has been noted that the fulfillment of appointments into the above strategic areas as directed by the PIN have not been fully carried out by 2010. This interesting situation, according to the views gathered during the fieldwork trips, has served as a contributing factor to the unimpressive level of monitoring and other follow-up activities by the implementers of the AAPs on Fijian and Rotuman education (Fiji Parliamentary Paper, No: 73, 2002: 6).

**Financial Resources**

For the first five years of the implementation of the AAP on Fijian education under the 2001 Social Justice Act, the MOE had been allocated, under its four Programmes, a total of $36.495 million. Whereas for programmes, 5 and 6, that had been operating for some years outside the MOE’s jurisdiction, but directly enhancing the improvements of Fijian education, their total allocations for the five years had been $69.110 million. Table 6.4 clearly shows the allocated
amounts for the first five year period of the initiative. Further details analysis of Table 6.4 would be the focus of the documentary analysis section of this chapter.

However, there was a significant discrepancy noted on financing the AAP educational programmes.

In 2003, as noted in chapter 5, MOE’s financial estimate for Centre of Excellence Schools (CEO) was $14.3 million. The approved budget by the Ministry of Finance was only $1.7 million that made up 8.66 percent. Despite this, FSLC examination results of COE schools’ in 2004 were 80.8 percent. This record was against the national average of 70.7 percent. Moreover, the COE schools FSFE results was 17.2 percent in 2004 compared to 25.7 percent in 2005. Given the overall improvements in the above results, the programme should continue with improvement in the level of funding.

Other Resources

Policy implementers have admitted that they would have hoped to improve their level of monitoring and follow-ups particularly in very remote areas. Unfortunately, the unavailability of transportation and communication has continued to handicap their intention. One of the PIMs later revealed the following in the talanoa sessions:

I have only been visiting schools on Viti Levu using my own vehicle during weekends. Going to the islands and very remote schools have been left to our District Education Officers. Unfortunately, the feedback has always been unsatisfactory. Perhaps, they also have their own work schedules under their respective DEOs to attend to first, before they can assist us in our monitoring process.

PIM Category (2009)
### Table 6.4

#### 2002 – 2006 BUDGET ALLOCATION FOR AAPs FOR FIJIAN AND ROTUMAN EDUCATION
(Under 2001 Social Justice Act)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MINISTRY</th>
<th>PROGRAMME</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>GRAND TOTAL</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOE</td>
<td>1 (4 Sub-Programmes)</td>
<td>3.200</td>
<td>2.410</td>
<td>1.890</td>
<td>1.710</td>
<td>1.750</td>
<td>10.960</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.100</td>
<td>4.400</td>
<td>4.761</td>
<td>3.425</td>
<td>3.210</td>
<td>20.896</td>
<td>57.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.197</td>
<td>0.197</td>
<td>0.197</td>
<td>1.691</td>
<td>0.197</td>
<td>2.479</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td>2.160</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL (A)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.872</td>
<td>7.482</td>
<td>6.908</td>
<td>7.451</td>
<td>5.782</td>
<td>36.495</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of TOTAL AMOUNT SPENT</td>
<td></td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSC</td>
<td>5 (SLC)</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>7.000</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMEA</td>
<td>6 (Sub-Programme 1)</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>16.650</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MFA</td>
<td>6 (Sub-Programme 2)</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>33.800</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSC</td>
<td>6 (Sub-Programme 3)</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>11.660</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL (B)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>11.66</td>
<td>12.55</td>
<td>17.10</td>
<td>17.10</td>
<td>69.110</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total Amount Spent</td>
<td></td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>24.7%</td>
<td>24.7%</td>
<td>65.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Overall Total Amount Spent</td>
<td></td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The above views have also been matched by a village elder in Ravitaki, Kadavu, who related the following in the ensuing vakamuritalanoa session:

Na leqa levu duadua keimami vakila ni sa sega sara ga ni rau sota tiko na veika me vakatorocaketaki kina na vuli ni itaukei kei na veika e dau soli mai vei keimami na lewe ni vanua. Oqo e dua na kena i vakaraitaki. Sa raica na nodra Bure na gone ka toka ravita na nodra Valenikana. Sa oti oqo e walu na vula na kena sa tawani, ni keimami a qai tara ga, e se bera ga ni se bau dua na Dauraivuli e mai sikova. E sega ni macala e sa dodonu me sa tawani mai vei ira na gonevuli se sega. Keimami sega gona ni kila, ni se bera ni se mai sikovi tale tiko mai vei ira na Vakailiesilesi Vakamatanitu. E vakatale tu ga kina na mataqali veivakatorocaketaki e sa vakayacori tu ena gauna oqo.

Meaning:
The biggest challenge that we have noted so far in the development of Fijian education is the insufficient resources supplied to match what is needed at our level, the policy users. For instance, that boys’ dormitory next to the Children’s Dining Hall had been completed by our local carpenters, and have been occupied for eight months now. So far, it has never been visited by any Education Officer to ascertain its full compliance with government regulations and therefore declared fit for habitation. Most of such projects elsewhere have also been left in such an unfortunate situation.

**Clarification of the Initiation or Input Process**

To further clarify the input process, the following questions have been raised to assist readers of this research study further.

Who initiated the AAPs for Fijian Education?

The chief initiator of the AAPs for Fijian education was the Minister for Education in the 2000 Interim Government. He was able to convince the Interim Cabinet through the Interim Prime Minister of the initiative. He was confident that it would amicably provide the lasting solution to the ever bothering issue since 1908, concerning the disparity in the academic performance of the two major racial groups in Fiji, the Indigenous Fijian students and the Indo-Fijians. The Interim Minister had been a senior civil servant for many years. He had served as a senior school principal, the Chief Education Officer Research and Development, Director of Youth and Sports, Divisional Commissioner, Permanent Secretary for Rural Development and Permanent Secretary for the MOE.

Why and how were the programmes initiated?

As indicated above, the programme initiator had had adequate exposure in the relevant Government Ministries and departments to have personally experienced what he termed as the immediate educational needs for the Indigenous Fijians. He clearly stated the following in the talanoa and vitalanoa sessions:

> When I was called in to serve as the Interim Minister for Education in 2000, I welcomed the opportunity due to the various factors that I sincerely believe and had seen to be the inhibiting influence towards the meaningful development of Fijian education. In fact, the problems facing Fijian schools
and students have never been fully addressed at anytime, nor has it ever had the kind of commitment and priority that would have made the difference. For instance, the current education policies and practices have largely assumed a level playing field. This is very unfortunate indeed because there is no favourable consideration for the Fijian people concerning their special and unfavourable economic conditions which are the realities of their daily lives. These are some of them:

- Their rural settings.
- The peculiarities of their island settings.
- The absence of any regular source of income for the rural Fijian communities.
- The isolation of many Fijian schools and many more.

FTA Head Office (2007)

The above issues, said the Interim Minister, had also been raised by past education commissions, reports and research findings by recognized authorities both locally and internationally. In supporting the preceding discussion, the major focus here is on the analysis of the management of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, based on planned educational change. This is best achieved through the analysis of the research findings, focusing on problem solving and bureaucratic motives. This study, therefore, suggests that the two factors have operated in combination to initiate the policy, although their orientations and motives differ considerably.

**Problem Solving Orientation**

Essentially, AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education had been initiated with the firm belief that it would eventually solve the Fijian education problem. Other supporting findings of the study include the following as recorded in the implementation section of Chapter 5.

According to Table 5.2 (13), 100 percent of PUs Teachers, PIMs, PINs and 97 percent of PUs others had agreed that there was a strong possibility that AAP would eventually succeed in bridging the education gap further between the Indigenous Fijian students and others, particularly Indo-Fijians. Therefore, the policy has to be maintained to achieve its objectives.

The summary of Programme 1 – Sub programme 2 indicates that there has been supporting evidence to prove this sub-programme has contributed quite positively to the uplifting of academic performance of the Indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students particularly in rural,
remote and island schools. This has certainly lightened the burden on parents in funding their children’s education.

The summary of Programme 1 – Sub programme 3 also indicate that this sub-programme has positively contributed towards the enhancement of the academic performance of those Indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students that have been assisted, hence it should certainly be continued. More funds would however be needed in the process.

The summary of Programme 1 – Sub programme 4 shows that it has been widely recognized that it was crucial to continue to promote in the Fijian community, especially amongst parents, guardians and school managements of the stronger appreciation of the importance of education. The Sub-programme therefore needs to be further strengthened and be more inclusive of the members of the sub-systems. Continuous funding of $60,000 per annum would be needed if more positive outcome was to be anticipated.

Challenges and constraints of Programme 2 indicate that rural, remote and island schools have always had problems in attracting qualified teachers who were usually available in great numbers in urban and peri-urban schools. However, the continuing lack of incentives for them to work in those isolated schools would always remain a permanent feature. Other permanent characteristics of rural and island schools had included their isolation, inaccessibility and related high costs given their precarious locations. These other factors had remained to be the major inhibiting influence for teachers and for the development of schools in the remote, very remote and the scattered 55 islands which had been accommodating about 67 percent of all Fijian schools. These have been appropriately identified by the research study as part of the permanent Fijian education problems since 1909 (Fiji Education Commission Report 2000), confronting any attempt to improve the quality of education of the Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans.

Moreover, Fullan (1991), Goddard and Leask (1992) and Sharma (2000; 2006) say that the initiation of any change rarely occurs without an advocate. For the AAP for Fijian education, the findings of the research revealed that such advocacy had been first made in 1908 by the Great Council of Chiefs (GCC). Similar interests had been initiated by Fiji’s National Parliament in 1910, J. G. Rodger in 1966, the 1969 Fiji Education Commission, Clive Whitehead’s 1986
Review of Education in Fiji since Independence, the 2000 Fijian Education Commission and the 2001 AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education with its 2001 Social Justice Act. Most advocates have voiced their concerns on the Fijian and Rotuman Education problems and the failure to get enough Fijians through to the top and the need to institute remedial resources accordingly. In addition, Fullan (1991), Goddard and Leask (1992), Velayutham (1998) and Sharma (2000, 2006) have maintained that the initiation phase of any innovation is characterized by the mobilization of the staff around it. The research findings of the study showed that the Interim Minister for Education in 2000 had successfully mobilized his staff within six months to prepare all the required documents for the initial Cabinet approval and the launching of the AAP for Fijian education in April 2001. Whilst he was a powerful advocate of the initiative, he was also a key person in promoting it. As noted previously, the Interim Minister was a staunch believer of the policy that it had the potential to successfully provide the required solutions to the Fijian education problem.

Most of his subordinate officers have very high regard of him and was referred to by one of his close associates as a:

Visionary leader, reform minded and a hard working gentleman. He firmly believes in providing relevant education for all children in Fiji and assisting those that do not have the means to meet the financial demands. He is definitely a problem solver in education development.

Furthermore, Aveau (2003) and Wright (2007) have maintained that continuous interpersonal contact is increasingly important in the diffusion of innovations. In the findings of this research study, FTA members as well as other teachers were not at all involved in the initiation process of the policy. A head teacher of an island primary school revealed the following during the talanoa and vitalanoa sessions:

Who else would our bosses from the head office expect the villagers to seek clarification from after their visit today. The people will definitely come over to us, teachers here at school. Should we then be kept in the dark of such important issue as this new policy for Fijian education? I just wonder, why! Very, very interesting situation indeed, Sir.
The above incident clearly shows a major weakness in the implementation of the AAP for Fijian education by the MOE in the exclusion of their grassroots and village level representatives, the teachers.

However, Huberman and Miles (1984), Fullan (2001), and Nabobo-Baba (2006) have maintained that due to the mundane nature of their duties, teachers are less likely to be exposed to new ideas. They often restrict themselves to their classrooms and do not have the freedom to freely engage themselves with ongoing professional-based interaction within the schools or with their outside professional colleagues. The study was also able to establish in its findings that teachers in remote and very remote schools had limited academic and professional preparation. Their daily workload as classroom teachers had contributed considerably to their difficulties in accessing new ideas.

But Namudu (2005), Singh (2006) and Koroi (2009) have argued that the limitations do not necessarily mean that teachers do not have the capacity to innovate. Instead, authorities do not seem to offer them relevant opportunity. This is further matched with Fullan’s (1991:55) views that it is difficult for teacher innovations to be easily noticed because:

> the innovation paradigm which in effect traces the development and implementation of formally initiated innovations is biased.

From the research findings, however, the study supports Fullan (1991) further that teachers were still the preferred source of ideas, particularly in their rural, remote, and scattered island locations.

**Bureaucratic Orientation**

The study, through its research findings was able to establish that certain schools had been freely provided with text books and library books, before they realized that their schools had already been listed in the disadvantaged schools category. After receiving their first batch of assistance, which they really appreciated overwhelmingly, they were then informed of the existence of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. An excited parent shared the following in the talanoa and vitalanoa sessions:
Au dau raica ga na veivola vakaoqo vei ira na gone era vuli tu mai na koroolelevu ena Tauni. Sega vakadua ni’u bau tadra ni na rawa ni na yaco sara mai ki na koronivuli ena taudaku ni koro Vakavavalagi. Sa qai totoka dina oqo, ni ra sa qai vakautauvatataki kece sara ko ira na luveda e koronivuli.

Meaning

I have only seen these books with students in urban schools. I have never imagined that they will one day reach outlying schools like ours. This is really fair now as our children are given the same treatment wherever their schools are located.

Further research findings had stressed that teachers, parents as well as the members on the school management committees would not have been able to secure new classrooms, school dormitories and teachers’ quarters without the assistance of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. An Indo-Fijian head teacher of a Fijian school relayed his appreciation:

Sir, these new classrooms and our teachers’ quarters have brought wonders in this school. We have been able to secure 100 percent passes in our two external examinations for the last two years. With the completion of the boarding facilities, our school’s level will be up-graded to the second highest by early next year, meaning, promotional opportunities for at least four of our teachers.

Whilst it appears that ‘micro-political’ dimensions were at the forefront in the above statement, the genuine desires to improve the status of rural, remote and very remote teachers were difficult to ignore. It was also revealed in the above talanoa session that the particular head teacher had continuously been serving in most rural and remote indigenous Fijian schools for 10 years. The situation had encouraged the two teachers unions, the FTA and FTU, to foster closer working relationships with the teachers, parents, the school management committees, and the entire school community. Consequently, the MOE had been strongly urged to further attach two streams of Forms 3 and 4 to the primary school in the ensuing years to ensure that relevant educational opportunity was brought closer to the community in rural and remote areas thereby meeting the present Military Government’s EFA policy objectives.

Two Orientations in the Initiation or Input Stage

The problem-solving and bureaucratic motivations have been proved by the findings of the study to be the most important forces behind the initiation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman
education. As mentioned earlier, this study further supports Sharma’s (2000) findings that the problem-solving orientation had resided more in the Government policy documents of the APP and had presented itself as a form of rhetoric. In addition, the bureaucratic orientation had predominated at the school level, although it was a common practice throughout the system.

The findings of the study further confirmed that ‘micro-politics’ had played a significant part in the initiation of the AAP for Fijian education than has been recognized elsewhere in the Western education change literature. Furthermore, the major stakeholders viewed the AAP as providing them with personal benefit. This proved as earlier stated, that micro-political perspectives had clearly embedded itself throughout the system.

As mentioned earlier, the following motivating factors had been intimately connected to the above two orientations. These include advocacy, imposition, external funding for projects and programmes and the influence of AAP innovations in the international arena.

Finally, as shown earlier, the success of the initiation phase of the change process would further shape the implementation or transformation phase. This is discussed as the next focus of the study.

**IMPLEMENTATION (Throughput Process or Transformation phase)**

To justify the needs for the AAP on Fijian and Rotuman education, the study has established the following results through its documentary analysis as reported in Chapter 5. These include the identification of the following six AAP Programmes since 2001 with the MOE’s intention to implement them according to its approved plan as shown in Table 6.5.

**Clarification of the Implementation / Transformation or Throughput Process**

The following four questions have been raised to further clarify the implementation, transformation or throughput process:

1. What level of success has been achieved so far?

   Findings during the fieldwork trips as shown in Table 5.1 (F) have indicated that an average of only 39 percent of PUs, PINs and PINs have favorably viewed the AAP as satisfactorily
beneficial or as adequately beneficial in its outcome so far during its first five years of implementation. The majority that makes up 61 percent have unfavourably viewed the AAP for Fijian education as least beneficial or as minimally beneficial.

**Table 6.5 Implementation Programmes of the AAP.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMME</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION OF PROGRAMME</th>
<th>OUTCOME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME ONE</td>
<td>The Enhancement of Fijian and Rotuman education under its four sub-programmes.</td>
<td>The initial intention was indeed noble, but Government could only provide limited annual financial allocations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-programme one</td>
<td>Centres of Excellence (COE) for Government and Non-Government Secondary Schools.</td>
<td>Annual budgetary allocations had only been able to match less than 10% of the estimated cost required by the MOE. However, there had been an increase in the number of students who had passed the FSFE with over 250 marks from an average of 17.2% in 2004 to 25.7% in 2005.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-programme two</td>
<td>Upgrading of boarding facilities for registered and non-registered schools.</td>
<td>Fairly popular programme for its target groups. Has lightened the education cost of children on parents of boarding schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-programme three</td>
<td>Provisions for text books and library books for both Fijian primary and secondary schools.</td>
<td>Directly contributed towards the positive academic performance of Fijian students since 2002.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-programme four</td>
<td>Community Outreach and Adult Education Programme</td>
<td>The programme needed a more inclusive approach with all relevant stakeholders. 69% success rate had been achieved by 2004.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME TWO</td>
<td>The Improvement of Rural Education and Disadvantaged Schools.</td>
<td>$20,896 million and $56 million from the EU had been spent on the programme from 2002 to 2010. Continuing and additional funding was still anticipated to also meet relevant educational policy reforms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME THREE</td>
<td>Improved level of attention to be focused on Vocational Education and Training.</td>
<td>Improvements were needed in the number and quality of teachers, facilities and the expansion of the programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME FOUR</td>
<td>Continuing improvements on Special Education Programmes.</td>
<td>Only one officer had been coordinating all the work at the MOE’s head office. Improvements needed to pursue the recommended structural reforms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME FIVE</td>
<td>Improve service delivery through the Student Loan Scheme (SLS)</td>
<td>Being recognized as an alternative to scholarships by most students. Over 200% of the recipients have graduated in 2005.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAMME SIX</td>
<td>The three Government sponsored scholarship schemes.</td>
<td>The most popular programmes for students. Recognised as the pathway to achieving degree qualifications for those academically orientated students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-programme one</td>
<td>Ministry of Multi-Ethnic Affairs (MMEA)</td>
<td>Provided tertiary qualifications for the poorest of the poor non-ethnic Fijian students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-programme two</td>
<td>Ministry of Fijian Affairs (MFA)</td>
<td>Continue to assist Indigenous Fijian students with undergraduate and post graduate qualifications. A milestone achievement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-programme three</td>
<td>Public Service Commission (PSC)</td>
<td>Secured local and overseas tertiary studies for the most merited candidates annually, irrespective of their ethnicity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The unfavourable views expressed herein have mainly due to the following:

- The inadequate level of the annual financial allocations for all the projects and programmes.
- The inferior levels of craftsmanship displayed by builders and carpenters on completed classrooms, teachers’ quarters and students’ facilities when compared with EU sponsored projects.
- The negative levels of monitoring and follow-ups by policy implementers.
- The inadequate levels of commitment by policy initiators at the initial stage of the implementation process.

