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**THE IMPACT OF CONFLICT AND THE ROLE OF
EDUCATION IN PEACEBUILDING AND SOCIAL
RECONSTRUCTION IN A POST- CONFLICT
SOCIETY: A CASE STUDY OF SOLOMON ISLANDS**

by

Fredolyn Don Ricky

A thesis submitted in fulfilment for the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts in Development Studies

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School of Government, Development and International Affairs
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March 2015

AUTHENTICITY

Statement by Author

Except for those sections explicitly acknowledged in the text, I, Fredolyn Don Ricky declare that this thesis is a piece of work done by me. It contains work done by myself under the supervision of Dr Gordon Nanau and Dr Manoranjan Mohanty of the School of Government, Development and International Affairs from 2011 till 2013 at the University of the South Pacific, Suva, Fiji. I hereby declare that the main content of this Master of Arts in Development Studies thesis has not previously been submitted for any degree in any other university.



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SYNOPSIS

The ethnic conflict and violence in Solomon Islands from 1998 to 2003 affected many essential services and sectors in the country. Amongst these services, education was one that was hard hit. Many schools were closed indefinitely as the crisis heightened and the movement of students from Guadalcanal and Honiara to the other provinces exacerbated the already existing problems of training facilities and education materials. The study critically analyses the relationship between conflict and the education system, particularly the kind of education curricula that existed in the country. Moreover, it explores ways through which education can contribute to conflict resolution, peacebuilding and social reconstruction in post-conflict societies like Solomon Islands.

The effects of ethnic conflict and violence on schools and communities in the country were investigated at five schools on Guadalcanal and their host communities nearby. Important components of the study include theoretical discussion of concepts such as conflict, education, conflict resolution, peace building and social reconstruction. It identifies the impacts of the ethnic conflict and violence in the following specific areas: 1) individuals (i.e. personal impacts); 2) loss of paid employment; 3) denial of education services; and 4) material losses. Besides, the study also identify the following issues: 1) the challenges encountered by educators in the post conflict period; 2) the impact of ethnic conflict and violence on community integration; and 3) the impact of ethnic conflict and violence on the social status of communities. The study confirms that the ethnic conflict and violence on Guadalcanal significantly affected, and even cost, many

lives. Homes and villages were burnt to the ground; schools closed and people lost their jobs as they escaped the violence.

The study also critically analyses the education policy during the period of ethnic conflict and its aftermath. It found that education provision was successful through the Education Sector Investment and Reform Programme (ESIRP) that allowed for the commitment of the donor partners, especially the European Union (EU) and New Zealand aid (NZAID) to commit funds through the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (MEHRD). They provided the ministry with financial and technical support for the implementation of Education Strategic Plan 2004, a critical post-conflict period.

Demobilization, disarmament and rehabilitation programmes were carried out by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and other agencies in Solomon Islands through the help of the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI). Australian aid financed some school facilities, particularly those in conflict affected communities, through a Community Peace Restoration Fund (CPRF). The European Union, NZAID and nongovernmental organizations also worked closely with the Solomon Islands Government (SIG) to support returnee refugees, including the provision of education services.

Despite this positive undertaking, the education system badly needs prioritisation and reconstruction. Education in the Solomon Islands needs to be precise in articulating

education philosophy that is relevant to the national context. A relevant policy that deals with reintegration of ex-combatants and considering accelerating learning programme for students who have missed out on education during the conflict is important. This is important in the process of preparing young Solomon Islanders for adult roles and responsibilities in their communities.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CBT	Community Base Training
CCF	Citizens' Constitutional Forum
CDU	Curriculum Development Unit
CEO	Chief Education Officer
CHS	Community High School
CPRF	Community Peace Restoration Fund
DDR	Demobilization, Disarmament and Rehabilitation
DEP	Distance Education Programme
EC	European Community
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EFA	Education For All
ESIRP	Education Sector Investment and Reform Programme
ESP	Education Strategic Plan
EU	European Union
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GLF	Guadalcanal Liberation Front
Global IDP	Global International Displaced Population
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GRA	Guadalcanal Revolutionary Army
IFM	Isatabu Freedom Movement