The following remark by a policy implementer further clarifies the “lukewarm” response by the policy initiators:

As civil servants, we are fully aware of the amount of favourable outcome of this AAP for Fijian and Rotuman Education. We have contributed our bits through the various projects and programmes that we have submitted for funding. The major drawback is the lack of political will of our Policy Initiators of not supporting our annual budget proposals. Without such tangible support in the form of vehicles and finance for the cost of our travelling, we are all crippled. It is very frustrating and can be very annoying indeed. On top of this, we only have six officers against the recommended ten staff members, who were supposed to have shared the SPU or AMU work load with us.

2. What has been the level of shortcomings encountered so far?

The study views the level of draw-backs or failures to be equivalent to the level of important changes that have not been achieved so far. In Table 5.1 (G), 58 percent of all respondents, from PUs, PIMs and PINs have viewed that AAP for Fijian education to have amounted to the level of drawback or failures encountered so far. Less than a half of them, which is 42 percent have been satisfied with the level of implementation that has been achieved so far. Furthermore, whilst accessing the responses from PUs alone, it was discovered that both groups of PUs have specifically viewed the level of drawback or failures at 84 percent and 87 percent respectively. The PIMs have viewed the AAP for Fijian education to be equally divided at 50 percent positives and 50 percent negatives.

However, an interesting outcome has been noted from PINs perspectives as reported in Table 5.1 (G). Whilst the majority of them that is, 90 percent have viewed the AAP for Fijian
education as either satisfactorily beneficial or adequately beneficial, only 10 percent of them viewed the policy as minimally beneficial. Therefore, their drawback level is only 10 percent whilst their success rate level is 90 percent.

3. What would be the expected level of outcome of the AAP on Fijian education?

Findings from the fieldwork trips as shown in Table 5.2 (13) have indicated the following results:

- 100 percent of PU (Teachers), PIMs and PINs and 97 percent of PU (Others) agreed that there was a strong possibility that the AAP for Fijian education would eventually succeed in bridging the education gap further between the Indigenous Fijian students and others at the end of its ten years of implementation. However, respondents had cautioned that the following should be equally respected:
  - The AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education has just started legally in 2002.
  - The initiative should be allowed enough time.
  - Political will’ needs to be reaffirmed.
  - Better coordination by all stakeholders:
    - Implementers to conduct and coordinate more general public awareness programmes and to encourage more positive attitudes;
    - Policy Users to urge everyone to be more responsible individual.
  - Only 3 percent of PU (Others) agreed that the programme be allowed enough time to fully realize its positive impacts.

4. What have been the various influences created by the sub-systems and their levels of acceptance by the initiators and implementers respectively at the input and throughput stages of the systems theory?

During the fieldwork a lot of views have been expressed by the members of the general public through their councils, boards, associations and even from other civil servants. One of them in a rural location revealed the following in the vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa sessions.
Sa da oca ga na vakasuka lesu tale tiko kivei ira na Dauraivuli eso na ka eda sa raica ni rawa ni vakavinakataki kina na nodra veiqaravi. Ia, e vaka e dau dredre sara na nodra dau ciqoma. Era qai dau tukuna lesu ga mai ni ra sa vakayacora tiko ga na veika era sa dau vakaroti kina mera vakayacora. Kevaka eso tale na ka e vo tu, me keimami sa na qai dau vakacavara ga na kena vakotivi vakavinaka. Vakabibi na veika me baleta na kena tara na valenivuli kei na kena katavilataki na rara ni qito.

Meaning:

We have on several occasions reminded the Education Officers of certain things that we believe could improve their level of services. It seems that their minds are usually very much confirmed to do whatever they believe is right and following whatever they have been instructed to do. They also maintain that whatever is left uncompleted, it is for us to complete. This attitude is quite common on such projects as building of classrooms and improving the school playing grounds.

When clarification was later sought from a member of the MOE’s implementation team, the following concern was expressed:

As civil servants, we cannot just respond to individual suggestions. They have to be brought up to us through the official channels. These are the District and Provincial Councils. We have to follow this procedure because we always need extra financial provisions from appropriate authorities to be able to fully service such public needs. Without adhering to these procedures, nothing positive would be forthcoming.

(Suva, 2008)

Moreover, during the fieldwork it was found that the key stakeholders who were involved in the implementation process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education included MOE officials from the head office, MOE field officers and other civil servants from relevant government ministries and departments.

However, an extremely sensitive situation had arisen at the initial stage of the implementation process. A very senior officer of the MOE had revealed the following in the talanoa session:

Sir, we are all eager to start the ball rolling now for the benefit of the Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans. Unfortunately, there seems to be a different tune coming out from our chief implementer, the PS for Education. The vibration is that the AAP for Fijian education is too hot a political issue for us to handle as civil servants. We, therefore, have to wait for this cloud of
uncertainty to finally “evaporate into the sky” so to speak, before we can do anything further.

The analysis from the permanent secretaries and other senior Government officials are as follows:

- Firstly, the PS Education was probably not fully involved in the planning and initiation of the AAP on Fijian education during the 2000 Interim Government. Therefore, an earlier suggestion for the whole initiative to be implemented through a private enterprise following the EU approach would have been a better alternative.
- Secondly, if the PS Education wishes to maintain her impartiality and neutrality, she should have approached the PSC for advice or just simply step down from the PS Education position.
- Thirdly, as suggested, the situation seems to show that the PS Education was an effective innovation “blocker” against government’s intention for its assistance towards Fijian and Rotuman education.

The above is consistent with Fullan’s (1991), Sharma (2000), Aveau (2003), Wright (2007), and Junior (2010) findings. In other words, the central administrators can be powerful innovation ‘brokers’ or ‘blockers’ if their personal interests are threatened.

The study was further informed through reliable sources, such as the FTA and the head office of the then ruling political party, that nothing much was achieved by the MOE’s SPU or AMU until the removal of the Permanent Secretary for Education in November 2003. To substantiate the above allegations further, the following discrepancies in Table 6.6 have been noted from the 2002 to 2004 Annual Education Reports when compared with the figures provided in Table 6.6 that were sourced from Fiji’s Parliamentary Paper Number 108 (2005:91) and prepared by the Prime Minister’s Office.

The figures in Table 6.6 are quite revealing and embrace a lot of interesting information. In total, it shows the amount of negative outputs created when the chief implementer of this Government policy becomes an innovation ‘blocker’. In addition, the following was also noted in the 2003 MOE’s annual report (Page 21) and recorded under the list of Special Project Unit (SPU) achievements:

The strengthening of the Fijian Education Unit has been achieved with the establishment of the Special Project Unit in 2003.
It simply implied that not much had been achieved since January 2002, as it took the MOE more than 20 months to finally establish the SPU. This may have explained the reasons for the discrepancies created in the expenses as detailed in Table 6.6.

However, when the new Permanent Secretary for Education was appointed at the end of November 2003, the study found that there were a lot of pressures mounted on the under-staffed SPU or AMU (see Appendix 1.4) to effectively deliver all the approved programmes. The whole initiative had been politicized. There were only two and a half years left before the end of the then Government ruling tenure. The then Government had also hoped that with the successful outcome of the AAP, it would ensure their successful return to their second successive term.

**Table 6.6**

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT AND FIJIAN EDUCATION.</td>
<td>$6,720,500</td>
<td>THE 4 PROGRAMMES PRESCRIBED UNDER THE MOE’S SPU</td>
<td>$8,872,000</td>
<td>$2,151,500 (24.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NB: There was no mention at all of the: SPECIAL PROJECT UNIT instead, the above sub-heading was therefore mentioned in its place.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>SPECIAL PROJECT UNIT (SPU)</td>
<td>$2,985,100</td>
<td>THE 4 PROGRAMMES PRESCRIBED UNDER THE MOE SPU</td>
<td>$7,482,000</td>
<td>$4,496,900 (60.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>SPECIAL PROJECT UNIT (SPU)</td>
<td>$2,985,100</td>
<td>THE 4 PROGRAMMES PRESCRIBED UNDER THE MOE SPU</td>
<td>$6,908,000</td>
<td>$3,922,900 (56.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fiji Government’s Parliamentary Paper (FPP) No. 108 (2005: 91); MOE’s 2002, 2003 and 2004 Annual Reports, pages 9, 10 and 10 respectively

Furthermore, the inability of the Policy initiators to better control and improve the situation had been viewed negatively by the users of the policy and even by the implementers or change agents.
themselves. The following views by a senior MOE official clearly reflect this interesting situation further:

As far as we are concerned, the contents of the AAP for Fijian education had been extracted from previous year’s reports of the MOE as well as the 2000 Fiji Education Commission Report. All of us from the MOE have been fully aware for a long time, of the needs to improve Fijian education. This unfortunate situation concerning our previous PS for Education has disrupted the whole implementation process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. Regardless, we will just have to make do with whatever financial allocation that has been set aside for the whole exercise.

The literature supporting the complex phase of implementation, as cited above, is supported by suggestions made by Huberman and Miles (1984), Sharma (2000), Fullan (2001), Aveau (2003), Wright (2007) and Junior (2010). In fact, the problem arises in the process of transferring ideas and practices from initiators to other participants including change agents and users at the grassroots level. In further supporting other researches, this study has established that “the transition from initiation to implementation should have been handled with extreme care so that ideas and practices are supported by a broadening base of concerned groups and individual,” (Sharma, 2000: 23).

As stated earlier, the throughputs or transformation process had therefore created “a certain degree of ambivalence, uncertainty, anxiety, frustration and struggle” (Fullan, 1991) and Sharma, 2000: 26).

Moreover, the implementation process, as shown in Table 6.7, had been located at four levels of Fiji’s education system: national, divisional, provincial, school and classroom. The process, as mentioned earlier, involved the Permanent Secretary for Education (PSE), Deputy Secretary Primary and Secondary (DPSE, P&S), Director, SPU or AMU (DPSE / SMU), programme coordinator, school principals, teachers, students and the school community. At all levels, individuals, as well as groups had acted as change agents. They had impressed on others to make use of what they had perceived as the innovation through AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.
As shown in Table 6.7, most participants were both change agents and change users but in different contexts. For instance, the programme coordinators at MOE (HQ) had been users of the AAP that their senior colleagues had imposed upon them. They got themselves fully immersed into the programmes. As change agents, they required teachers, parents and the members of community to operationalise them at the school and classroom levels. This finding is consistent with Sharma’s (2000) study. The Minister for Education for the Military Government since 2007 was, however, noted to be actively involved in following up the implementation of projects and programmes, even in remote and island primary and secondary schools. This approach had consequently motivated all the implementers of the AAP on Fijian and Rotuman education to likewise improve their work output accordingly. One of the SPU or AMU senior officers shared the following in the talanoa and vitalanoa sessions:

Our Minister is always on the move, just to make sure that money set aside for the AAP is expended to everyone’s satisfaction. He may have passed his best years of service but whatever he has done, he is showing a true testimony of his dedication, sincerity and complete commitment to achieve the overall objective of this AAP for Fijian education. He is truly a father figure to everyone at the MOE as well as the teachers and students. (More information is provided in Appendices 6.1 and 6.2 respectively)

PIM Category (2008)

**National Level**

At the national level, the Minister of Education and his Permanent Secretary were mainly involved in the overall education policy issues. Whilst, the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, under the SPU or AMU was one such policy, it was, however, noted that their major concern included areas which had required larger portion of the annual education budget. Those were primary and secondary education and the curriculum advisory services. The areas were considered as major or ‘heavyweight’ innovations.

During the first five year of the implementation stage that is from 2002 to 2006, the SPU or AMU staff had responded to the suggested changes in the hope of improving their services. For instance, Programme One was further broken into four sub-programmes, focusing on the enhancement of Fijian and Rotuman education.
While some improvements had been noted, two problems had arisen as its consequences. Firstly, lesser time was devoted to the other three programmes. Secondly, the annual financial allocations for the four sub-programmes started to decrease as shown in Table 6.4.

As mentioned earlier, change implementers at the SPU or AMU had been quite familiar with the whole AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education initiative. What was probably not clearly formulated and planned well in advance, was how to adopt a more professional approach in the spreading of the awareness programme to their counterparts at the divisional, provincial and district levels. It was further noted that implementers at the national level had found that there was insufficient time span from adoption to implementation. This had also affected their follow-up as well as arranging for more quality resources that were required during the implementation level. According to Fullan’s (1991: 72), “The more complex the change, the more work there is to do on quality.”

However, when the military regime came to power after December 2006, there were adjustments instituted in certain policy areas which affected the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. The new policy direction meant that all those initiatives were to be known as “the Education for all” (EFA), which had replaced the AAP for Fijian education name tag. Ironically, all the four AAP programmes directly under the MOE had remained the same but, with dwindling annual financial allocations, as show in Table 6.66. However, as mentioned earlier in Table 6.2 there were increases noted in the annual financial allocations for 2010 and 2011 respectively.

This simply showed that continuing assistance was always a reality for those unfortunate schools in remote, very remote and isolated island schools. The majority of the students are still indigenous Fijians as shown in Table 7.3 and 7.4 respectively.

**Divisional and Provincial Levels**

The lack of observing normal administrative protocol had created confusion in implementing the policy at the divisional and provincial levels. For instance, the Roko Tui, District Officers and DEOs would normally lead the delegation with the SPU or AMU officers during visits to identified locations at the divisional and provincial levels.
Table 6.7
The Implementers or Change Agents and Users of the APP for Fijian and Rotuman Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>CHANGE AGENTS</th>
<th>ACTION</th>
<th>USER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NATIONAL</td>
<td>Minister</td>
<td>AAP Policies &amp; Projects</td>
<td>Directors of Div. HQ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Permanent Secretary</td>
<td>Demands; Needs</td>
<td>PEOs, SPU / AMU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deputy Secretary</td>
<td>Resources; Staffing</td>
<td>SEOs, SPU / AMU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Directors of Div. HQ</td>
<td>Supervising; Monitoring</td>
<td>EOs, SPU / AMU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PEOs, SPU / AMU</td>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>DEOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PEOs, Sec. Pri</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SEOs, SPU / AMU</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EOs, SPU / AMU</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIVISIONAL</td>
<td>Director, SPU / AMU</td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>DEOs; PEOs; SEOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROVISIONAL</td>
<td>PEOs, SPU / AMU</td>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>Eos; Provincial Councilors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISTRICT</td>
<td>SEOs, SPU / AMU</td>
<td>Funding</td>
<td>District Dev. Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DEOs; DOs, Roko Tui’s</td>
<td>Monitoring</td>
<td>Principal Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Civil Servants</td>
<td>Evaluation; Feedbacks</td>
<td>V.Ps, A.Ps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHOOL</td>
<td>PEOs, SPU / AMU</td>
<td></td>
<td>HODs, Teachers, Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SEOs, SPU / AMU</td>
<td></td>
<td>School, Community, School Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EOs, SPU / AMU</td>
<td></td>
<td>Principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DEOs, PEO, SEO, EOs</td>
<td></td>
<td>VPs, APs, HODs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>School Boards; School Managers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLASSROOM</td>
<td>Teachers, HODs, Principals, VPs,</td>
<td>Usage of Resources, Programme of</td>
<td>Students, Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>APs, School Boards</td>
<td>work, Evaluation, Feedbacks</td>
<td>School Community</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


This was only observed during the initial visits to the four divisions. The community, school and other stakeholders had therefore made positive response. All other later visits had failed to continuously recognize this approach, resulting in the fluctuations of the level of responses accordingly. The following views of a now retired DEO should clarify the above further:

Sir, this is simple administrative protocol. When MOE (HQ) delegation intends to visit schools and relevant communities in any Education Division, the DEO and his staff would draw up the itinerary and immediately liaise with the respective divisional heads of other Government Ministries and Departments. The designated divisional liaison officer would also contact the relevant communities and schools. I would personally check and follow-up with key community members in my division and leading religious leaders. During the visits, all civil servants would be urged to focus on the theme of the visit and the expected outcomes that the members of the community would be more interested to know. Furthermore, my field officers would afterwards conduct their own pocket meetings, and further explain the new Government policy in so many talanoa and vitalanoa sessions with the relevant communities.
The findings of the study further confirmed that by observing the above basic protocol approach, the implementers would be equally seen by the policy users as united innovation ‘brokers’ and no one was left out to become innovation ‘blocker’. Moreover, District Education Officers on certain occasions had only been used by the SPU or AMU to follow-up with the implementation process whenever the need arose. This was viewed by the Divisional Education Officers to be most inappropriate as they had their own assigned duties and responsibilities that they were even overloaded with. If proper protocol was recognized by the SPU or AMU senior officers, everyone would, according to (Sharma, 2000: 33), “interact and function in unison rather than in isolation”

The feedback mechanism at the provincial and divisional level was discovered during the fieldwork to be also non-existent. Again, SPU or AMU Officers would prefer to directly approach certain rural and remote schools in their follow-up process without sharing relevant strategic information with Divisional Education Officers. This approach had been found to unnecessarily delay relevant feedback to and from policy users. It thereby prevented the benefit required from the amendments to their current projects.