JHS	Junior High School
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDPAC	Ministry of Development, Planning and Aid Co-ordination
MEF	Malaita Eagle Force
MEHRD	Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development
MP	Members of Parliament
NEAP	National Education Action Plan
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NSS	National Secondary School
NZAID	New Zealand Agency for International Development
OBE	Outcomes Based Education
PAF	Performance Assessment Framework
PEO	Principal Education Officer
PSS	Provincial Secondary School
PSSC	Pacific Senior Secondary Certificate
RAMSI	Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands
RRU	Rapid Response Unit
RTC	Rural Training Centre
SIBC	Solomon Island Broadcasting Corporation
SICHE	Solomon Islands College of Higher Education
SIDAPP Programme	Solomon Islands Development Administration Planning
SIPL	Solomon Islands Plantation Limited
SISC	Solomon Islands School Certificate
TPA	Townsville Peace Agreement

TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO Organization	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural
UNICEF	United Nation Children's Fund
UNO	United Nation Organisation
UPNG	University of Papua New Guinea
USP	The University of the South Pacific
VTC	Vocational Training Centre
WWII	World War Two

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Between 1998 and 2003 Solomon Islands was in the grip of ethnic conflict and violence that had a huge impact, threatening the development of the entire nation. A recurrence of the breakdown of law and order in the post-conflict period remains a possibility. Perceptions of threats as the nature of the danger of violence becomes better understood are likely to influence the national development paths because they undermine social security and stability for individuals and communities. For instance, victims of rape, violence, family disintegration and other horrors experienced by people have severely undermined their sense of personal security and their confidence in the future (UNICEF 2005, p.5). This research explored the impacts of conflict and violence over individual behaviour both directly and collectively. Empirical evidence revealed that conflict and violence have negative impacts on social security. For example, in a hamlet of Poisuhu on West Guadalcanal, a man and his family were brutally murdered in their sleep. Many were kidnapped and tortured while some young girls were raped and killed (Global IDP 2004, p. 25).

The civil unrest on Guadalcanal occurred in 1998 between the Isatabu Freedom Movement (IFM), also known as the Guadalcanal Revolutionary Army (GRA), and the Malaita Eagle Force (MEF). There were also other militant groups like the Marau Eagle

Force and the Black Sharks, which participated in that lawlessness. Militants on Guadalcanal intimidated, harassed and displaced Malaitan settlers on the island. The overt fighting ended with the signing of a peace accord on 15th October 2000, commonly known as the Townsville Peace Agreement (TPA). The cessation of violence and overt conflict through the surrender of arms and ammunition was considered a vital achievement of TPA.

Nevertheless, to date only a limited number of provisions in the agreement have been implemented. The TPA does not really address the root causes of the ethnic tension on Guadalcanal. As Mr Veke puts it;

the peace Solomon Islands is enjoying remains fragile because the root causes of the ethnic tension remain unaddressed...the peace Solomon Islands enjoy now is uncertain because the real issues that the country should address such as the demands of ex-combatants remain outstanding. (Solomon Star online, 25 October 2013)

This is worrying as many people see the full implementation of the TPA as the precondition to national development and unity in Solomon Islands. To make matters worse, there is seemingly a lack of knowledge and effort in social reconstruction (explained below) after the signing of the peace agreement. Social reconstruction is a significant pathway to peace building that should take place after the ethnic conflict.

This is crucial given the fact that the conflict had distorted people's mind-sets. Smith (2005) refers to the importance of ideological and psychological reconstruction. He defines 'ideological' reconstruction as the democratization of the education system and retraining of teachers while explaining 'psychological' reconstruction as that which responds to issues of demoralization, such as loss of confidence, and health-related issues of stress and depression (Smith 2005, p. 384).

This thesis aims to investigate the impacts of the conflict and violence in the country, especially its effects on students and youths. Moreover, it intends to identify the role of education in conflict resolution, peace building and social reconstruction. To do this, the research investigates the critical role of education in the processes of peace building, societal change and reconstruction. At the outset, it hopes to capture the common understanding or thematic agreement among participants on the critical role of education in the peace building process. The research has explored avenues through which education can contribute to conflict resolution, peace building and social reconstruction in Solomon Islands and in post-conflict societies more generally.

This chapter provides background information on Solomon Islands. It also outlines the problem statement, the research aim, objectives and research questions. It also highlights scope of the study and its limits. Finally, the chapter concludes with an overview of the chapters that follow in the thesis to guide the reader.

1.2 Background information on Solomon Islands

To appreciate the research and the discussion that follows, some background information on the Solomon Islands is necessary. A brief description of Solomon Islands, its diverse demographic characteristics, political system, land tenure and education system are briefly outlined below. Solomon Islands adopted a Westminster system of government after independence. It is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary system of government. The monarchy is represented by the Governor General, who is elected by Parliament for a five-year term. It has a unicameral parliament with 50 members elected for a four-year term. It is made up of an executive (prime minister and cabinet) drawn from the legislature and held accountable to it through a vote of no confidence. Law making power is held by the legislature and the role of the separate head of state is largely ceremonial. Each ministry is headed by a cabinet member, who is assisted by a permanent secretary who is a civil servant but normally a political appointee. Every four years, Solomon Islanders over 18 years of age can vote for his or her representative member of the parliament (SIG 2013, p. 147).

The system introduced by the colonial government creates a setback for the country as it is counterproductive because of its seeming incompatibility with local ways of doing things. Having said that, Solomon Islands was not prepared for its independence and it may have been given independence prematurely without the development of a strong national identity, as demonstrated by the recent conflict. Historically, there were

different forms of government existing throughout Solomon Islands prior to and even after the British colonial era. As Zoloveke noted:

Our forefathers had their own forms of government before the arrival of European traders, blackbirders, missionaries and colonists. Leaders supervised their followers with strict traditional codes of behaviour...There was no written constitution to bind together the rules of different lines, tribes, clans and islands. No single traditional leader was able to rule over all Solomon Islanders (quoted in Alasia 1989, p.139).

It was a twist in the political understanding for the locals. Most Solomon Islanders found it very difficult to understand the mechanics of the Westminster system of government. The system it produced was quite crude and there was not enough awareness on the kind of government system introduced. In most cases, politicians capitalise on this weakness for their personal gain and that in turn has contributed to poor and ineffective leadership. Taupongi, for instance, explained that at independence, there was “[n]o voter education and no real idea amongst the majority of citizens just how this new system was supposed to work...From the mid-nineties onwards the group of people that came in had a very different take on how to govern the country and from that point on it was all about personal gain rather than trying to develop the country” (RAMSI 2013, p.52). The preceding arguments demonstrate that Solomon Islands was not ready for independence

and to take on board the Westminster system of government. Crocombe and Tuza (1992) also argued that:

Britain accelerated its plans to give Solomon Islands independence and tried to arrange with Australia and New Zealand to take over the Solomons... The colonial administrator and local politicians did not share the same sentiments. The introduction of a Governing Council in the early seventies was based on the aim of introducing a “home-grown” system of Government... The colonial administrators did not accept the Constitution and argued that it was an expensive and time consuming form of government. They were in favour of the Westminster system because it would expedite independence and relieve them of their financial burden (Crocombe and Tuza, 1992, p.3).

There was and still is a misfit between the introduced Westminster system of government and those that existed locally in the Solomon Islands communities. A contest between the Westminster system and ‘traditional’ systems of government partly contributed to this ethnic violence on Guadalcanal where “[a]lthough the Constitution provides the basic governing framework and there are laws in the books which purport to regulate the affairs of the community, most communities exist beyond the reach of government regulation and controls” (RAMSI 2013, p.70). This, as stated earlier, partly contributed to the 1998 to 2003 conflict on Guadalcanal.