As noted already, the insufficient number of officers assigned to implement the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education has negatively affected the overall performance of the SPU or AMU of the MOE. While the situation had been raised on several occasions through to the responsible authorities, nothing had eventuated by the end of 2010. As viewed by a member of the SPU or AMU of the MOE, the neglect is equated with those that prefer to undermine the implementation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.

During the research period, it was noted further that the Fijian Teachers’ Association was omitted from the change agent list (Table 6.5) at all levels. This was highlighted in Chapters 4 and 5 by the FTA president’s views in the talanoa and vakamuritalanoa sessions. The same concern was later expressed by a senior member of the retired Fijian Teachers’ Association in the talanoa sessions as follows:

I am not sure how they are going to achieve the objectives of this long overdue education policy for us, the indigenous Fijians without recognizing the FTA. During my teaching days, helping school children
with their basic classroom needs came naturally to us teachers. We, in fact, spend from our own pockets. Many students who are now in good positions both in the public and private sectors came through us with that affirmative action attitude. If the FTA was also included in supporting the MOE with this initiative, a lot more would have been achieved. I am saying this because I have been through all these when those at MOE now were probably not born then. I am sure, the MOE would turn around and do the right thing and let the FTA be also included, at least in the awareness and adult education programmes.

FTA Head Office (2008)

He further added that if such strong community support was not accommodated by the initiators and implementers of a government policy such as the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, their leaders have failed to recognize the words of wisdom by the late Ratu Sir Lala Sukuna when he said:

Always maintain a common touch with our communities and leave no stone unturned in consulting the people if success is to be achieved.

FTA Head Office (2008)

**School Level**

As indicated in Table 6.5, the change agents or implementers of the policy at the school level included the programme coordinator at the SPU or AMU, Officers from the Divisional Education Offices and the members of the school management committees. Following the normal procedures, they shared the responsibility of the management, supervision, monitoring, evaluating and providing feedback on the implementation process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. This normal arrangement is also shown in Table 6.5.

However, the findings of the Government’s Public Accounts Committee (PAC) as recorded in the “Fiji Times” (Thursday, 1 July 2010, Page 7) raised a lot of questions regarding the credibility and the integrity on those involved at the school level. The project concerned was Programme One, Sub programme one titled, ‘Enhancement of Fijian and Rotuman education specifically for Centres of Excellence (COE)’. The details of the PAC reports are as follows:

The NPH School has come under the spotlight of the PAC for using state funding on unauthorized purchase. The school was selected as a COE school but funds were diverted for the purchase of school uniforms, suits
for the provincial rugby team and some chiefs as well as building materials that were diverted to the Principal’s private residence. The PAC said the school did not meet the selection criteria neither did it submit its application to be included in COE programme.

The N/NPH School misused COE school funds. A glaring example was the inclusion of plans and site works for the school master plan estimated to cost more than $4 million and which was not part of the project for funding. The PAC said there was no acquittal provided by the school to the MOE to explain the utilization of funds.

NS School did not advertise the tender for the construction and upgrading when it used COE school funds. The PAC said the school appointed a contractor that was not registered with the Registrar of Companies. The PAC said the funds were diverted away from the school as a result.

As recorded in Table 5.5, the actual amount spent by the above three COE schools was $930,096. The research findings also indicated that owing to the above negative outcome from the originally selected COE schools in 2003, Government then decided to transfer its COE projects to its own managed 12 secondary schools.

At the same time, the continuing inability of the MOE in its implementation responsibility had also been highlighted in the ‘Fiji Times’ (Thursday, 1 January 2010: 3):

The PAC has revealed that four capital projects were not undertaken by the Education Ministry. The Ministry was appropriated with a budget of $144,968,695. The Ministry only spent $144,736,800, thus saving $231,879.

Moreover, the documentary findings on the four AAP programmes that come under the direct responsibility of the MOE have been clearly laid down in Chapter 5. The following comprise the summary of the research findings that are detailed under their respective programmes and sub-programmes as experienced at the school level. According to the PIMs, during the fieldwork these findings have been quite depressing and needed immediate reviews by all the PINs, PIMs, PUs and the Ministry of Finance.

**Programme One – Sub programme one**

As mentioned earlier, pass rates of both the FSLC and FSFE in 2004 and 2005 have improved despite the low budget allocation to the CEO schools. The approved allocation of $1.6 million
was equivalent to 8.66 percent approval rate of the $19.3 million requested fund. For the FSFE alone, Indigenous Fijian students have improved their pass rate from 63.5 percent for 2005 to 73.5 percent in 2006.

**Programme One – Sub programme two**

One hundred and eighty nine primary schools and 86 secondary schools have been assisted from 2002 to 2005. However, due to the decreasing amount of funds, lesser and lesser number of schools had likewise been assisted with their boarding facilities.

**Programme One – Sub programme three**

With the assistance of text books and library books, the following achievements have been noted:

- Increase in the quality and quantity of Fijian and Rotuman students who have been attaining higher education.
- Better academic results have been continuously achieved. For instance, all the schools that have been assisted have improved their pass rates from 48.9 percent in 2002 to 60 percent in 2004 in the FSLC examination.

**Programme One – Sub programme four**

By 2004, 795 villages and settlements out of the selected 1,152 have been visited. This is an achievement rate of 69 percent in the Awareness and Outreach programme. However, this initiative needs a more inclusive approach with the members of the sub-system.

**Programme Three (Vocational Education and Training)**

As of 2004, 48 secondary schools had accommodated Vocational Training Centres. Ten of them were operating under franchise courses with the Fiji National University of Fiji in stages one and two categories.

**Programme Four (Special Education)**

The following had clearly indicated the level of outputs of the programme by 2005:

- improved access for education for the disabled;
- improved standard of education in special school; and
- improved standard of living for students and others with disabilities.
A 2004 survey found that about 14,000 primary school children had mild degree of hearing and vision disabilities (Fiji Parliamentary Paper, No. 108, 205: 23)

As discussed earlier, the SPU or AMU officers did not recognize the need to include teachers who actually resided in the community in which the implementation process of the policy had been carried out. The resultants negative response from teachers should be accordingly noted through the feedback system from appropriate stakeholders and given the right attention at the national, divisional and provincial levels. Once this is appropriately addressed, better outcomes should then be anticipated at the classroom level.

Classroom Level

The implementation phase of the policy ends with the consideration of the three major features of the process at the classroom level: teachers as change agents, the free assistance and the students as change users.

Teachers

The teachers were the main change agents at the classroom level. The negative response of some teachers continued to be experienced at the classroom level in the use of library books and even text books by students. During the research period the following had been quite obvious.

First, teachers did not show the interest in the use of the library books supplied to schools. This was because the selection of those books was based from the interest of members of the school management. Teachers strongly felt that they should have been consulted and given the opportunity to select the books themselves. One of the teachers raised the following:

Who is better informed of the reading levels of our children? I thought that the capability rests with us teachers and not those school committee members who are ordinary villagers. On top of this, how can the bosses at the MOE entrust non-teachers on matters pertaining to what we do in our classrooms with our children? May be there is a lot of money at the MOE and no one knows how best it can be utilized for the benefit of teachers and our children.

(Primary School Teacher, 2007)
Second, the safe custody of library books and text books was also noted. In another school, a number of books have been neatly set aside and labeled as students’ prizes at the annual prize-giving at the end of the year. Most of the text books were still clearly secured in their packed cartons while students had to share their old and damaged ones. On the library shelves, a newly supplied set of encyclopedia had been neatly arranged. Whilst it was placed high on the top shelves, a clear instruction was placed beside it: “Only for Teachers”. It was further noted that the transparent covering had not been tempered with despite the early receiving date that was inscribed on its cover. Therefore, the books were not really used effectively.

Third, most teachers in rural and remote schools, did not value library books in their high school days. Unfortunately, the same negative attitude still prevailed in them until their schools had been freely supplied with library and text books. The MOE should have conducted relevant seminars with those teachers and formally informed them of the policy and the need for them to fully play their part accordingly as change agents and change users of the policy.

Fourth, the active participation of the members of the community in securing assistance from the MOE clearly reflected their political connections with relevant authorities. This had justified certain suspicion by others that the Government had adopted the innovation “on the grounds of political expediency, even though it lacks adequate resources and has not been sufficiently thought through” (Sharma, 2000:34). It was further noticed during the fieldwork that the innovation had reflected the felt needs of the indigenous Fijian communities resulting in no attempt at all to focus on the quality and practicality of the policy.

Furthermore, it was noted that rural, remote and very remote schools did not have programmes to indicate that they also have a clearly specified time on their class time table for library readings. They seemed to spend their spare time doing manual work in the school compound and always followed by certain sporting but unsupervised activities until schools closed for the day.

**Assistance**

As noted in Chapter 5, Tables 5.12 and 5.13 as well as in the MOE’s Annual Reports of 2006 to 2009, the following items had been listed to have been supplied to schools under the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education:
From 2002 to 2005, 233 primary and 97 secondary schools had received a total of $500,000 and $586,000 respectively for the purchase of their text books.

In 2006, the following were achieved:
91.9 percent of the allocation was used to purchase Fijian language books and text books for distribution to Fijian schools. Therefore, 39 primary schools and 27 secondary schools had been provided with text books. Textbooks on Accounting and Economics were also purchased to meet the needs at ACS, RSMS, Indian College, Suva Sangam and Ahmadiyya Muslim College.

In 2007, $480,000 was spent on purchasing Fijian textbooks for 84 selected secondary schools. In addition, 955 primary and secondary schools were each provided with the new Fijian dictionary – “The Fijian Monolingual Dictionary.” For the textbooks for Fijian schools, further $180,000 was spent to purchase the books for 46 primary and 36 secondary schools.

In 2008, the following were achieved:
$150,000 was spent on the purchase of textbooks for Fijian students.
$80,000 was further spent on Fijian language textbooks.
$230,000 had assisted in the purchase of textbooks for 72 schools.

Other Educational Resources that had been purchased were:
$101,000 worth of Science Equipment had assisted 52 schools
$72,000 worth of TVET Tools had assisted 27 schools
$100,000 worth of Computers had further assisted 20 schools

In 2009, the MOE had started work on the free supply of textbooks to all schools throughout Fiji, beginning with primary schools. Funding had, therefore, been provided to the Government Printer for printing textbooks to meet the MOE needs.

By December 2009, schools in the Eastern Division began receiving their initial supply to be followed by the Northern Division in early 2010. It was envisaged that by the middle of Term 1 of 2010, all primary schools would have received their full supply of free textbooks.

The research findings had established that a total amount of 2.8 million dollars had been allocated by Government for the purchase of books, textbooks and other equipment from 2002 to
Those pieces of equipment would normally be located within the classrooms and other specialist rooms and directly influencing the academic development of the education of the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students. However, the more pressing issue that needs to be looked at alongside the much needed provisions of those education facilities is their best utilization to maximize their usages. Without doubt, the focus should be on the availability of competent, dedicated, loyal and committed teachers. The qualities of the teachers should amicably match the following needed professional qualities that have been publicized by Government in the ‘Fiji Sun’ of (Friday, October 29, 2010: 10.) These are to:

- identify, acknowledge and affirm good educational practices in schools;
- promote continuing improvements in the quality of education offered to students;
- promote self-evaluation and continuous development by schools and staff; and
- provide assurance of quality in the education system based on the collection of objective, dependable and high quality data.

The above emphasis on the right type of teachers has been favoured by the study because it directly addresses the research questions.

**Students**

During the latest re-visitations to certain research venues in 2009 and 2010, it was clearly noted that the Indigenous Fijian students were starting to enjoy the benefits acquired through the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. These, as listed in Table 6.1, had included their capital and facility needs. For instance, for the rural, remote and very remote schools, there were new dormitories for the boarders, teachers’ quarters, new generators for electricity and newly established school playgrounds. Some had newly built classrooms and large plastic water tanks. For students’ facilities, there were new desks, tables, chairs, photocopiers, books, textbooks, teaching equipment and fresh supplies of science equipment. In some rural schools for instant, there were new technologies such as computers.

It was further noted and, as mentioned earlier, the students were not the only users of those projects and facilities. Other beneficiaries included parents, teachers, school community members and social clubs such as girl guides and boy scouts. As the school playground was
always available after school hours, village, district and even provincial rugby and netball teams also benefited from the school facility.

Moreover, students in disadvantaged schools, under Programme 2, had benefited with the provision of facilities through building grant scheme and other subsistence since 2002. For instance, in 2004, as mentioned in Chapter 5, 59 schools had benefited from a budget of $967,600. Many more schools had also benefited from remission of fees allocation of $895,021, tuition fees current totaling $4,818,175 and the per capita grant of $133,850.

As already discussed, students had also benefited through the following programmes as shown in Table 6.8 that had been operating for a number of years outside the MOE’s jurisdiction:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Established</th>
<th>Programme Sub-programme</th>
<th>AAP Activities</th>
<th>Controlling Authority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Students Loan Scheme (All Ethnicity)</td>
<td>PSC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>6 (1)</td>
<td>Scholarships (Non Fijians Only)</td>
<td>MMAF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>6 (2)</td>
<td>Scholarships (Fijians Only)</td>
<td>MFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>6 (3)</td>
<td>Scholarships (All Ethnicity)</td>
<td>PSC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1 (1 – 4)</td>
<td>AAP Initiatives (Fijians Only)</td>
<td>MOE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2, 3 &amp; 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Documents provided by respective Ministries and Government Agency in 2006

Table 6.8 further shows that Programmes 5 and 6 have been in existence for a number of years. Their monitoring mechanisms have been noted to have undergone some testing experience. They have had organizational reviews and have reformed their daily operations accordingly. Therefore, their overall performances as facilitators for the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education through their respective services would indeed be a real challenge for a recently established unit such as the SPU or AMU of the MOE to be equated with. This is further provided in Table 6.4. For instance, whilst $8.872 million was the first financial allocation in 2002 for Programmes 1 to 4, this initial amount had been continuously decreased over the last four years and it stood at $5.782 million in 2006. Whereas Programmes 5 and 6 have had their financial allocations since 2002 continuously increased from $10.7 million in 2002 to $17.10 million in 2006. In addition, further substantial increase has been noted for Programme 6, Sub-Programme 2 and the MFA scholarship allocations from $5.5 million in 2002 to $8.00 million in

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2006. Therefore, together with such substantial increases for Programme 5 and the other two sub programmes under Programme 6, it was also noted to have provided incentives to Forms 6 and 7 students. Their continuing higher academic achievements would therefore assist to secure them places at tertiary institutions through such financial initiatives.

Assessment of Implementation at all levels

As noted earlier, findings in the fieldwork suggested that the implementation process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education had not been conducted well at any of the four levels: national, divisional, provincial, school and classroom. The initiative, in particular, did not receive effective leadership or the necessary administrative commitment. Moreover, principals and head teachers, as change agents or implementers, were committed to similar, but more familiar assistance from well-established local aid agencies. Due to its low level of awareness and its abrupt introduction, the assistance was, therefore, seen as a lower priority at the various levels of the education system. Even though the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education was a Government solution to effectively resolve Fijian education problem, it was revealed during the fieldwork trips that this was implemented without the necessary ‘will’ to ensure its success in addressing this problem. In such a situation, the absence of key factors associated with successful implementation such as vision-building, evolutionary-planning and initiative-taking were quite obvious. In addition, the continuing communication of Government’s vision, the provision to appropriately accommodate feedback from the sub-systems and the proper monitoring had very limited success. To support these further, Table 6.9 shows some of the factors that impede the successful management of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.

The research study further noted that at all the four levels of the implementation process, participatory decision-making was limited. It was further observed that to a large extent, a non-participatory ‘top-down’ or centre to periphery approach had been the practice. The change literature has also repeatedly stressed that critical to the success of any innovation is the leadership role of the principals and head teachers as change agents. In particular, the nature of support given to the school level change actors was limited (Nicholls 1983; Fullan 2001). As explained earlier, the implementers of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education at the
divisional, provincial and school levels had not been appropriately trained to better facilitate AAP.

Table 6.9:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPEDING FACTORS</th>
<th>IMPACT OF THE MANAGEMENT OF THE AAP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 77 percent of the PUs were barely aware of the existence of the AAP for Fijian education.</td>
<td>1. It effectively reduces the level of community support towards the implementation of the policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 61 percent of the PUs, PIMs and PINs viewed the policy as either least beneficial or minimally beneficial in its outcome so far.</td>
<td>2. Such important feedbacks must be recognized and acted upon with urgency for the continuing effective implementation of the AAP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The PS Education was noted to be the initial innovation ‘blocker’ of the AAP for Fijian education.</td>
<td>3. It held up the full commencement of the implementation for 20 months thereby crippled the initial intention of the policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Teachers and their Union were never recognized by the PINs and PIMs in the whole process of the implementation of the AAP for Fijian education.</td>
<td>4. Many school heads and teachers thus managed the implementation phase of the policy without much sense of purpose. They were not convinced on a personal level of the value of policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The AAP for Fijian education had been adopted on the ground of political expediently.</td>
<td>5. It encouraged misuse and abuse of funds and materials specifically earmarked for the policy. It was a sheer mismanagement of resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. PIMs had rushed the implementation of the policy to the PUs thus neglected better preparatory work for its implementation.</td>
<td>6. It neglected the focus on the maintenance of the quality and the practicality of the policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The time span from adoption to the implementation of the AAP for Fijian education was short.</td>
<td>7. There was less time to follow-up and listen to feedbacks from the sub-systems and to arrange for quality resources required during implementation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Planning, initiation and implementation had been effected without the inclusion of the users of the policy.</td>
<td>8. It negatively affected the effectiveness of the policy. Discouraged PUs from claiming ownership of the innovation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Case record (Compiled from Field work findings) 2007 / 08 / 09 / 10.
INSTITUTIONALISATION

The study’s findings on the actual level of the policy outputs are being grouped into the following two major levels of outcome as reported in the fieldwork findings.