1.2.1 Geographical locations

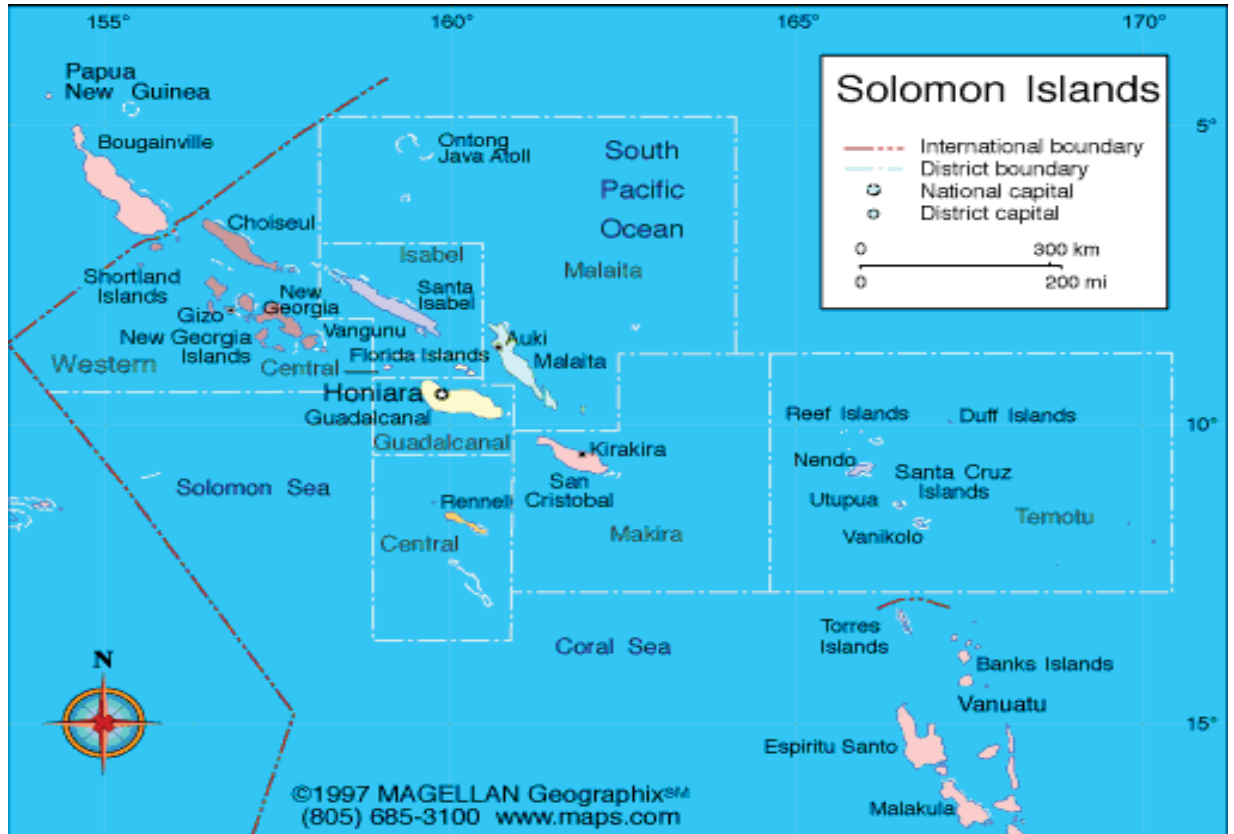


Figure 1: Map of Solomon Islands

(Source: Magellan Geographix 2013)

Solomon Islands is an archipelago situated in the south-west Pacific, located east of Papua New Guinea. It consists of 6 large Islands in a double chain and about 1000 smaller islands and 10 provinces. The provinces are; Choiseul, Western, Isabel, Central, Rennel and Bellona, Guadalcanal, Malaita, Makira and Ulawa, and Temotu. The capital, Honiara, is located on the island of Guadalcanal, the largest island, which occupies a central position in the country. The island has an area of 2,047 square miles (5,302

square km) and is of volcanic origin. It has a mountainous spine that culminates in Mount Popomanaseu (7,644 feet [2,330 metres]), the highest peak in the country. Many short, rapid streams, including the Mataniko, Lungga, and Tenaru, tumble from the wooded mountains to the coast, which in some places is lined with mangrove swamps (Britannica, 2011). The economy is based mainly on fishing, coconuts, timber, cacao (the source of cocoa), oil palms, and fruit; there are occasional workings in alluvial gold and silver. Honiara, the national capital, is on the north coast (ibid, 2011, p.3). Because of its central location, it being the host of the capital city, its fertile agricultural land and as a host of number development activities, many people choose Guadalcanal as their place of destination.

1.2.2 Demographic and ethnic composition

Solomon Islands has experienced continuing rapid population increase since the 1960s. The average annual growth rate of over 3.4% per annum was recorded between 1970 and 1986 and was one of the highest ever recorded in a country that did not have significant immigration.

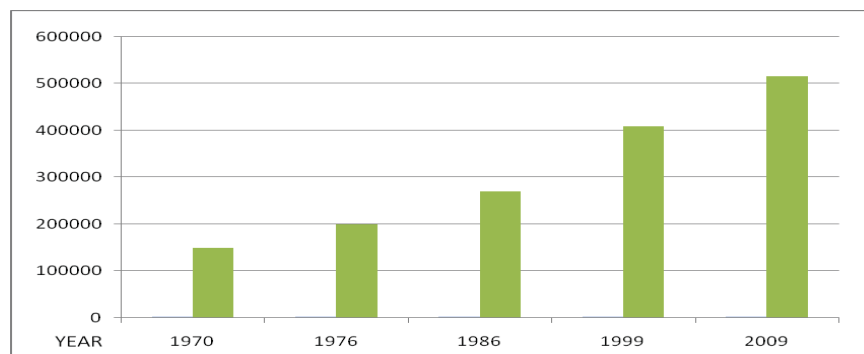


Figure 2: Trend of Population Growth 1970-2009 (Source: Solomon Island Government 2011).