Discussion on the Fieldwork Findings

During the research period from 2007 to 2010, the findings, as mentioned earlier and recorded in Table 5.1 (F) show that 80 percent of PU (teacher) have negatively viewed the AAP for Fijian education implemented so far as either least beneficial or minimally beneficial. At the same time, many more of PU (others) at 94 percent has negatively viewed the policy as least beneficial or minimally beneficial. However, PINs have taken the opposite view of the implementation so far. Eighty five percent of them viewed it as satisfactorily beneficial. The PIM’s view, as quoted earlier, is divided equally as 50 percent positives and 50 percent negatives.

The above discrepancies clearly signifies that PINs views have been influenced by the feedbacks from PIMs unsubstantiated feedback and not on what is actually taking place at the ground level. For instance, a media report in the “Fiji Times” (September 15, 2010: 16) notes:

The MOE’s head said he was not happy with the sight of a school building that was on the verge of collapsing that greeted him when he arrived at the Gau Secondary School. The MOE had supplied the materials for renovations and upgrading but those items have been left idle and no one was available to carry out the required works. It is high time the people of Gau stand up and be counted as this school needs their support.

As indicated earlier, the inability of the policy users at the grassroots level to play their part and take possession of such assistance was a common occurrence in areas where AAP projects and programmes had been implemented. Whilst it would be unjustified to lay the blame entirely on them, policy initiators and policy implementers ought to have initiated and coordinated an agreed policy plan to solve these problems as soon as possible. In fact, the research findings in Table 5.1 (I) have supported this suggestion further with the following comments:

PIMs should contribute 50 percent towards the identified solutions for any shortfall in the policy outcome. PINs to contribute 31 percent, whilst PUs to
contribute 19 percent towards this positively coordinated effort by all stakeholders.

Through its research findings, the study has been able to identify an approach, which has been experienced to have created a positive impact on the initiators, implementers and policy users of the initiative. The suggested approach is titled, “Service from the Heart”. Detailed discussion on this approach will be examined in the final chapter.

**Discussion on the Documentary Findings**

As indicated under the financial resources of this Chapter, detailed analysis of Table 6.4 would be the central focus of the documentary analysis. The intention is to try and place certain achievements and challenges of the AAP against the total financial allocations during the first five years of its implementation, from 2002 to 2006. These have been mentioned in Table 6.4.

Specifically, therefore, the total allocation earmarked for the exclusive benefits of the Indigenous Fijian students for the first five years of the AAP for Fijian education, (Programmes 1 to 4 and Sub-programme 2 of Programme 6) it totaled $70.295 million. This showed that Programmes 1 to 4 had contributed $36.495 million, which was an equivalent of 51.92 percent and Sub-programme 2 of Programme 6 had also contributed $33.8 million, an equivalent of 48.08 percent.

In its attempt to identify certain achievements and challenges on the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, basing from the above analysis, the study was further informed by a retired academic, who had shared the following in the talanoa and vitalanoa sessions:

This total amount of $70.295 million is definitely a huge sum of money to be expanded within a five year period. But, let’s set aside this $33.8 million for the MFA Scholarship and let us focus more on the $36.495 million. Your analysis clearly indicates that it started off fairly well with this $8.872 million but, ended up with this $5.782 million. This is my view and it may contradict your findings so far. This programme had just started and it needed more time to establish itself. Yes, it should continue with a lot more commitment from both the policy initiators and policy implementers. The users of the policy will only respond according to the genuine level of dedication and loyalty that they identify with these people. What I am saying here is the important need to urge everyone in the change process to take firm ownership and permanent possession of the innovation.

He further reaffirmed that a lot of money had to be annually allocated for the initiative to be well established. The key really, he said, was for everyone to better coordinate their assigned duties and responsibilities. “Engage the right people with relevant qualifications. Continuous monitoring and evaluation of the whole operations in a more professional approach because government finance is involved here”, said the retired academic. He then concluded that if the initiative failed to successfully achieve its objectives, the Government had to be prepared to spend a lot more money in containing urban drifts. In addition, the Government has to design new strategies to utilize huge volume of raw resources in rural, remote, very remote and isolated island locations which had to be vacated through the local migration.

Moreover, institutionalization occurs when an innovation is well embedded as an ongoing part of an institution. This can only happen if the management of the innovation is clearly linked to what is occurring in the system (Miles 1983; Miles at al., 1987; Fullan 2001). Miles (1983: 18) further stresses that “institutionalization must be approached by providing supports and wadding off threats”. Fullan (1991) and Sharma (2000, 2006) further add that innovations that are usually implemented may not normally become institutionalized.

However, as revealed in the case of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, the research findings clearly established that neither the initiation nor the implementation phase was successfully managed. The initiation was largely a ‘top-down’ policy directive. The following were then viewed as the most significant factors which actually constrained the successful implementation and institutionalization of the initiative:

- The rationale behind the policy was not clearly understood by the policy users.
- There was insufficient administrative commitment on the part of the implementers or change agents at the national, divisional, provincial and school levels.
- There was an absence of cooperative participation in decision making by those involved and the policy was basically imposed with full government funding.
- The policy implementers were not adequately qualified and trained to successfully facilitate the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.
- There was lack of community support because the school communities were not ready for the innovation.
Considering the above limitations, it was not difficult to see why the policy had not been really built-in as an ongoing part of the attempt to solve the Fijian and Rotuman education problem or made the needed significant impression on the educational development in Fiji. Clearly, the policy had been institutionalized superficially. Again, political expediency comes to the fore here. It further confirmed that the continuing survival of such politically-motivated policy would entirely depend on the political interest of whatever regime that comes into power. However, owing to the absence of politicians from directly influencing the management of the policy, the present Military Government has continued to lay emphasis on the policy by increasing its annual financial allocations since 2010.

**Feedback**

As mentioned earlier (Chapter 3, Figure 3.2) of the systems theory framework, it actually shows that feedback constitutes a wide range of interests from the members of the sub-systems who were mostly users of the policy. They were normally exposed to certain situations that should provide them the opportunities of reviewing, with the PIMs, various ways of how they could effectively improve the implementation process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. As this is the major intention of how to effectively institute the policy, all stakeholders should be encouraged to be totally committed in this direction, in order to show their deep interest in taking possession or permanent ownership of the policy. The above, as Sharma (2001) notes and further supported by (Nabobo-Baba 2006; Wright 2007, and Junior 2010) is crucially essential in any change process.

Moreover, the fieldwork findings in Table 5.1 (B) have revealed that whilst 100 percent of PINs had been fully aware of the existence of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, only 44 percent of the PUs did.

This negative outcome from the PUs had also reflected in their attitude towards their initial reactions on the whole AAP programmes. They were further confused on which projects were specifically under the new policy as they have also had similar MOE’s assistance which they had been benefiting from over the years.
As already mentioned, PUs at the village level and in remote locations had difficulties in convincing PIMs (Education Officers) on any of their suggestions. This had consequently created their negative working relationships thus, the resultant inability of PUs to take possession of the new policy. The grassroots people had to formally approach the MOE through the proper channels for their suggestions to be accommodated. This was proved to be more time consuming and often quite expensive to PUs at all levels, particularly at the school and classroom levels in remote, very remote and island schools.

**Sub-systems**

As noted earlier, in Chapter 3 through the systems theory framework in Figure 3.2, the constituents of the sub-systems are drawn from boards, councils, institutes, local governments, associations as well as from the national government whose member have vested interest in the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. Their direct interest in the whole policy process as advocates and even as framers of the policy has placed them quite favourably with members of the Cabinet. As PIMs would attempt to maintain a cordial and meaningful relationship with their respective Ministers, it is indeed advisable that they need to be cautious in handling matters concerning the members of the sub-systems. For instance, during the study, the researcher was further advised by members of the sub-systems with the following views:

Civil servants, as the implementers of government policy, have to be truthful and be fully committed in the ways they serve members of the public. Cabinet Ministers are always committed in their responsibility by securing funds for all the approved projects, particularly for the rural population. However, when government work programmes are behind schedules, it does not reflect well on the implementers’ responsibilities. They should not be blaming us of reporting their failures to the Cabinet Ministers concerned, as everyone’s interest is involved.

**Environment**

Figure 3.2 in Chapter 3 clearly shows that the environment permanently surrounds any organization with their social, political and economic factors that promote or impinge on its operation. In this study, and in its theoretical framework, the whole process of the planned change clearly indicates the presence of an educational environment. However, what needs to be
guarded against is the amount of negative influences that they tend to exert that affect the outcome of the initiation, implementation and institutionalization of the AAP.

For instance, it was noted in the findings of the study that whilst the AAP on Fijian and Rotuman education had a clear intention of achieving its determined objectives for improving the standard of the first three selected Centres of Excellence (COE) schools in 2003, the PIMs at the school level had instead acted through the influence of other members of their school communities. While not much had been achieved, $930,096 had been unnecessarily wasted in the process. It clearly showed, as earlier noted, that the PIMs nature of their work environment is marked by a lot of social, political and economic pressures at every level of their operation. It further revealed the important need of adequately preparing all the PIMs and PUs well in advance before the decision is taken to implement such assistance.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has discussed the important findings of the study presented in the previous chapter. The discussion was anchored on the conceptual framework presented in Chapter 3. It is recalled that the framework comprised the three phases of the change process – initiation, implementation and outcomes – placed on a model of the systems theory analysis. The framework also contained the feedback mechanism as well as the subsystems.

Firstly, the findings on the characteristics of AAP were discussed focusing on need, quality, practicability and clarity. It was established that the need of AAP was felt more in the rural areas. This was because the rural dwellers did not get the opportunities for higher education owing to poor infrastructure and the unavailability of appropriate income generating employment. Therefore, the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans residing in urban areas benefitted more from AAP than their rural counterparts. Owing to the lack of sufficient overall funding and appropriately qualified staff, the quality and practicability of the policy suffered considerably. It was also found that many policy actors and users did not clearly understand the rationale behind the policy.

In regards to the initiation phase, it was found that the problem-solving and bureaucratic orientations were important forces behind the introduction of the policy. Some senior advocates,
such as the Minister of Education, the civil servants in the relevant ministries and the officials of the sub-systems, for instance the Great Council of Chiefs and the Fijian Teachers’ Association, were convinced that AAP have improved the quality of education of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans as well as their employment opportunities. The study found that AAP had uplifted the academic performance of these people. However, the gap between the two ethnic groups continued to exist. Some of the issues that need further investigation include the quality of teachers, location of schools, nature of the school curriculum and parental participation in schooling of the people for whom the policy was designed. It was found, nevertheless, that the problem-solving motive did materialize to some extent. In any case, this orientation was seen largely as rhetoric in the relevant Government documents. In the case of the bureaucratic orientation, the study revealed that several policy actors, such as the school principals and the senior members of the management committees, used the policy to acquire additional resources.

The study showed that the initiation, implementation and the outcome phases of AAP were not successfully managed. The policy largely followed the ‘top-down’ direction. This was mainly because the policy actors and users did not really understand the rationale behind the policy. Thus, there was insufficient administrative commitment at the national, divisional, provincial and school levels. Such a management process did not accommodate participatory decision-making. Further, the policy actors were not adequately qualified to successfully facilitate it. It was also noted that there was lack of parental community support and productive feedback from the key subsystems. In the light of these limitations, the policy was superficially institutionalized.

In brief, then, the key findings reveal that the AAP was not adequately managed. The policy attempted to bridge the educational achievement-gap between the two major ethnic groups residing in Fiji. Such a focus was not sufficient to promote it successfully. There was a need to portray a broader picture of the Fijian and Rotuman education. What needs to be further studied include the readiness of the stakeholders, the availability of suitable resources and the relevance of the policy. These are consistent with the international literature on the management of planned educational change.

The final chapter that follows begins by summarizing the key findings and, then, goes on to consider the implications of the study to its many audiences.
CHAPTER SEVEN

KEY FINDINGS AND THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

It is recalled that this study examines the Blueprint for the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. The final chapter draws the findings of the study together with the key findings which are presented in Table 7.1. This table also indicates whether the research questions of the study were achieved or not (see column 2 of Table 7.1). The chapter then goes on to discuss the implications of the study for policy and practice, the process of planned educational change, further research and the research methodology.

The chapter begins by repeating the research questions presented in chapter 1.

THE KEY RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study intended to address the following ten key questions:

1. How did the AAP in education for the Indigenous Fijians and Rotumans actually begin?

2. What are the characteristics of this policy?

3. To what extent have the aims and objectives of the 2001 AAP Blueprint been achieved?

4. What are the major challenges of the AAP and how were these addressed?

5. What perceptions do the implementers and users have of the policy and the manner in which these are managed?

6. How is the 2001 AAP Blueprint being implemented?

7. What are the key factors that facilitate and/or constrain its successful implementation?

8. How can the management of the AAP be improved?
9. In what form does the policy exist now?

10. What implications does the study have for the AAP policy-makers and practitioners, the relevant theoretical literature, further research and research methodology?

**KEY FINDINGS OF THE STUDY**

The study has gathered sufficient evidence to support the argument that there are two important factors that have played a major role in the management of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. First, those that have been identified in the international literature and the second, the ones that have not received much attention in the relevant international literature, but are particularly relevant to developing countries like Fiji. The factors in the first category include the following:

The characteristics of the innovation -

- The initiation process that encompasses the 3Rs: Relevance, Readiness and Resources.
- The factors that is associated with its establishment such as problem solving and bureaucratic motives.
- The factors and themes associated with the implementation process such as vision-building, evolutionary-planning, staff development, restructuring, administrative support, commitments and community participation.
- These factors have further supported the following commonly perceived notion in the relevant international literature that has provided a useful guide in this study to be able to understand and further improve the management of the policy. However, its relevance for developing countries like Fiji is limited by the understanding that most research in this field so far has been conducted in the Western world.

The following factors comprise the second category:

- The traditional Indigenous Fijian approaches in research.
- The need for all stakeholders to meaningfully adopt the newly transformed attitude of ‘Service from the heart’.
- The Data Analysis Instruments.
- The Indigenous Fijian Cultural and Traditional perspectives of AAPs.
The second category has demonstrated that there are a number of issues that are directly related to the Pacific Island nation of Fiji. In dealing with these issues, it is, therefore, unnecessary to seek outside resources as we already have them in Fiji. Narsey (2003) and Mataca (2007) have confirmed this by saying that challenges and problems in Fiji should not be dependent on adopting the Western models as we can formulate our own that suits us perfectly well. Mataca (2011) further confirms that:

Our own cultural values and traditions are vital in building bridges of understanding, tolerance, mutual respect and care for each other as the foundation for a new sense of national solidarity.

Fiji Sun, Sunday, 17 July (2011: 1)

The overall findings in this study would assist to complement the relevance of this body of international literature. It also firmly established that the successful implementation of a planned educational change depends a lot on its characteristics. It is consistent with the change literature (Fullan, 2001).

Moreover, under the second category, this research study has established the following four factors that are not in the literature but have been mentioned for the first time in this study. These have greatly assisted the researcher in articulating the presentation of this study and also assisted in arriving at a more conclusive conclusion. These include:

1. Indigenous Fijian Research Methodologies
   Vitalanoa
   Vakamuritalanoa

2. Data Analysis Instruments
   Graduated Assessment Scale (GAS)
   Tabulation Assessment Sheet (TAS)
   Summative Assessment Scale (SAS)

3. Indigenous Fijian Cultural and Traditional Perspectives of AAPs.
   ‘Veivukei’ - (Giving a helping hand)
   ‘Veinanumi’ - (To be considerate of others)
   ‘Veilomani’ - (Loving and friendly to one another)
   ‘Duavata’ - (Togetherness, Unity)
‘Yalovata’ - (Of the same spirit)

4. Service from the Heart

It implies the need to recognize the convergence of the Christian and the indigenous Fijian values in the leadership and management roles of such Government policies.

Indigenous Fijian Research Methodologies

Vitalanoa

Vitalanoa, as an indigenous Fijian approach in qualitative study has been identified and employed in this research study in support of talanoa and vakamuritalanoa as well as other conventional approaches. It normally occurs casually before, during and after a formal talanoa session employing the participants own dialects. It is recognized to have provided cushioning effect to the formal talanoa by allowing the participants to interact in a more relaxed and casual environment.

The Nature of Vitalanoa

Before the commencement of a formal talanoa session, the participants would normally vitalanoa either outside or inside the talanoa venue. Such brief interaction is casually held with low whispering tone in groups of two, three, four or even five. Their subjects of vitalanoa would vary and may not be centred on the topic of the awaited formal talanoa session. Others may utilize this opportunity to casually greet their acquaintances in readiness for the formal talanoa session.

Vitalanoa also occurs whenever the formal talanoa takes a break in its proceeding. This is observed through the serving of ‘yaqona’ as its normal practice. The duration of this vitalanoa may depend on the time that is taken to allow all the talanoa participants to each share a serve of ‘yaqona’. This incident may be repeated several times depending on the duration of the ensuing formal talanoa session.
Vitalanoa again takes place at the conclusion of the formal talanoa. In some instances, it is recognized as parting gestures to participants who may have not met for sometime. Normally, people that vitalanoa basically share common interests.

**Guides to the Nature of Vitalanoa**

As shown in the nature of vitalanoa, there is no preferred guideline adopted in this research approach. This is because the meeting of participants in most instances occurs accidently. Owing to the common interest that they share, vitalanoa is instantly sprung between and amongst them whenever they congregate.

**Vitalanoa Protocol**

The researcher’s choice to be part of a vitalanoa may sometime depend on the subject that is shared between particular groups of participants. On other occasions, the researcher may not really have a choice at all. This may happen as all other groups in the vitalanoa would always prefer to hear from the researcher on his views on some of the current media information. Once the researcher is in control, it normally leads back into a talanoa session. This is normally maintained before releasing the concentration of participants for more informal discussions in the vitalanoa environment before returning to more talanoa sessions.

Furthermore, it was noted during the fieldwork that certain pieces of important information that were relevant to the research topic had been freely shared only during the vitalanoa. Such crucial information was noted to have been difficult to be further available from the same informant during the talanoa.

**Gathering Data in Vitalanoa**

In the more relaxed environment of vitalanoa together with the casual nature of its proceeding and normally around a ‘tanoa’ (carved wooden bowl) of ‘yaqona’, it was not easy to freely employ many means of data collection strategies without attracting the attention of the vitalanoa participants. However, the researcher was able to quietly record certain useful information
through his cassette tape recorder and his field note records. Failing to achieve this, many pieces of useful information would not have been recorded at all.

Vitalanoa, as noted earlier, had greatly assisted the researcher to carefully identify his subjects for further group talanoa as well as those individual respondents for his vakamuritalanoa sessions later during the fieldwork trips.

**Vakamuritalanoa**

Pertinent information regarding vakamuritalanoa as an important new addition to talanoa and vitalanoa and as an indigenous Fijian research approach in qualitative study has been fully discussed in Chapter four. The discussions have been focused under the following sub-headings:

- The Inception of Vakamuritalanoa.
- The Nature of Vakamuritalanoa.
- Guides to the Nature of Vakamuritalanoa.
- Vakamuritalanoa Protocol.
- Gaining Access in Vakamuritalanoa.
- Gathering Data in Vakamuritalanoa.

In further supporting vakamuritalanoa, the qualitative researcher is encouraged to continue seeking more in-depth information from an informant, who has had an earlier talanoa session with him. This close interaction between the researcher and the respondent actually ensures their better understanding and cooperation that is essential in eliciting more valuable information from the informant. On the other hand, the researcher is expected to take special care of the information that has been shared. He needs to be more sensitive on what to impart and how to impart while deeply recognizing and valuing the entire spirit surrounding the shared information during the vakamuritalanoa.

**Data Analysis Instruments**

The following data analysis instruments have been newly designed by the researcher specifically for this research study. They have not been cited in any literature or have been accessed from any previous work by any other researchers, thus are declared as the new findings of this study.
Graduated Assessment Scale (GAS)

The GAS is the first data analysis instrument specifically design by the researcher of this study and adopted in its data analysis. Detailed discussion of the GAS has already been presented in Appendix 4.5 of Chapter 4. Further discussion to clearly explain how GAS had actually dovetailed into the SAS had been focused upon under the SAS and its outcomes are also shown in Table 5.2.

In fact, it was established during the data analysis period that the proper design of the GAS, coupled with the analysis adopted in the TAS (1) to TAS (4) and further analyzed in the SAS had successfully secured the initial outcomes of the whole research analysis of the AAPs for Fijian and Rotuman education. The outcome of the research analysis adopted in the GAS is further transferred to the Tabulation Assessment Sheets one to four for further analysis.

Tabulation Assessment Sheets (TAS) (1) to (TAS) (4)

The four sheets of the TAS (1) to TAS (4) contain all the records of preferences from the 110 identified respondents of the three major stakeholders of the research study. These consist of 30 PU (Teachers), 30 PU (Others), 30 PIM (Civil Servants) and 20 PINs (Hon. Ministers, Assistant Ministers, Senators and other Government MPs).

The TAS is the second data analysis instrument employed in the study. Indicated immediately below the assessment sheet is the Summary of Responses expressed in percentage (%). This has been placed in this strategic position to clearly indicate the actual level of response in close relation to the numerical numbers from 1 to 5 that have been recorded against each respondent. The research results, now expressed in percentage in the Summary of Response are then transferred into the third research data analysis instrument known as the Summative Assessment Scale (SAS) as shown in Appendix 5.2 and Appendix 5.3 respectively for further analysis.
Summative Assessment Scale (SAS)

The SAS shows the combination of all the outcomes of the research results analyzed in their respective data analysis instruments from GAS to TAS. In fact, the top portion of the SAS is strategically occupied by the GAS (see Appendix 5.2). This is clearly demarcated under percentage point zero (0) with the highest numerical figure 5 but under the notion of barely aware. Next is the percentage point 25 with the numerical figure 4 and under the minimally aware demarcated line. Next is the middle percentage point of 50 with numerical figure 3 and under the satisfactorily aware status. Beyond this mid-point, are the 75 percentage point with the numerical figure 2 under adequately aware and finally the 100 percentage point with the numerical figure 1 under the fully aware category.

As shown in Appendix 5.2, these classifications in the GAS actually dovetail into the SAS. These further divide the level of responses, in percentage point, of the 110 respondents against each of the guiding questions. The demarcation line starts from the ‘least beneficial’ or ‘least’, to ‘minimally beneficial’ or ‘minimum’, to ‘good’ or ‘average’ status of awareness, to ‘better’ level of awareness or ‘medium’ benefits and to ‘very effective’ or ‘maximum’ / most benefits of the entire AAPs for Fijian and Rotuman education.

Additionally, Appendix 5.3 shows the actual preferences in percentage point of the 110 research respondents specifically to the four in-depth guiding questions. Those questions have been designed to accommodate four to six listed views and ideas to further assist and amicably maintain the required direction of the whole interview, together with the respective favored views of the respondents.

Readers are advised that the alphabetical orders of A, B, C and D appearing in the SAS simply signifies the four groups of respondents in the research study: the PU (Teachers), PU (Other), PIMs (Civil Servants) and PINs (Hon. Ministers, Asst. Ministers, Senators and other Government MPs).
Indigenous Fijian Cultural and Traditional Perspectives of AAPs

Findings in this study have established that the form of preferential and up-lifting policy for those who are socially and educationally backward in our society is called the affirmative action policy or the AAPs. Further findings have confirmed that the affirmative action programmes have been accepted only as a temporary measure to meet the needs of those that are marginalized in our communities.

As for the purpose of this study, there was a need to identify the indigenous Fijian version of the affirmative action policy that was acceptable and widely recognized nationally. This need was further necessitated by the adoption of the indigenous Fijian research methods of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa during the fieldwork activities which had been conducted in rural villages and settlements predominated by the indigenous Fijian populations.

Therefore, through the findings of this study and supported by Ravuvu (1988:8), the following indigenous Fijian versions of affirmative action have been formulated for the first time and initially adopted in this study:

These are ‘veivukei’ (giving a helping hand), ‘veinanumi’ (to be considerate of others), ‘veilomani’ (loving and friendly to one another), and ‘duavata’ (togetherness) or ‘yalovata’ (of the same spirit).

According to Hari Ram (1985), the above ideologies also recognize and are closely interrelated to the common understanding that the indigenous Fijians are locally and internationally renowned for their deep Christian faith, which is the foundation of their belief. They further acknowledge the belief that they are amongst God’s people and they also fully embrace the conviction of share and care in which ‘Me kua ni dua e guilecavi’ or (No one is to be left behind) in their daily life. This basic belief of the close interconnectedness of the above indigenous Fijian ideologies with their Christian faith is further confirmed by Tuwere (2002:58) when he says:

From the beginning, the ‘vanua’ (the land and the people) was closely wedded to the ‘lotu’ (Christianity)
Finally, when affirmative action is relooked at from another perspective, ‘share and care’ could be another name for it. This is confirmed by Ravuvu (1988) who says that the idea of share and care is embodied in the Fijian ideal terms of ‘veivuke, veinanumi, veilomani, duavata’ or ‘yalovata’ as mentioned above. When these ideals are manifested into real action, Ravuvu maintains that the concept of share and care or affirmative action is recognized for the maintenance of harmony and solidarity amongst the people in a community. Therefore, the findings of this study have established that the above ideologies have provided the firm foundation in the institution of affirmative action to those that have been provided with this initiative.

**Service from the Heart**

The need to improve and further develop the level of service rendered to the policy users or grassroots people by Fiji’s civil servants has always been the focus of past Governments. Even the present Military Government has continuously adopted this need since 2007 and has accommodated it in its policy document of the ‘People’s Charter for Change, Peace and Progress (PCCPP)’ in order to build a better Fiji for all by 2014 (National Council for Building a Better Fiji, 2007).

However, problems and challenges confronting such initiative seem to be thriving continuously despite adopting remedial measures that have been instituted in every hierarchical level of Government.

As mentioned in Chapters 3 to 6, the unbalanced emphasized on the subjective and objective realities of development seem to be the cause of Government failures. Further findings of this study have established that all development policies and programmes need to be more people focused. After all, this development can only be realistically evaluated through the policy users’ views and preferences as human beings. Their feelings, values and emotions need to be adequately addressed if successful outcomes were to be anticipated. In this instance, the study has noted in its findings that the policy users need to be approached by the PIMs with the full commitment from their hearts and are already exhibiting that they are actually taking possession of the innovation. This is where such selfless service does converge with service from the heart.
Moreover, pertinent information regarding the service from the heart as an essential consideration in improving the level of services rendered to the PUs have been fully discussed in Appendix 7.1 of this chapter. These include the following:

First, when the ‘heart’ is used for the services to the PUs, it also denotes the conveyance of the messages of centrality, intensity, power, courage and feelings (King, 1996).

For instance, in the Holy Bible, Matthew (22: 37) says:

Love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, with all thy soul, and with all thy mind.

Therefore, rather than assuming that the three terms have three different meanings, King further clarifies that such usage indicated intensity rather than differentiation of meaning.

Second, as mentioned in Appendix 7.1, the remarkable aspects of the above three terms are their similarity and the fact that they are also interchangeable. Some have often mistakenly think that the word ‘mind’ indicates only one’s ability to think and that the ‘heart’ indicates only one’s ability to feel. King further maintains that thinking and feeling cannot be separated in a human being. One in fact thinks and feels simultaneously and not in succession. All the three terms, heart, soul and mind refer to our wholeness as human beings and the oneness of our spirit and our body.

This is exactly the type of solid commitment that is anticipated from all the initiators, implementers and users of government policy such as the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. It should then ensure continuous and successful outcomes of the implementation of the initiative.

Third, before someone is fully committed to the ideology of service from the heart, he needs to be wholly transformed and fully converted to the cause of such services. Only then, King (1996) confirms that he will have the self-forgetful, outgoing and unsentimental warmth of regard, which is the kind of love and bonding that should exist within and between all the initiators,
implementers and users of Government policies. This will further ensure the successful achievement of the intention of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.

Fourth, the service from the heart is also a process that helps one to positively raise ones’ level of performance and to keep on developing it to a more appreciable and professional level. This process needs to be firmly established at all times as it should continue to firmly exist in oneself.

Other relevant and essential information on the service from the heart and its biblical supporting themes have been clearly presented in Appendix 7.1. They have all strengthened the argument that has qualified this conception as one of the five new findings of this study.

The next focus is centred on the summary of the key findings of the study and presented as Table 7.1. As mentioned earlier, the table also shows in Column 2 whether the 10 research questions had been achieved or not.

**THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Findings from the study have indicated both the success and failure of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. Favourable outcomes of the policy have been noticed in the construction of new school buildings, new school play grounds, teachers’ quarters and the provisions of textbooks and new science equipment. Schools have also been upgraded thereby positively uplifting the status of teachers and their salary levels. However, the underlying question that needs to be further focused on is the needed continuity of the policy in the face of the present political uncertainty that Fiji is confronted with.

**Implications for Policy and Practice**

It has been noted in the study that there have been a number of important implications for policy-makers and practitioners. For instance, the study suggests that there should be greater provision for community participation in the decision-making concerning certain school projects that the policy should assist in and with its community.
Table 7.1: SUMMARY OF THE KEY FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Characteristics of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman Education

- The AAP for Fijian education had been planned by the MOE in 2000 as the Blueprint for the advancement of the education of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans under the 2001 Social Justice Act. It was to be implemented, as temporary measures, over a period of ten years by means of the affirmative action programmes.

- However, the findings of the study showed that such temporary measures have not been able to match certain Fijian education problems that had been locally and globally recognized as permanent Fijian education problems since 1908. More permanent solutions are needed to be devised to match such permanent Fijian education problems.

- The six identified programmes have been listed in chapter five of the study. It constitutes the Blueprint for Fijian and Rotuman education that have been implemented over the current ten years (2002 to 2011). Discussions have been focused on how its needs, quality, practicality, clarity and priority have been met since 2002. Additionally, detail findings of the study have also been listed in Chapters 5 and 6 respectively.

- The policy, as mentioned earlier, has been favorably recognized by all the PINs, PIMs and PUs as one of the best solutions to solving Fijian education problems. However, findings in the study have pointed out that for the policy to be more successful in its outcome, it needed strong community support, time and positive political direction by the PINs.

- The findings in the study as recorded in Chapter 5 have shown that all the six programmes under the policy have achieved some success when compared with their respective annual financial allocation (Table 6.4). The better performers are the Student Loan Scheme of Programme 5 and the two Government Scholarship Schemes under Programme 6. In fact, such credible results by the three tertiary funding schemes have been noted even before they had been co-opted into the AAP from 2002.

- Both the DPSE, SPU and AMU and his Director had indicated during the study that through the policy, 60 percent of its objectives have been achieved with high degree of success. These included the following:

  - The strengthening of the administrative structure of the Fijian education unit in 2002 through the establishment of a high level committee to oversee its function.

  - Reviewing the current policies and establishing legislation and regulation for Fijian education in 2004.

  - The establishment of a school review/inspectorate system in 2007 to provide support and quality assurance in the school performance and review.

- Significant improvement in the number of school audited accounts submitted over the years. For instance in 2008, over 819 schools (93 percent) had submitted the reports of their schools’ financial accounts. It was also noted that the quality of these reports had improved significantly.
Maintain the continuing upgrading of the quality of Fijian teachers through full-time in-service training in local and overseas tertiary institutions with the approval rate of 60 percent of those that applied. There was no limit imposed on part-time studies.

Continue seeking increases in the financial allocations towards approved projects for education in rural, remote, very remote and outer island schools.

It has ensured that within the decade, distance education has enabled every school aged child in remote, very remote and isolated island locations to access appropriate educational programmes.

It has vigorously developed an equitable national curriculum that is responsive to the need of the Fijian students and faithfully reflected the aspirations of the Fijian community. This has been achieved in 2007.

In the long term, the policy should assist Fijians to achieve other expectations from the school system. These include the need for the school system to prepare Fijian children for good citizenship in a modern society and also to facilitate their more active and meaningful participation within the indigenous Fijian community.

The Initiation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education

The AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education has been initiated from many sources. These include previous Education Commission Reports, Parliamentary resolutions, views of local and internationally reputed writers, as well as from policy implementers due to their work experience over the years as civil servants.

The basic reason of instituting such assistance is primarily due to the very weak, fragile and unstable economic base of the rural, remote, very remote and outer island subsistence based population. Formal schooling is becoming more expensive to manage locally at those locations.

The initiators of the policy have been convinced that it is the most appropriate solution to solving Fijian education problem. They are able to inject government funding to finance it on an annual basis.

MOE officials and other civil servants from other supporting ministries and departments feel that they should be able to easily implement the policy without much problem due to their varying experience and expertise. They should be closely supported by the PINs in terms of sufficient financial annual allocations and the needed professionally qualified engineers.

However, such assumptions and expectations need to also recognize that planning, initiation and implementation also require the cooperative and much coordinating effort of all relevant stakeholders. Such problem solving and bureaucratic motives need to be fully discussed in transparent manner with all relevant stakeholder as shown in Figure 7.1

As noted in the research findings, the policy had been initiated with the firm belief by the PINs that it would eventually solve Fijian education problems or the failure of getting enough Fijians through to the top.

On the other hand, the following have been noted to provide unavoidable challenges and constraints to the initiation phase of the change:

Rural, remote, very remote or island schools have always had problems of attracting
professionally qualified teachers who are usually available in urban and peri-urban schools. The continuing lack of incentives for them to serve in those isolated schools would always be a permanent feature.

As indicated in Chapter 1, other permanent characteristics of those rural, remote, very remote and island schools include their isolation, inaccessibility and related high costs of their difficult locations. These other factors have remained to be the major inhibiting influence for teachers and for the development of those schools. Such schools have also been located in the scattered 55 small islands which currently accommodate about 67 percent of all Fijian schools.

Majority of the PINs had a bureaucratic orientation towards the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. It showed that the situation had been facilitated by employing the problem solving orientation in the rhetoric sense.

### The Implementation Process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman Education

- The implementation process of the policy had been located at the national, divisional / provincial, school and classroom levels. This involved the PSE, DPSE (Primary and Secondary), Director, SPU / AMU, Programme directors (HQ), DEOs and Staff, school heads, teachers and other stakeholders. All had acted as change agents, while some were also change users. However, Divisional and District Education Officers were not fully involved in the policy implementation process.

- The Minister of Education and students did not assume dual role in the implementation process. The Minister had remained an initiator whilst the students had performed the change user role.

- Moreover, the PSE had assisted the Minister of Education in the overall education policy issues which required larger portion of the annual budget allocation. These issues were recognized to have catered for the major or ‘heavyweight’ innovations.

- Overall, there was a lack of administrative commitment and support for those at the Divisional or Provincial and school levels from the MOE (HQ) staff. It therefore revealed that the themes associated with successful implementation in the international literature, such as vision building, evolutionary planning, monitoring, initiative taking, staff development and restructuring, were significantly limited.

- The SPU or AMU of the MOE had a shortage of adequately and professionally qualified staff. The MOE could only appoint three extra members of staff from the required additional nine staff members. The SPU or AMU had to then rely on ordinary EOs with TVET background rather than those with professionally qualified engineers to monitor building constructions, newly installed power plants and solar power projects.

- The question of priority arises in project implementation in which the MOE officials had to fight for their proper placing in the eyes and interests of PUs. This was no longer taken for granted and was equally noted to be a new challenging issue for all of them.

- The decision making in the entire process of the planned educational change showed the non-participation of teachers, parents and school boards. Such ‘top down’ approach was one of the major reasons for their lack of the basic understanding of the policy both at the school and community levels. It also answers the problem of inadequate community support for the policy.
The continuing disparity of academic performance at the tertiary level of the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students in comparison with Indo-Fijians would be hard to bridge with the continuing presence of the MMEA Scholarship scheme.