Figure 2 shows the trend of population growth for Solomon Islands since 1970. The 1999 census showed that the total population of Solomon Islands was 409, 000 (Source: Solomon Island Government 2002) whilst the 2009 census showed that the total population had reached 515,870 and was increasing rapidly (Solomon Island Government 2011a). Although the 2009 census indicated that the average annual growth rate had slowed to an average of 2.5% per annum between 1999 and 2009, it is still the highest in the Pacific region and sufficient to double the population every 20 years. If the population continued to grow at that rate it would reach one million by 2032.

A key characteristic of the population is uneven distribution among provinces. Malaita had much the largest population 137,596, larger than Guadalcanal, which is 93,613, and Honiara, 64,609 (Solomon Islands Government 2011a). The land areas of the provinces also vary considerably. In 1999 overall population densities were highest in Central (35/sq km), Malaita (29/sq km) and Temotu (22/sq km). Guadalcanal (excluding Honiara) had only 11 people per square kilometre and all other provinces had 10 people or fewer (Solomon Island Government 2002).

Twenty per cent (20%) of the population live in the urban areas. Out of these, 13% (or 64,609 people) are in Honiara alone (Solomon Island Government 2011 p. 1). The racial composition of the population consists of Melanesian (93%), Polynesian (4%),

Micronesian (1.5%), European (0.8%), Chinese (0.3%), other (0.4%) (SIG 2011b, p.13). The official language is English but the most widely used language is Pidgin. There are at least 78 indigenous languages (Bugotu et al., 1973) and in addition numerous dialects. Their languages and cultures are significantly different.

Cultural differences exist among the islanders. Inheritance differs from one group to the other. For instance some islands, like Guadalcanal and Isabel, practise matrilineal systems and social arrangements while Malaitans and others islands practise the patrilineal systems. The meeting of different ethnic groups in Honiara with their different cultural norms, beliefs values and attitudes created tensions and dislocations. As Tovua puts it, “community fractures occur when population pressure results in people moving between islands, creating potential for misunderstanding due to different approaches and subtle cultural differences”(RAMSI 2013, p.9).

1.2.3 The education system

The Solomon Islands geographical setting has had considerable influence on the development of the present national education system. Although many of the problems caused by poor communication and isolation have become less marked, there are still many difficulties for schools in the more remote areas. Rural schools lack sufficient resources, quality equipment and stationery supplies. The centralisation of education administration, which is Honiara based, has exacerbated the already poor state of the schools.

In the pre- and post-colonial periods, the primary goal of education in Solomon Islands was to educate students to be competent to take up official responsibilities left by the colonial government. The aim was to provide skilled people to administer government plans, to provide services and human resources to the emerging private sector, and to promote the values of the various churches (MEHRD 2007b, p.67). This continued to be seen as step to employment in the formal sector, a tradition gained from the colonial legacy. Chevalier (2001) earlier argued that post-independent colonial educational policies and practices are not designed for equitable and broad access. They are designed to train indigenous elites to take over the reins of the country (Chevalier 2001, p. 39). The whole system of education therefore was acknowledged as the route to white collar job employment.

After independence, secondary school education expanded rapidly, first with the creation of Provincial Secondary Schools, and more recently with the creation of large numbers of Community High Schools in the 1990s. Both of these new kinds of secondary schools have adopted the overall curriculum of the colonial national secondary schools.

There is a general belief, derived from the situation before and immediately after independence, that those who reach Form 5 or 6 will find a place for further studies or paid employment. In most case many parents want their children to go to Form 5 or 6.

The expansion of paid employment or opportunities for further studies, however, has not kept pace with the expansion of Secondary education, and there has been an actual decline in these opportunities due to the period of tension since 1999. The vast majority of school leavers at all levels, including Form 5 and 6, now have only a small chance for paid employment or further studies. We have a situation, therefore, where the curriculum for secondary schools is based on a largely academic model that aims to train people for paid employment or further academic studies, but the vast majority of students have no prospects of either (MEHRD 2004b, p.9).

This has created a situation where a larger number of school leavers are looking for paid employment and failing to find it. Many drift to urban areas, especially Honiara, but fail to find work. Others go home to rural areas but find that their education has left them with few skills they can use to make a living for themselves because they have spent a long period of their formative years in school, rather than in the village, and because traditional skills are learnt through participation in village life -Learning by Doing. Many also found out that they do not have the skills to look after themselves and their families in the subsistence economy, which still forms the basis of life in most rural villages (MEHRD 2004b, p.9). This again partly contributed to the tension we experienced between 1998 and 2003.