There were certain factors that had been affecting the successful implementation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. These included the political instability of the country, preference for the Western concept of formal education, the lack of community awareness of the policy, the inadequate financial support by policy initiators and the politicization of the policy.

The Principal change agents or implementers of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education were at the same time committed to similar, but more familiar assistance from well established local aid agencies. Owing to its low level of awareness and its abrupt introduction, the AAP was therefore viewed as a lower priority at the various levels of Fiji’s education system.

The AAP for Fijian education was initially intended by Government to effectively resolve Fijian education problem. It was however noted to be implemented without the necessary commitment, will and purpose to ensure its success in addressing this problem.

To complement the international change literature, the implementers of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education should have recognized that critical to the success of any innovation is the leadership role of the DSE (Primary and Secondary) of the MOE. The successful execution of such role should trickle down further to change actors, even to the school level. Its absence has clearly revealed that policy implementers had not been appropriately trained to successfully facilitate such policy initiative.

The Facilitative and Impeding factors in the implementation of the AAP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facilitative Factors</th>
<th>Impeding Factors</th>
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<tr>
<td>Other facilitative programmes for the policy include the following:</td>
<td>The major impeding factors noted during the study are as follows:</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Programme 5, the PSC Student Loan Scheme that was established in 1990.</td>
<td>• The attempt by the then PSE to block the initial introduction of the policy in 2002 in spite Cabinet endorsement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Sub-programme 2 – Programme 6, the MFA Scholarship Scheme that was established in 1978.</td>
<td>• The exclusion of the indigenous Fijian teachers and their Union from any level of the policy process.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Sub-programme 3 – Programme 6, the PSC Scholarship Scheme that was established in 1978.</td>
<td>• The adoption of the AAP for Fijian education on political expediency thereby encouraging abuse practices by political partly supporters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other facilitative factors are as follows:</td>
<td>• The unnecessary urgency of rushing the implementation of the policy to the PUs at the grassroots level without adequate preparation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The initiation in 1970 by Fiji’s first Prime Minister when he introduced special measures to address the lack of Fijian participation in the economy and to promote Fijian education. He had identified these issues as crucial</td>
<td>• The relatively short span of time</td>
</tr>
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for the stable development of Fiji.

- Father Kevin Bar’s (1990) consistent pressures on Government owing to its poor responses to improving Fijian education by calling the sad situation as the ‘Cinderella of Fiji’s education system.’

- The 2000 Fiji Islands Education Commission Panel/Report had provided positive ground work for the 2000 to 2001 Interim Government’s AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.

- White (2001) and Puamau (2001) had made unwavering views against indifferent treatment from previous Governments on the Fijian education problem. They had supported earlier admission in 1966 by the then Director of Fiji’s MOE that such neglect was equated to “the failure to get enough Fijians through to the top” (Rodger, 1966).

- Opposition MPs had made supportive calls in 2002 that:
  “If government is really serious in implementing such important policy initiatives, it should annually allocate sufficient funding and guard against any form of abuse form its Party supporters.”

| Q7 | The insufficient funding annually allocated for the policy implementation. |
| Q7 | The low level of supervision and monitoring by the PIMs on projects and programmes under the policy. |
| Q7 | The lack of appreciation by PIMs to positively respond to feedbacks from members of the sub-systems and the environment of the change process. |
| Q7 | The insensitive attitude of PINs of not appreciating that the AAP for Fijian education is only a temporary measure. It would therefore unable to match certain Fijian education problems that have been locally and globally recognized as permanent Fijian education problems since 1908. |

- As the presence of the poor wherever we live is an accepted notion globally, initiators and implementers of such government policy have to readjust their perspectives accordingly. They should be more sensitive to the views and values of the PUs. For instance, more recognition should be directed towards the traditional and cultural values of the institution of the Fijian version of affirmative action such as ‘veivukei’ (giving a helping hand); ‘veinanumi’ (to be considerate of others); ‘veilomani’ (loving and friendly to one another); ‘duavata’ (togetherness); or ‘yalovata’ (of the same spirit), as amongst the best solution to such reality.

- Through the international literature, it has also been established that the main obstacles facing the successful and independent existence of people wherever they live is their economic inequality. This has been noted to be encompassing virtually the entire globe and virtually the entire history of the human race. It is indeed a permanent problem inhibiting their meaningful co-existence wherever they reside.

- Therefore, the AAP is really a half hearted or a temporary effort, in response to such permanent economic inequality, to be permanently relied upon to solve such permanent problem, continuously facing the socially and educationally backwards in Fiji’s society. More permanent solution is the answer. This further supports the
The Institutionalization of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman Education

- The AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education has only been superficially institutionalized. Whilst relevant organizational structures have been established at the national, divisional, provincial, school and classroom levels, its future sustainability depends largely on the political whims of those that hold political positions in future. For instance, through the new approach by the present Military Government, as discussed earlier, under the EFA initiative continuing assistance, it should be directed to those that really deserve such affirmative action. It further confirms the lack of economically driven development projects and programmes for the rural, remote, very remote and outlying island population.

- The present form of the policy through the EFA initiative since 2010.
  - The AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education has been renamed by the present Military Government since 2010 as the Education for All (EFA) policy. The new name tag has been adopted from one of the four pillars of the global development goal for the new millennium.
  - The EFA initiative has established an increase in its budgetary allocations for 2010 and 2011 respectively as shown in Table 6.2 of this study.
  - The Prime Minister has publically announced in June 2011 that Government would continue to increase its EFA funding to cater for the development of education for rural, remote and outer island schools. This is consistent with the AAP goals.
  - Such educational development approach would continue to benefit the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman schools and students in those isolated locations as well as those urban and peri-urban centers which are predominated by the indigenous Fijian student population (Tables 7.3 and 7.4 respectively).

This is further supported both in the international and local literature which highlight the significance of community participation in the management of planned educational change such as the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.

In addition, several writers such as Fullan (1991), Sharma (2000) and Nabobo-Baba (2006) have supported a ‘bottom-up’ approach. It means that teachers, school management and the members of the school community are allowed greater participation in the decisions on the choice of the projects that the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education are able to provide their school with. As noted in the study, such an approach has a number of positive impacts. The following are some of them.
• It generates more relevant projects and programmes that comfortably accommodate the development needs of the community.

• Such community involvement in facilitating school activities is bound to positively contribute to a more improved learning environment for students.

• Such community participation in matters that are closely related to the school also provides an opportunity for members of the school community to learn more of the existence of other important government policies.

• The continuing involvement of the community in the education of their children would further assist policy initiators and administrators to accommodate the interests of various social and economic sections of the population in education policy, programmes and projects.

Findings in the study also show that as an imposed planned educational change, the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education does not fully enjoy genuine community support. Other developing countries similarly encounter such experience. For instance, in Fiji’s case, Sharma (1993); Velayutham (1996); and Thaman (2002) have all confirmed that participation in school policy-making, curriculum decisions and the teaching-learning process is strictly limited. As mentioned in Chapter 6, this lack of participation in decision-making as well as readiness, serve as the principal reason majority of the members of the school community do not really understand what the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education actually mean to them. This confusion also arises from the fact that the same school community has been for a number of years continuously engaged in other school projects sponsored by well established foreign embassies based locally.

Furthermore, Velayutham (1996), Sharma (2000), Aveau (2003) and Wright (2007) confirm that the continuing commitment of those individuals and their successors who are responsible for the development of the policy would be the most critical determinant of the successful implementation phase of the change process. In fact, such assertion would depend largely on the extent and level to which the participants are actually involved in the management of the change process.
At the national level, such laxity or ‘lip-service’ has been demonstrated by the then PSE who even attempted to be the innovation ‘blocker’ of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. At the divisional and provincial levels, the study has noted that the DEOs and his staff were not sufficiently involved in the management of the policy, despite being in a position to facilitate greater community awareness and support for it.

The above broad policy issue would have a number of practical implications that can be deduced from, but would depend largely on the school and its community context. Some of the key practical questions that could be raised along those issues are as follows:

- How far can the involvement of the DEOs and his staff assist to facilitate the management of the policy?
- What group of the sub-systems should be represented at the nation level decision making forums?
- What effort should be made to develop and sustain equal opportunities in regards to ethnicity and religious convictions in the current turbulent political context of Fiji?

After considering the above participating process, it might also be worth noting that such process has its own limitations. For instance, as noted by Sharma (2000), the above are sometimes quite time-consuming and costly and there is always that risk that the concept may be employed as a rhetorical device to further personal interests. As also experienced on quite a number of occasions, it is likely that the views of the ‘powerful’ or ‘heavyweight’ will dominate the final outcome of some major and crucially important decisions.

In addition, a second notable implication noted in the study for educational policy makers is that there is a need to provide ongoing context-based and centre-based staff development programmes for the AAP administrators, teachers and other relevant stakeholders. As noted from respondents during the study that such staff development programmes can better prepare all the target groups to manage major transformation in an educational setting that is normally characterized by dynamically complex environment and in the face of an unknowable future. Another advantage is that when involved with better informed teachers and administrators, it would be much easier to work towards the development of capacities of initiative taking,
evolutionary planning and vision building in students, teachers and other relevant stakeholders. As mentioned earlier, Louis and Miles (1990), Fullan (1991), and Velayutham (2006) have identified that these approaches are essential in the successful implementation and institutionalization phases of a policy.

Moreover, as we need to establish the above factors in the management of the AAP in education for the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans, it is vitally essential for those leading it to be convinced on a personal level about the value of the policy. Once convinced, as supported by Sharma (2000) and Wright (2007), they would also devote more time and effort to entice their colleagues and members of the school community to also support the whole initiative further. This may enable them to turn around their most critical opponents among their colleagues and school management boards to become their strongest supporters. The possibility of this transformation can only be realized when they themselves are fully convinced of the benefits of the policy. It was also noted during the study that the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education did not have many such committed leaders. They did not have the full commitment to become effective leaders therefore seen not to be serving policy users with the study’s recommended philosophy of “Service from the Heart”.

With all these ongoing pressures on policy implementers, there was sufficient evidence in the fieldwork findings to suggest that policy initiators had seriously considered introducing ongoing staff development programmes for its administrators at the national, divisional, provincial, school and classroom levels. The study was indeed fully appreciative of this initiative since it was also noted that the success of any planned educational change actually rests on well informed and talented human resources rather specifically on the abundance of material and financial resources. Puamau (1991), Sharma (2000) and Wright (2007) have supported that in developing countries, there was an urgent need for policy users in particular to develop relevant social and economic skills such as successfully managing micro-finance enterprises in order to assist and sustain the financial provisions for the education of their children.

This study also finds support in Sharma (2000) that there had been practical proposals that had arisen for such implications which further included the need for the organization to effectively maintain. The following are, therefore, relevant.
• Conduct management courses in areas such as record keeping, management of resources and financial management for policy administrators and teachers;

• Encourage the establishment of community and school based AAP projects and promotional programmes for members of the school community.

• Conduct courses and programmes in ‘action research and reflective practice’ for principals, head teachers and community leaders in order to effectively promote ongoing personal and professional development with their subordinates.

As for any other major planned educational change, all the above proposals have implications for more funding, staffing and resources. However, lessons learnt from the present study, with similar experiences in other developing countries and with the relevant international change literature, it should be helpful in the management of the proposed future AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education or the present EFA policy.

Moreover, Figure 7.1 shows a proposed model which the study believes could be effectively utilized by the Ministry of Education for the better coordination of its policy initiation, implementation and institutionalization of the AAP’s in education. The focus is centered on the need for all the stakeholders to continuously conduct their work activities in a more transparent manner.

Policy initiators need to empower policy implementers and policy users with all the required human, financial and material resources. They all need to plan their activities together to enable them to be fully conversant with their distinct roles and responsibilities. As mentioned throughout the study, the situation should amicably assist in creating a united feeling of responsibility thereby enabling each one of them to claim permanent ownership of the policy.
Figure 7.1

Suggested Model for Fiji’s MOE Policy Initiation, Implementation and Institutionalization of the AAP’s in Education.

1. SITUATION ANALYSIS
   (Advocates of AAP’s)

2. POLICY INITIATORS
   Empowerment Programmes
   (Financial Resources)

3A
POLICY IMPLEMENTERS
All MOE Officials, MOE Field Officers, Other Civil Servants.

3B
POLICY USERS
Teachers, Students, Parents, Villagers, Other Stakeholders

4. Developing AAPs in Education
   (Evaluation)

5. Developing AAPs Programmes and Projects
   (Evaluations)

6. Readiness Programmes
   (Evaluation & Revision)

7. Implementation
   (Evaluation & Revision)

8. Outcome
   (Evaluation, Revision & Feedback)

9. Evaluation, Revision & Re-planning
   (Feedback)

Source: Adapted from Nandlal’s 2002 Unpublished MEd. Thesis – Parental Participation Mode, Page. 141, USP’s SOE, FIJI.
implications for the educational policy change process

The study, as implied by its topic, rests mainly on the management of the AAP in education for the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans. Its findings also support Sharma’s (2000) study in which it concentrates in the manner of its initiation, implementation and how its policy users have viewed the attempt to institutionalize this planned educational change with them. Accordingly, major considerations have been devoted towards its implications and its practices.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the institutionalization phase of the change process does not necessarily exist on its own. This argument is further strengthened by the fact that there have been instances, in which there is always the possibility that an innovation or a policy can be rejected during the initiation or implementation process. This view is also supported by Wallace (1991); Sharma (2000) and Aveau (2003) that any reference to institutionalization can be misleading because it is possible that this phase of the change process may not be realized. Two important reasons have been raised by Berman and McLaughlin (1978) and supported by Aveau (2003) and Wright (2007) that have been the causes of this negative situation. They are the possibility of change in government leadership and the termination of external funding. For instance, for the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, the overthrow of the democratically elected government by the present military regime in 2006 has resulted in the total elimination of the popular name tag of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, in favor of Education for All (EFA) policy. The study has further revealed and also supports Sharma (2000) study that with the relevant international literature, institutionalization, whether realized or not, can be discussed as one of the outcomes of the policy process.

Findings in the study have further revealed and supported what Baba (1990:27) called in regards to the funding for the policy that it:

…requires a new kind of relationship, that of equal partnership and mutuality, rather than patronage or paternalism.

The above viewpoint also finds support in the Report on UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the twenty first centuries, (Delors et al., 1996). However, the
partnership that this study wishes to advocate is as follows:

- The policy implementers at the national level to conduct relevant administrative and technical training with the policy users at the divisional, provincial, district and village levels. The objective is to upgrade their technical knowledge and skills level in order to personally undertake whatever school projects that are being planned to be implemented within their respective locations. Their renewed technical knowledge and skills should continue to equip them in the future repairs or upgrading responsibilities of the AAP projects that are bound to be fully institutionalized with them.

- The purchases of relevant technical tools and equipment to be also included in this partnership, and with their custodian to be equally shared between policy implementers and policy users at those respective levels.

As mentioned earlier, the role of micro-politics of management surfaced strongly in this study. For instance, some principals and head teachers have seen the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education as an opportunity to further their personal interests, such as raising the status of their schools thus securing higher salary levels. They have been able to achieve their aims by using the problem solving rhetoric of the policy. However, as micro-politics is inevitably presents in any organization, care must be taken so that it does not impede the successful management of AAP. As also revealed in the study, it is therefore suggested that future research in this area is to be given greater attention to micro-politics and its impact on educational management.

As mentioned earlier, the present Military Government has renamed the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education in 2010 as the Education for All (EFA) policy. While it has increased its annual financial allocation for 2010 and 2011 respectively, the policy is anticipated to continue to benefit the rural, remote and outlying island schools as well as those urban and peri-urban schools. The study has further established however that more and more indigenous Fijians students would still be assisted through the EFA initiative. This situation has arisen from the fact that more than 67 percent and 58 percent respectively of the school population in those urban and peri-urban primary and secondary schools, including Indo-Fijian schools, are also made-up of the
indigenous Fijian student population. (Refer to Tables 7.3 and 7.4 below). The increasing student population of the indigenous Fijians is expected to continue into the foreseeable future as many Indo-Fijian parents continue to migrate to overseas countries in large numbers (Fiji Census Report, 2007).

Table 7.3

**FIJI PRIMARY EDUCATION ENROLMENT BY LEVEL, AGE AND ETHNICITY**
**AS AT 30 JUNE 2009**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>CL 1 (5-11)yrs</th>
<th>CL 2 (5-11)yrs</th>
<th>CL 3 (6-14)yrs</th>
<th>CL 4 (8-15)yrs</th>
<th>CL 5 (9-17)yrs</th>
<th>CL 6 (10-17)yrs</th>
<th>CL 7 (11-18)yrs</th>
<th>CL 8 (11-18)yrs</th>
<th>GRAND TOTAL</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fijians</td>
<td>12,071</td>
<td>11,749</td>
<td>11,683</td>
<td>11,599</td>
<td>11,348</td>
<td>10,864</td>
<td>9,533</td>
<td>9,324</td>
<td>87,771</td>
<td>67.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indians</td>
<td>4,490</td>
<td>4,337</td>
<td>4,542</td>
<td>4,524</td>
<td>4,714</td>
<td>4,961</td>
<td>4,028</td>
<td>4,268</td>
<td>35,862</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Ethnicity</td>
<td>736</td>
<td>769</td>
<td>737</td>
<td>686</td>
<td>789</td>
<td>767</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>698</td>
<td>5,811</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>17,297</td>
<td>16,855</td>
<td>16,962</td>
<td>16,409</td>
<td>16,851</td>
<td>16,592</td>
<td>14,190</td>
<td>14,288</td>
<td>129,444</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: (5-11) yrs and others indicate the age levels of students in each class.

Table 7.4

**FIJI SECONDARY EDUCATION ENROLMENT BY LEVEL, AGE AND ETHNICITY**
**AS AT 30 JUNE 2009**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>F1 (9-15)yrs</th>
<th>F2 (9-16)yrs</th>
<th>F3 (10-17)yrs</th>
<th>F4 (13-19)yrs</th>
<th>F5 (14-19)yrs</th>
<th>F6 (15-19)yrs</th>
<th>F7 (15-20)yrs</th>
<th>GRAND TOTAL</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fijians</td>
<td>1,027</td>
<td>1,058</td>
<td>1,151</td>
<td>8,708</td>
<td>8,993</td>
<td>6,855</td>
<td>2,527</td>
<td>39,317</td>
<td>58.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indians</td>
<td>1,027</td>
<td>1,049</td>
<td>5,563</td>
<td>5,277</td>
<td>4,868</td>
<td>4,349</td>
<td>2,111</td>
<td>24,244</td>
<td>36.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Ethnicity</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>781</td>
<td>746</td>
<td>787</td>
<td>685</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>3,511</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>2,178</td>
<td>2,268</td>
<td>16,495</td>
<td>14,731</td>
<td>14,648</td>
<td>11,889</td>
<td>4,863</td>
<td>67,072</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: (9-16) yrs and others indicate the age levels of students in each form.
Moreover, this study is primarily concerned with the management of a single policy. However, it was revealed that administrators at the national, divisional, provincial, district and school levels were also involved in the management of multiple innovations that were at a range of different stages of the change process. The limitation of the present international changed literature is owing to the absence of sufficient guidance for the management of multiple innovations. In fact, it has been noted that much of this body of literature had limited its focus on the management of a single innovation. Fullan (1991: 49) supports this further by confirming that “the broad reality is, of course, that schools are in the business of contending with multiple innovations.”

In addition, Fullan (1993) argues that the change process is complex and involves multiple factors, some of which are likely to have contradicting influences. This view is supported by Sharma (2000), Aveau (2003) and Wright (2010) that not much work has been done to show how multiple policy process and the rest of the ongoing management work in schools and their communities interact and facilitate or even hinder each other.

Therefore, based on the present study, it is argued that the contemporary international literatures on the management of educational change explicitly reveal that the innovation:

- is largely drawn from Western experiences;
- is most helpful in understanding and improving the management of single innovations;
- does not adequately consider issues and problems from developing and third world countries; and
- provides limited guidance for the management of multiple innovations and environmental inconsistencies.

The study is therefore confident that the above issues and problems would provide a lot of scope for further re-conceptualization of the educational change process to assist in its successful application in the broader international setting. The next focus is the implications for future research.
Implications for Future Research

With reference to the foregoing views of the implications of the study, the following have been suggested for further investigations. First, an in-depth study through the case study approach be undertaken to evaluate the effectiveness of the present AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education throughout Fiji’s school system. It would also assist in pursuing the arguments that this study has generated thus far and the suggestion it has made for the nature of partnership that should be instituted to replace the present top-down approach. Figure 7.1 should further be referred to for more clarification.

Secondly, the findings of the study had established that there was a general lack of commitment on the part of the majority of the stakeholders involved in the management process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. It highlighted the internal and external factors that affected the successful promotion of the policy. Therefore, a series of studies should be undertaken to better understand the relationship between the ‘climate of innovativeness’ and the internal and external variable of a system or a school. The important variables that are needed to be considered include decision making structures, communication processes, resource implications, community support, micro-political dimensions, human resources development, political instability and the politics of ‘multi-ethnicity.’ These can be the subjects of further research studies on their own.

Thirdly, as recently noted in the implications for the educational change process, the issue of the management of multiple innovations has not received much attention even in the relevant international change literature. Even in recent times, little work has been initiated on multiple innovations in developing countries as well as the impact they have on the rest of the ongoing work both of an education system and of a school. In addition, this issue definitely requires further investigation because in the real world, schools and the education system are all involved in managing multiple innovations.

Fourthly, is the influence of external funding resources and ideas on the management of the educational change process in Fiji. Therefore, the suggestion is for further research to examine the relationship between international aid and the relevance of the proposed innovations. For Fiji, an immense contribution has been attributed to the European Union (EU) Aid package from

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2004 to 2010 with an initial total of $F44 million. Whilst they have just completed their assistance to very remote, remote and rural schools, even much better equipped peri-urban and urban schools have also benefitted. This has further increased their total aid package to $F56 million, funding 364 school projects and education programmes. Also included are vehicles for the MOE head office, powered boats for outlying island schools and even training programmes for the Government Teachers Training Colleges. In fact, the MOE initiators and implementers should actually learn from the professional manner the EUs have executed their aid projects and programmes for their future references.

Furthermore, Table 6.4 has clearly indicated that $F36,495 million has been expended towards Fijian and Rotuman education from 2002 to 2006 under Programme 1 to Programme 4. Also, the MFA Scholarship Fund under Sub-programme 2 of Programme 6 which has been specifically set aside for the indigenous Fijian and Rotuman students has expanded an immense amount of $F33.8 million from 2002 to 2006. In total, Government funding specifically for Fijian and Rotuman education during the first five years of the Blueprint for the AAP, $F70.295 have been spent. The study suggests that more research studies should be undertaken to verify the continuing usage of such enormous amount of government funding as the level of its implementation leaves of a lot of room for improvement.

In summary, the implications of this study for future research have thus far revealed promising directions for further inquiry and theory building. These are to be conducted within the present theoretical and conceptual framework of the management of change, particularly in developing countries. As experienced during the fieldwork study, not much has been carried out in this direction in Fiji, as well as in other Pacific Island nations. The implications for the research methodology are the next focus of the study.

**Implications for Research Methodology**

The experience gained through this research study has added more support that participant observation and in depth interviewing in qualitative research studies have considerable potential for research in developing and Pacific Island Nation (PIN) countries like Fiji. However, the available literature on education in developing countries have tended to be concerned more with discussions of policies and systems than with the systemic observation of the realities of
schooling (Crossley and Vulliamy, 1984; Sharma, 2000). As also shown in Vulliamy et al. (1990) one of the main strengths of a qualitative research strategy is its ability to focus on the actual implementation of policies in schools. This has further assisted to access the points at which policy and practice do converge and diverge. For instance, in her study of the establishment of the TVET programme in Samoa, Aveau (2003) found the following. Instead of the graduates of the programme to engaging themselves in self-employment enterprises and creating employment opportunities for others in Samoa, many of them had sought better paid employment in New Zealand and Australia. Aveau further confirmed that the reason was that the Samoan TVET curriculum was based on similar polytechnic institute curriculum in New Zealand. Similar findings was made by Muralidhar (1989) in his study of science classrooms in relation to the teaching and learning of basic science in Forms 1 to 4 (years 7 to 10) in Fiji.

As noted in the fieldwork, the study was able to establish a supporting feature for the qualitative research approach as it provided opportunities for participatory and collaborative research strategies. This had shown policy initiators and teachers that they were also active researchers alongside the more experienced specialist researchers. In fact, the use of the indigenous Fijian research approaches of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa had further provided better understanding of the in-depth interview in the Fijian language to the newly co-opted researchers. As mentioned in Chapter 4, these approaches were able to facilitate the gathering of qualitative data that would have been difficult to obtain otherwise. It further showed a new opportunity to teachers and the members of the school community a new pathway with relevant strategies to employ in solving the so many challenges that face them in their daily lives.

These findings, as supported by Sharma (2000), and Nabobo-Baba (2006), would be quite significant for PINs particularly, by the importance of their culture and language in the interpretation of meanings. To further strengthen the understanding and the interpretation of ‘meaning’ from the research informants’ perspectives, it is therefore essential to adopt some qualitative strategies for collecting data. The potential of the qualitative approach as mentioned above is further supported by Delors (1996: 29), as cited in Sharma (2000: 152-153):

Local community participation in assessing needs by means of a dialogue with the public authorities and groups concerned in society is (the) first, essential stage in broadening access to education and improving its quality. Continuing the dialogue by way of the media, community
discussions, parent education and on-the-job teacher training usually help to create awareness, sharpen judgment and develop local capacities. When communities assume greater responsibility for their own development, they learn to appreciate the role of education both as a way of achieving societal objectives and as a desirable improvement of the quality of life.

Chapter 4 of this study carries some in-depth insights into the qualitative approach in research studies. In addition, it is important to clearly establish that the process of obtaining such qualitative data is only possible through using research methods that involve in depth contextual studies. As mentioned earlier, the adoption of the indigenous Fijian research approaches of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa in this study has drawn a lot of interest from all those that were involved, particularly the teachers and community members the users of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. Whilst talanoa has been employed widely in other Pacific Island nations, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa have been introduced for the first time in the present study. These approaches, further support Sharma (2000) and Nabobo-Baba (2006), that they provide opportunities of ‘learning’ to all those concerned in a research project. It also assists in the accumulation of information for the further improvement of the phenomenon under study.

However, before the researcher was able to conduct his in-depth interviews or talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa, he had to observe the Fijian traditional ceremony of requesting the community to conduct his research. This involved the presentation of ‘sevusevu’ (yaqona) which assisted in securing his entry into the research venues. ‘Sevusevu’ according to Ravuvu (1983: 120) is a:

…ceremonial offering of ‘yaqona’ by the host or the guest, or the guest to the host and performed in respect of recognition and acceptance of one another.

A more detailed discussion of the presentation of the tradition Fijian approach before such in-depth interviews had been presented in Chapter 4 of this study. This was, however, necessary as the researcher had to traditionally seek permission to enter the school and solicit support from school heads, teachers, school committees and even the students to participate.

This study as mentioned earlier, also supports Sharma (2000), and Nabobo-Baba (2006) by emphasizing that such customary way of seeking accessibility is not only accepted with
appreciation, it also sets a ‘scene of intimacy’ for the research. In fact, the performance of this ceremony further assists to create a healthy research climate. As experienced during the fieldwork trips, this way of seeking entry into the field had very much facilitated the collection of data, or even made it possible in circumstances where otherwise access might be denied. In addition to formal procedures, it is therefore emphasized that it can be extremely helpful to seek permission to enter the research sites in a ‘traditional way’ in most developing and third world countries, within and beyond the Pacific Island nation.

All the three traditional Fijian approaches have been fully discussed in Chapter 4. Another benefit of these approaches, as was experienced during the fieldwork trips, all the sessions that the researcher had attended had brought him into the world of all those who were involved in the implementation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. Figure 4.2 shows a typical facilitative session in which ‘yaqona’ or ‘kava’ is mixed in a ‘tanoa’ (a large wooden carved basin) and served to people at a five to ten minute intervals.

As seen in Figure 4.2, people sit around the ‘tanoa’, drinking ‘yaqona’ and ‘vitalanoa’ or talking freely on a number of issues. The use of ‘yaqona’, confirms Nabobo-Baba (1996, Personal Interview) clarifies that talanoa assists in creating a transcendental atmosphere for all those involved. The people are believed to be not only communicating with each other but also with the supernatural. Such communication in fact takes place through both verbalizing and in silences.

It is, therefore, emphasized that despite certain limitations highlighted in Chapter 4 of the study, qualitative in-depth interviews through the three traditional Fijian approaches and participant observation to educational research, have considerable potential for future work on the planned educational change in PIC’s and other similar countries.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The basic focus of the study is centered on the AAP in education for the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans. The study basically attempts to further identify how Government has been attempting to bridge the academic attainment gaps between the indigenous Fijians and other ethnic groups through the policy.
For its research methodology, participant observation and in-depth interviewing in qualitative research studies have been widely employed in the research. These have been further strengthened by the adoption of the indigenous Fijian approaches of talanoa, vitalanoa and vakamuritalanoa. These approaches have greatly assisted in facilitating the gathering of qualitative data in the Fijian language and even in the respondents’ own dialect. This was proved to be quite popular and was also able to gather essential information that would have been difficult to obtain otherwise.

In the analysis of the key findings of the study, the systems theory was adopted to anchor the research study. This was further assisted with the employment of the management of the planned educational change literature specifically addressing the three stages of the planned change.

In the initiation of the policy, problem solving and bureaucratic motivations have been the most important forces behind the initiation of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education. Problem solving orientation had resided more in the Government policy documents of the AAP and had also presented itself as a form of rhetoric. Whereas, the bureaucratic orientation had predominated at the school level and it was noted to be a common practice throughout the education system. In addition, politics had played a significant role in the initiation of the AAP.

It had been widely accepted that the implementation process of the AAP had not been conducted well at any of the four levels: national, divisional, provincial, school and classroom levels. It did not receive effective leadership nor the necessary administrative commitment. It was further noted to be implemented without the necessary ‘will’ to ensure its success in addressing Fijian and Rotuman education problem. Therefore, the absence of the key factors associated with the successful implementation such as vision building, evolutionary planning and initiative taking was quite obvious.

Other significant factors which actually constrained the successful implementation and institutionalization of the AAP include the following:

- The rationale behind the policy was not clearly understood by the policy users and change agents.
There was clearly a lack of community support because the school community was not prepared well to accept the innovation and assist in its implementation and management.

The above limitations had prevented the policy from being an ongoing part of the attempt to solve Fijian and Rotuman education problem. It pointed out quite clearly that the policy had only been institutionalized superficially.

The basic reason of instituting AAP is due to the very weak, fragile and unstable economic capability of rural, remote, very remote and outer-island subsistence based population. Formal education is becoming more expensive to manage locally at those varying locations.

Additionally, Narsey’s poverty assessment for Fiji in his Household Income Expenditure Survey (HIES) for 2002 to 2003 says there is a clear evidence of the worsening of poverty situations in Fiji. This has clearly affected 35 percent of Fiji’s total population. There has been no evidence of any significant improvement in more recent years. Therefore, Fiji remains a society with deep income inequalities thus the need to adopt the AAP in education for the marginalized in the communities. The HIES of 2002 to 2003 further confirm that the poorest 20 percent of the household receive only 5.9 percent of the national income, 60 percent of the household receive 46.2 percent of the national income whilst the top 20 percent of the household receive the largest at 47.9 percent of the national income.

As the continuing presence of the poor and the marginalized will always be existing wherever we live, the need for AAP will definitely have to be the reality of our daily existence.

For the future effectiveness and sustainability of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education, the implementation process of the policy has to move away from the conventional ‘top down’ approach to development and embraces the more democratic participatory mode. This will enable the direct participation of the indigenous Fijians and Rotumans as policy users at all levels of the management process especially at the implementation phase. This has been revealed as the essential element of securing their confidence and cooperation, as well as developing in them a deep feeling of permanent ownership of the policy.

Finally, to further strengthen and ensure the meaningful commitment, dedication and loyalty of the relevant stakeholders in the planned change process, similar recognition should be directed
towards the recommended performance philosophy of ‘Service from the Heart.’ In such instance, policy initiators and the MOE’s Chief Policy Implementer should ensure that quality leadership should be the central focus at every level of the implementation process of the AAP for Fijian and Rotuman education.
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The Editor. (2010, January 1), Projects Not Done. In *Fiji Times*, p. 3.


The Holy Bible: Authorized King James Version. Salt Lake City: The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, Deuteronomy (15:4) and (15:11).


Appendix 1.1

SOCIAL JUSTICE ACT (2001) (29 Programmes)

Education and Training
- Ministry of Education
  1. Fiji Education Improvement of school facilities
  2. Improvement to rural schools
  3. Vocational training for school leavers
  4. Special Education for Disabled Persons
- Public Service Commission
  5. Student Loan Scheme
- Prison Department
  6. Vocational Training for serving prisoners
- Anti-Drug Affairs
  7. Scholarship Fund for Indians & other Minorities where annual income is below $10,000
  8. Cultural Training for Indians & other Minorities
- Ministry of Youth
  9. Trade training for rural youths
  10. Training of Youths for Disciplined Forces
  11. National Youth Service Scheme
- Ministry of Fiji Affairs
  12. Scholarship Fund
  13. Technical and Vocational Training for Youths & School Leavers at Nadroa

Land & Housing
- Ministry of Lands & Mineral Resources
  1. Loan grants to purchase ancestral lands
- Ministry of Regional Development
  2. Self-Help Programmes for Rural Housing Schemes
  3. Self-Help Programmes for Housing Business Projects
- Ministry of Agriculture
  4. Land Development for Resettled ALEA tenants
- Ministry of Local Government & Housing
  5. Land development for squatter resettlement
- Public Rental Board
  6. Rental Subsidy

Participation in Business
- Ministry of Finance / National Planning & FDB
  1. Small Business Equity Scheme
- Ministry of Commerce and Business Development
  2. Small micro-enterprise Development & Micro-Finance
  3. Increase Fijian participation in business through reservation of 30% government shares, contracts & licences to Fijians & Rotumans
- Public Service Commission
  4. Renting by Government of ikina and provincial properties
- Ministry of Fisheries & Forests
  5. Providing fishing & processing licenses & contracts to Fijians and Rotumans
  6. Participation of resource owners in the forests industry especially Fijian landowners
- Ministry of Tourism
  7. Participation of Fijians in the tourism industry especially in eco-tourism

Poverty Alleviation
- Department of Social Welfare
  1. Family Assistance Scheme
  2. Poverty Alleviation Project
  3. Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons

Employment in State Services

Source: Prime Minister’s Office, Govt. Buildings, Suva

Date Printed: 9/02/2005
Position: 18° South Latitude and 179° East Longitude. Fiji comprises of 332 islands (approx. one third is inhabited)
Area: 18,333 sq km. Labour Force: 334,800 (as at 2007).
Capital City: Suva, City: Lautoka, Old Capital: Levuka.
Population: 837,271 (as at 2007). Fijians: 475,739 (56.8%). Indians: 313,798 (37.5%). Others: 47,734 (5.7%). 49% of population live in rural areas. Population for urban centres for 2007 are:
Suva - 85691  Labasa - 27949
Lautoka - 52220  Sigatoka - 9622
Nadi - 42284  Levuka - 4397
Ba - 18526  Nausori - 47604
Nasinu - 87446
Appendix 4.1

16/11/2007

INTERVIEWEE PROFILE

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Name:</td>
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<td>2. Date of Birth:</td>
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<td>3. Occupation:</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.1 Chief</td>
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<td>5. Other Community Obligations:</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.1 Turaga ni Koroi</td>
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<td>5.4 PTA</td>
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<td>5.7 Turaga ni Mataqali</td>
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<td>6. Marital Status:</td>
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<td>7. No. of Children:</td>
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<td>8.4 Pension</td>
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<td>9. Influence on the School / Education:</td>
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<td>11. Means of Transport:</td>
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<td>12. Church:</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.1 Methodist</td>
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Emasi Govu
GA & PhD Scholar
GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR THE INTERVIEW

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<td>1</td>
<td>What do you understand about the term “Affirmative Action”?</td>
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<td>How much do you know of the “Affirmative Action Policies” in Fiji’s Education system?</td>
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<td>Are these Affirmative Action Policies important for the education of the Indigenous Fijians?</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>How much do you know of their initiations?</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Who actually implement these Affirmative Action programmes?</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>What have been their outcomes so far?</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>What are your views on the impact of the affirmative action programmes on the educational interests of the Indigenous Fijians?</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>If there are some negative impacts in their outcomes, who are actually responsible and why?</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>What do you believe to be the solutions to those negative outcomes?</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>How long should the Fiji Government continue to maintain these affirmative action programmes in education for the Indigenous Fijians and why?</td>
<td>1</td>
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Emasi Qovu
(Graduate Assistant & PhD Scholar)
INDEPTH GUIDING QUESTIONS FOR THE INTERVIEW

11. Why are Indigenous Fijian Students’ academic performances in schools still lagging behind other ethnic students?
   11.1 Lack of Motivation       11.4 Lack of direction
   11.2 Lack of self-esteem     11.5 Lack of purpose
   11.3 Lack of self-discipline  11.6 Lack of Parental Support

12. Could the learning programmes and structures be the negative factors that disadvantaged Indigenous Fijian in their education?
   12.1 English language as medium of instruction.
   12.2 Curriculum as too much academically orientated.
   12.3 Assessment as too much exam-orientated
   12.4 Theory of teaching as too much based on western principles and knowledge (pedagogy)

   13.1 It has just started legally.
   13.2 Such programme should be given enough time.
   13.3 Political Will needs to be reaffirmed.
   13.4 Better co-ordination for all stakeholders:
       13.4.1 Initiators        13.4.4 General Public Programmes
       13.4.2 Implementers     13.4.5 Positive Mental Attitude
       13.4.3 Policy Users     13.4.6 Be More Responsible

14. What would be the significant changes you would implement under the Affirmative Action Programme to improve the education of the Indigenous Fijians if you had the necessary funds and the legitimate authority to do so?
   14.1 Maintain the present programmes.
   14.2 Better co-ordination by the Implementers.
   14.3 Strong Political Will by Politicians.
   14.4 Continuous Awareness & Adult Education Programmes.
   14.5 Trainings and Seminars.