1.2.4 Land as an important factor in the conflict

Land is the key factor in the Solomon Islands economy and is at the centre of the conflict discussed in this thesis. Traditionally, almost all the communities were engaged in subsistence agriculture. Besides subsistence cultivation, there existed small scale plough cultivations. The indigenous inhabitants also enjoyed self-sufficiency in terms of food production in earlier times. The modern land tenure system introduced by the colonialists was partly blamed for provoking the 'tensions'. Most land around the capital, Honiara was alienated by the colonial authorities and later retained by government to develop the central administration centre.

During the colonial era, people migrated to Honiara to have access to better welfare and wellbeing for themselves and their children. Consequently on Guadalcanal alone, most developments, prior to and after independence, were concentrated along the north coast, in the capital and in a few other locations outside Honiara (Liloqula and Pollard 2000, p.41). This is the experience elsewhere. As Lange and co-authors (2006) pointed out, "[c]olonizers shape the socioeconomic and cultural institutions of post-colonial societies" (Lange et.al 2006, p. 1413).

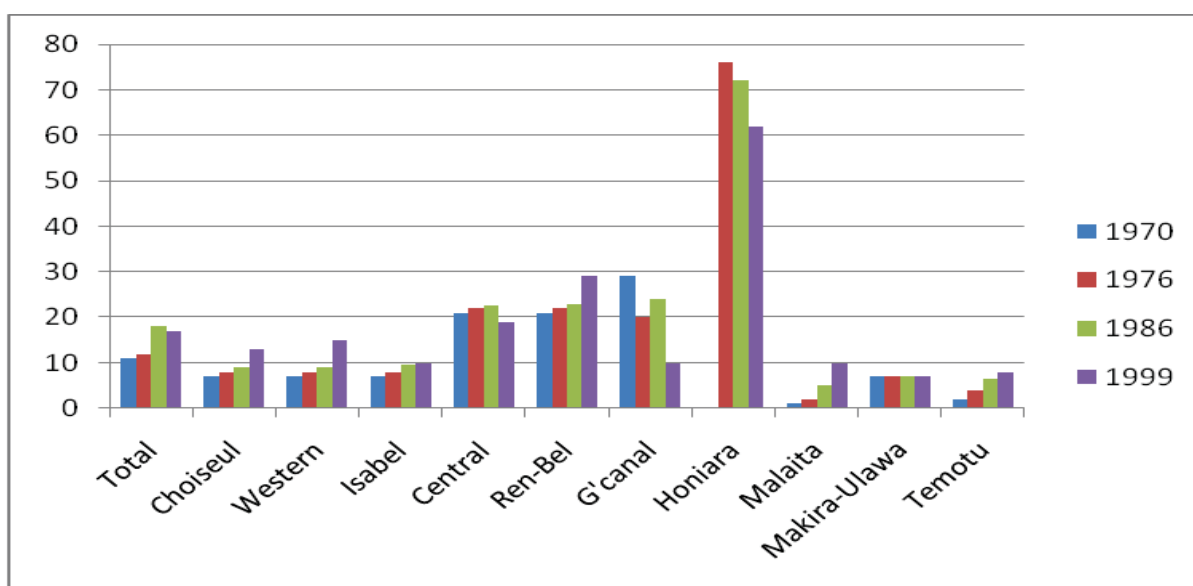


Figure 3: Internal Migration in Solomon Islands by Province, 1970 to 1999 (Source: SIG 1999)