Emasi Qovu
(GA & PhD Scholar)
Appendix 4.4

16/11/2007

SCHOOL PROFILE

1. School Name, Reg. No. & Year Established:

2. Controlling Authority: (Name)

3. Principal / Head Teacher: (Name)

4. Teachers On the Staff: (Numbers)
   (Yr. Exp)

   4.1 Post-Graduates - 4.5 School Bursar -
   4.2 Graduates - 4.6 School Sec / Typist -
   4.3 Diplomas - 4.7 Non-Teaching Staff -
   4.4 Teacher's Cert. - 4.8 Total -

5. School Roll:
   5.1 Male - 5.2 Female - 5.3 Total:
   5.4 Filipino - 5.5 Others -

6. School Level -

7. Manager / Chairman -

8. Committee Members: (Numbers)

9. School PTA: Yes [ ] No [ ]

10. Board of Governors: Yes [ ] No [ ]

11. External Exam Classes:
    11.1 Class 6 [ ] 11.2 Class 8 [ ]
    11.3 Form 4 [ ] 11.4 Form 6 [ ] 11.5 Form 7 [ ]

12. External Exam Results (%) For The Last Three (3) Years:
    12.1 Class 6:
    12.2 Class 8:
    12.3 Form 4:
    12.4 Form 6:
    12.5 Form 7:

Emasi Govu
GA & PhD Scholar
The above Research data analysis Instrument at Appendix 4.5 (GAS) had been designed specifically for this study to assist in the assessment of responses from informants during the fieldwork research trips. Each of the selected 110 respondents under their respective classifications of policy initiators, policy implementers and policy users were graded using numerical numbers from 1 to 5 to gauge their preferred level of responses. These responses were further given their own groupings which were graded into percentages (%). This direction had been chosen to clearly determine their actual level of preferences under the least preference, to average preference and to their most preferred or maximum choices. In between them are the minimum grading as well as the medium assessment standing. The indentified preferences were further grouped together to determine the final outcome of the whole fieldwork research study.

It should be clarified that the informants were actually responding mainly to the 10 guiding questions as well as the other 4 indepth guiding questions. The guiding questions (see Appendix 4.2 and 4.3) had been pre-designed to assist in maintaining the required direction of the whole research process mainly using the talanoa and vitalanoa approached. These approaches had also assisted in limiting the time devoted for each informant, but still maintaining the momentum and cordial relationship between the researcher and the respondents. It further helped to clearly identify those individuals who were to be the subjects of vakamuritalanoa in their own settings at a later stage of the fieldwork trip.

The outcome from the GAS is then transferred to the TAS to provide as its guideline for the tabulation of the research results. These results are finally transferred to the SAS at Appendices 5.2 and 5.3 respectively for their final recordings against each of the 10 guiding questions as well as the 4 indepth guiding questions. Further relevant information is provided in Chapter 7 under the new findings of this study.
THE SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH STEPS UNDERTAKEN WITH THE THREE RESEARCH ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS EMPLOYED THAT ASSISTED IN THE FINAL DETERMINATION OF THE RESEARCH RESULTS.

Outcome of the Interviews, "Talanoa" and "Vitalanoa" through the usage of the 10 Research Questions as well as the 4 Indepth Research Questions.  
(Refer to Appendices 4.2 and 4.3)

Graduated Assessment Scale (GAS)  
Refer to Appendix 4.5

Tabulation Assessment Sheets (TAS) (1 - 4)  
(Refer to Appendices 5.1 (A) to 5.1 (D))

Summative Assessment Scale (SAS) (1) and (2)  
(Refer to Appendices 5.2 and 5.3)

Eventual Discussions of the Research Results  
(Refer to Tables 5.1 (A) to 5.1 (J) and Table 5.2)
### TABULATION ASSESSMENT SHEET (TAS) (1)

#### TABULATION OF FIELDWORK RESEARCH RESULTS

| VP, Naiswa MH School, Kakindu | 5 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 1,2,3 | 1,2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| VP, Naiswa Sec School, Gark | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| VP, Naiswa Sec School, Gark | 4 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| AP, Vunsea Sec School, Kakindu | 4 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| WT, Namolata Central School, Kakindu | 5 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| HT, R. Nsangiwa M. School, Kakindu | 4 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 1,2,3 | 1,2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TP, Namolata Central School, Kakindu | 5 | 5 | 1 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| VP, Vunsea Sec School, Kakindu | 4 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| WT, Kababa Pt. School, Nalukwala | 5 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| P. Butukuru Sec School, Kakindu | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| HT, Rakiky L. M. School, Kakindu | 5 | 5 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 1,2 | 1,2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| AP, Naiswa Sec School, Gark | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TIS, Kababa Sec School, Nalukwala | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 1,2,3 | 1,2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TIS, Kababa Sec School, Nalukwala | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TP, Kababa Sec School, Nalukwala | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| AHT, Kababa Pt. School, Nalukwala | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TIS, Naiswa Sec School, Gark | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 1,2 | 1,2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TIS, Holy Cross Sec School, Kakindu | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 1,2,3 | 1,2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| P. Naiswa High School, Kakindu | 5 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| VP, Holy Cross Sec School, Kakindu | 5 | 5 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 1,2 | 2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TIS, Holy Cross C. School, Kakindu | 5 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 1,2,3 | 1,2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TIS, Kababa Sec School, Nalukwala | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TP, Kababa Pt. School, Nalukwala | 5 | 6 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TIS, Butukuru Sec School, Kakindu | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 1,2,3 | 1,2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| VP, Kababa Sec School, Nalukwala | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TP, Rakiky L. M. School, Kakindu | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 1,2 | 1,2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| HT, Delamarama Govt. School, Buteka | 5 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1,2,3 | 1,2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TP, Delamarama Govt. School, Buteka | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |
| TP, Delamarama Govt. School, Buteka | 5 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 2,3 | 1 | All | All | All | All(1) |

**SUMMARY OF RESPONSES IN PERCENTAGE**

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<th>1-10%</th>
<th>11-20%</th>
<th>21-30%</th>
<th>31-40%</th>
<th>41-50%</th>
<th>51-60%</th>
<th>61-70%</th>
<th>71-80%</th>
<th>81-90%</th>
<th>91-100%</th>
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Source: Specifically designed and implemented for the study by the researcher (2009 - USP'S IGOS) (G.Gow)

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330
## TABULATION OF FIELDWORK RESEARCH RESULTS

(Prepared for: Government Office on Policy Information, TRB, MOE, 2007. TAB(3))

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**SUMMARY OF RESPONSES IN PERCENTAGE**

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*Source: Specifically designed and implemented for this study by the Researcher (2009 - UP) (MOE)*
### TABULATION OF FIELDWORK RESEARCH RESULTS

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Source: Specifically designed and implemented for this study by the Researcher (2009 - 2019) [O. Oma]

The above responses in Appendices 5.1(A), 5.1(B), 5.1(C) and 5.1(D) had been recorded during the fieldwork research trip. They were the answers mainly to the 19 guiding questions as well as the 4 in-depth guiding questions as in Appendices 5.2 and 5.3 respectively in Chapter 5 of this study.
### SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT SCALE (SAS): (1)

(10 Guiding Questions for the Interview: “Answers”)

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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<th>Fully Aware</th>
<th>Adequately Aware</th>
<th>Satisfactorily Aware</th>
<th>Minimally Aware</th>
<th>Barely Aware</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13% 13% 100% 100%</td>
<td>3% - 17% 10% -</td>
<td>17% 24% - -</td>
<td>53% 50% -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13% 13% 100% 100%</td>
<td>3% - 7% 10% -</td>
<td>- 20% 24% -</td>
<td>60% 50% -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>40% 60% 100% 100% 3% 13% - - -</td>
<td>13% 20% - -</td>
<td>- 8% 20% -</td>
<td>33% 50% -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>33% 53% 100% 100% 17% 17% - - -</td>
<td>- 10% - -</td>
<td>- 8% 20% -</td>
<td>33% 10% -</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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A B C D A B C D A B C D A B C D

**Very Effective**
**Better**
**Good**
**Minimally Beneficial**
**Least Beneficial**

| 6 | - - - - 3% - 3% 4% 13% 6% 9% 40% 27% 47% 50% 50% 10% 33% 17% |
|---|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|

A B C D A B C D A B C D A B C D

**Maximum Most**
**Maximum - Medium**
**Medium - Average**
**Minimum - Least**

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<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>Initiators + Implementers (IN + IM)</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43% 30% 15% 25%</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Initiators + Implementers + Policy Users (IN + IM + PU)</td>
<td>10% 17% 37% 40%</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Implementers Alone (IM)</td>
<td>47% 33% 35%</td>
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| 2 | Better Co-ordination by Implementers Alone (IM) | 27% 43% 23% |   |   |   |
|   | Better Co-ordination by Initiators and Implementers (IN+ IM) | 33% 10% 7% |   |   |   |
|   | Better Co-ordination by All (IN + IM+ PU) | 40% 30% 70% 100% |   |   |   |
|   | Better Co-ordination by Initiators Alone (IN) | 17% |   |   |   |

| 3 | To continue and review every 10 years | 33% 3% |   |   |   |
|   | To continue until the academic gap between Indigenous Fijian Students and those of Indo - Fijian Students is effectively bridged. Review every 10 years |   | 3| |   |
|   | To continue if its major objective was a “catching - up” Initiative and to be reviewed regularly. Its overall outcome to be annually reported to Parliament. | 97% 97% 97% 100% |   |   |   |

Source: Specifically Designed and Implemented for this Study by the Researcher (2009-USP's SOE) (E. Qovu):
SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT SCALE (SAS) (2)  Appendix 3.3

- FAVOURED VIEWS IN RESPONSE TO THE 4 INDEPTH GUIDING QUESTIONS THAT WERE FURTHER FORMED FOR THE INTERVIEW

Under each of the following four bases, there are four to six listed views and ideas to further assist and amicably maintain the required direction of the whole interview, together with the respective favoured views of the informants:

11. The main reasons for the Indigenous Fijian Students lower academic performance than other non-Indigenous Fijian Students.
   11.1 Lack of Motivation  11.4 Lack of Direction
   11.2 Lack of Self-Esteem  11.5 Lack of Purpose
   11.3 Lack of self-Discipline  11.6 Lack of Parental Support

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<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>100%</td>
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| 11.4 | 3% |

12. The structures and the medium of the learning programmes that could be a hindrance to the academic advancement of the Indigenous Fijian Students
   12.1 English language as medium of instruction
   12.2 Curriculum as too much academically orientated
   12.3 Assessment as too much exam-orientated
   12.4 Theory of teaching as too much based on western principles and knowledge (pedagogy)

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<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>97%</td>
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| 12.4 | 3% |

13. The possibility of AAP to eventually succeed in bridging the educational gap further between the Indigenous Fijian Students and others.
   13.1 It has just started legally.
   13.2 Such programme should be given enough time.
   13.3 Political Will needs to be reaffirmed.

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<tr>
<td>100%</td>
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| 13.2 | 3% |

14. Other significant changes that could be further implemented under the AAP to positively improve the education achievements of the Indigenous Fijian students if there were sufficient funds and the legitimate authority to do so.
   14.1 Maintain the present programmes
   14.2 Better co-ordination by the implementers.
   14.3 Strong Political Will by Politicians.
   14.4 Continuous Awareness & Adult Education Programmes.

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| 14.3 | 14 | 14 | 14 |

Source: Specifically designed by the Researcher of this Study (2009- USP's SOE) (E.Qovu)
Appendix 5.5

SPU/ASSET & MONITORING UNIT
ORGANISATION STRUCTURE – AS AT 21/07/09

Director [AMU]
P. Kunabuli (Substantive)

Secretary/PA
N. Rovina (Acting & Vac.)

Asset Management

PEO [Asset]
S. Wasibors (Acting)

SEO [Development]
A. Vatucicila (Acting)

Building Supervisor
A. Chaisimos (Substantive)

XO [Asset]
R. Chandar (Acting)

Typist [Asset]
V. Lenu (Substantive)

Messenger
R. Nalovo (Substantive)

Driver
A. Vakaliwaliwa (Substantive)

Monitoring & Fijian Education

PEO [Monitoring / Fijian Education]
K. Vakamino (Substantive)

SEO [Monitoring]
U. Vakataga (Substantive)

EO [Monitoring]
S. Vuki (Substantive)

EO [Textbooks & Community Awareness]
J. Todua (Acting & Vac.)

SEO [Community Awareness]
J. Qaraivau (Substantive)

CO [Monitoring]
L. Veli (Substantive)

Source: Ministry of Education’s SPU/AMU (2008)
Bole’s Team Strives On
(1st to 5th August, 2011)

Minister for Education Filipe Bole (left) looks on as the official vehicle is being serviced on its way to Thomas Baker Secondary School in Navosa.

Photo Courtesy of MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Ministerial team vehicles ready to cross the stream to visit Bemana Secondary School
Minister for Education, Ambassador Filipe Bole flanked by teachers of Navosa Central College. Photo: Courtesy of MINISTRY OF INFORMATION
SERVICE FROM THE HEART

The word ‘heart’, says King (1996) is used to convey messages of centrality, intensity, power, courage and feelings.

In the Holy Bible, Mathew 22:37, says:

“Love the Lord God with all thy heart, with all thy soul, and with all thy mind.”

Rather than assuming that the three terms have three different meanings, King (1996) further clarifies that such usage indicates intensity rather than differentiation of meaning.

The remarkable aspects of the above three terms are their similarity, and the fact that they are also interchangeable. Some have often mistakenly think that the word ‘mind’ indicates only one’s ability to think and that the ‘heart’ indicates only one’s ability to feel. King also maintains that thinking and feeling cannot be separated in a human being. One in fact thinks and feels simultaneously, and not in succession. All the three terms, heart, soul and mind refer to our wholeness as human beings, the oneness of our spirit and our body.

In putting together this ideology of Service from the Heart, I was in essence concerned with my personal experience of conversion. I was promoted from being a Secondary School Principal to Principal Assistant Secretary level at the Fiji Public Service Commission (PSC). The standard requirement then was for all employees of Government to take and sign an oath of allegiance on the first day of their appointment. The solemn and brief ceremony had instantly transformed me as a new person thus viewed my new responsibility as a renewed calling with total commitment, loyalty and dedication.

This situation has therefore confirmed my belief that conversion is also the fundamental message that the service from the heart wishes to empathically focused on simply because you cannot really effectively service others, until you have been wholly transformed and converted. Only then, you will have the self forgetful, outgoing and unsentimental warmth of regard, which is the kind of love and bonding that should exist within and between all the initiators, implementers and users of Government policies. Basically, when we take a closer focus, the process is clearly
of the heart that leads to conversion into a Civil Service with a wider range of responsibility at
the national level.

King also confirms that this responsible feeling continues to exist after one has been transformed
and converted. It is strongly advised that this feeling should be renewed annually during the
annual Civil Service Week, as the process should never end.

Likewise, the service from the heart is a process that helps one to positively raise one’s level of
service, and to keep on developing it to a more appreciable and professional level. It is a process
that needs to be firmly established at all times as it should continue to firmly exist in one self.

With this renewed experience with service from the heart, it should further ensure that policy
initiators, policy implementers and likewise policy users are able to sincerely, faithfully and
confidently take possessions of all government projects and programmes. This should then
guarantee their institutionalization with the target group at the grass-root level, who may not be
in such fortunate status as others are.

Finally, in this transformation and conversion after that commitment in the oath of allegiance,
someone will certainly take possession of yourself and prefers that you are always true to your
callings. Yes, that someone is none other but our Creator, our Heavenly Father. He will
continue to watch over you, protect you and nurture you as your services will continue and mean
a lot more to His creations, who also individually possesses the same heart, soul and mind that
we all have.