It is apparent from the migration trends shown in Figure 3 that most of the migrants move to Honiara and Guadalcanal province. This is due to the concentration of development activities in and around Honiara City and on Guadalcanal province generally. Squatter settlements in Honiara mushroomed as people moved to the urban capital and nearby areas. This accumulated every year, expanding the urban periphery into customary land owned by indigenous Guadalcanal groups. Part of the trigger to the conflict was the frustration among Guadalcanal indigenous people at the manner in which some migrants (particularly Malaitans) were acquiring their lands legally or illegally (Liloqula and Pollard 2000, p. 41). Moreover, tensions between traditional cultures, ethnic influences and domestic mismanagement, combined with a weak state, shaky economy and fractured societies led to the tensions in 1998. Disputes and violence followed suit.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Given the above background and the resulting conflict that broke out in 1998, this research endeavours to study its impacts and to determine the role of education in peace building and social reconstruction in a post conflict society. The ethnic conflict and violence on Guadalcanal affected many essential services and sectors in the country. Among these services, education was one that experienced the direct impact of the conflict. Many schools were closed indefinitely at the height of the crisis and the movement of students from Guadalcanal and Honiara to rural Guadalcanal and to other provinces exacerbated the already existing problem with facilities and education materials in host schools at that time. Whalan, (2010) for instance pointed out that “[m]ost schools on Guadalcanal were seriously disrupted; some were burnt down or vandalized, others closed as teachers and students fled violence, and those that remained open struggled to accommodate the large displaced student population” (Whalan 2010 p. 1). The experiences of individuals and schools were never closely researched and told after the tensions. More importantly, the likelihood of future conflicts occurring is there unless education is used to socially reconstruct and unite people.

Many research studies conducted to offer alternatives for conflict resolution in Solomon Islands failed to seriously take into account the relationship between conflict and the education system. More importantly, they failed to investigate the relevance of the kind of education programmes that existed in the country and to seriously take into account

the specific importance of peace education. This failure has led policy makers to address conflict related issues in isolation from the education curriculum. This may be due to the lack of appreciation of the relationship between education and conflict and the role the education system plays in both conflict instigation and resolution. It is imperative that a deeper examination of this relationship be undertaken to ensure that potentials for conflict and violence in the Solomon Islands are minimised.

Research objectives

The key objectives of this research are to:

- investigate the impact of ethnic conflict and violence in Solomon Islands
- identify the role of education in peace building, and
- recommend appropriate programmes to be incorporated into the education curriculum to ensure peaceful co-existence and development of Solomon Islanders.

Research questions

This study will attempt to respond to the following questions:

- What are the impacts of the ethnic conflict and violence in Solomon Islands?
- What is the role of education in peace building?
- What education programme would facilitate peaceful coexistence, national unity and development in Solomon Islands?

1.4 Study scope

This study is important in the sense that it contributes to the following: (i) improving the design and delivery of educational programmes in Solomon Islands schools; (ii) enhancing our understanding of peace and social reconstruction in an effort to build confidence in a post-conflict society; (iii) determining proper linkages to the overall national educational policies of the country; and (iv) providing the basis for an operational framework on which the overall education curriculum could be developed and efficiently carried out to bring about peace and minimise future conflict and violence.

In this light, this research hopes to assist national efforts by identifying education programmes, curriculum design and areas that address potential conflicts and peace building. This would one hopes, pave the way for achieving peaceful coexistence without having to engage in violent conflicts. There is wisdom in the thinking that “if we want real change, then we must start with the children in the classroom”. This research strives to help identify relevant programmes in the education system to fulfil this mission.

1.5 Thesis overview

This thesis is organised in a logical sequence of six separate chapters in line with the research objectives and questions mentioned in sections 1.3 and 1.4. The first introduces the study and thesis; highlights the problem statement; provides some background information of Solomon Islands, along with the objective of the research, research question, and justifications and scope of this research.

The second chapter deals with the theoretical and analytical approach of the study. This chapter mainly looks at literature from different sources that talk about issues of conflict and post-conflict education and how they are handled locally and elsewhere.

Chapter three locates the study epistemologically. It outlines the research design or methodology used in this study and how data is analysed. In this chapter, the units of analysis and sources of data, sampling procedures, methods used to collect data, limitation of the research, and the ethical issues are discussed in detail.

Chapter four discusses the study's first set of findings on the impacts of the conflict and violence in the country. It provides a summary of responses on the impacts of ethnic conflict and violence on communities and schools in Solomon Islands.

Chapter five focuses on this research's findings on the role of education in conflict resolution, peace building and social reconstruction. The chapter provides a summary of responses classified in multidimensional categories that fulfil the key questions posed at the outset of this thesis and the study's specific objectives on education.

Chapter six outlines the conclusions of the study and recommendations based on the research findings. It places this study in the broader context of academic literature besides the key findings. It also identifies implications of the research for sound education policy and provides directions for possible future research efforts in this subject area in Solomon Islands.

1.6 Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to provide a brief description of Solomon Islands, its geographical location, diverse demographic characteristics, its political system, land tenure and education system. The chapter also provides the reader with the main objectives of the study and the specific questions pursued by this research project. It also outlines the scope of the study to give the reader a hunch of the specific area of study. Finally, the chapter highlights the organisation of the thesis and what the reader would expect to get from the subsequent chapters. The next chapter focuses on the theoretical framework and provides the theoretical discussion on the important concepts used in this thesis.

CHAPTER 2: CONFLICT, EDUCATION, CONFLICT RESOLUTION, PEACE BUILDING AND SOCIAL RECONSTRUCTION

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the critical role of education in conflict resolution, peace building and social reconstruction in post conflict societies. Experiences around the world suggest that similar education models have been used to reconstruct society emerging from violent and disruptive social conflicts. There is an underlying assumption that education can contribute to peace building and social reconstruction in a post-conflict society. This viewpoint is, in turn, based on the assumption that education as an instrument for providing the knowledge and skills enhancing peace building and social reconstruction of a post-conflict community shaping the experiences of the young, so that instead of reproducing current habits, better habits would be formed, and thus the future adult society would be an improvement on their own.

Building on this assumption, this chapter is devoted to the theoretical explanation of the concepts of conflict, education, conflict resolution, peace building and social reconstruction and associated terms and also briefly examines the nature of post conflict societies and how education can contribute to peace building and social reconstruction. It also justifies the role of education in peace building and social reconstruction in general and in particular in Solomon Islands. The justifications for peace building and

social reconstruction are discussed separately although most of them are inter-related. The chapter concludes by summarizing the significant role education plays in the process of peace building and social reconstruction in a post conflict society.

2.2 Conflict

The concept of conflict refers to a fundamental disagreement between at least two actors on some issue of common concern (Bruck et al. 2010, p. 14). Conflict occurs when two or more parties believe that their interests are incompatible, express hostile attitudes or take action that damages other parties' ability to pursue their interests. It becomes violent when parties no longer seek to attain their goals peacefully, but resort to violence (Amongi 2007, p. 2). Many conflict models and theories have been used to explain conflict in Solomon Islands. Most have been along the lines of ethnicity, economic disparity, cultural insensitivity, colonialism and poor governance. These theories fall into either one of three schools of thought outlined by Tong: "primordialism", instrumentalism and constructivism (Tong 2009, pp. 62-66).

The concept of "primordialism" is to do with kinship connections between members of an ethnic group, where individuals are biologically predisposed to protect members of their own group. "Instrumentalism" is the understanding that leaders manipulate their cultural groups as sites for mass mobilization for political gains. Constructivism essentially is a bridge between "primordialism" and "instrumentalism". It posits that

ethnicity is a social identification, not just an individual one. Instrumentalism as understood by Abubakar (2001) is where “ethnic identities become seriously amenable to political manipulation either when suppressed groups feel marginalized from the political and economic process affecting their lives or when privileged groups feel that their rights are threatened” (2001, p. 32). Constructivism on the other hand claims that individuals construct new knowledge from experience, ethnicities are not chosen and that they change as a society changes. “Violence rises up out of a combination of factors from economic pressure to loss of political rights, social systems give rise to conflicts along ethnic lines (Tong 2009, p. 63). “Constructivism” is the central features of the armed rebellions in Fiji, Bougainville, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu. As Reilly explained, “... ethnic identities are never static, indeed, they can be created to serve particular goals and ends” (Reilly, in Allen 2007, p. 10).

2.3 Education

The concept ‘education’ according to Cohen (1999, p. 3) is a means of preparing people for creating a new social order. Education plays an important role in peace building. It works as a medium for peace and social reconstruction where peace education is embedded through curriculum design and programmes. It addresses the knowledge, values, skills and behaviours needed to nurture a culture of peace. In addition, education is universally recognized as a fundamental building block for human development and is one of the strongest instruments for reducing poverty. Education is a key to achieving

the MDGs and is a powerful driver of the development of individuals and society, improving health, gender equality, peace, and stability (World Bank 2011, p.1). However, Smith (2005) sees education as threefold: a powerful tool for ideological development, an instrument providing the knowledge and skills necessary for economic development, and a means of transmitting social and cultural values from generation to generation (Smith 2005, p. 376). Thus, education is a means of preparing young people for adulthood and therefore generates new leaders for the next generation. It acts as a vehicle for social cohesion (UNICEF 2011a, p.7). The learning objective of the role of education in conflict resolution, peace building and social reconstruction is to **promote peace**. Sperling (2007, p. 1) demonstrates that “education provides a healing and safe place for children in conflict areas, in that it provides a sense of much needed normalcy in a chaotic conflict environment and teaches non-violence and understanding”. However, peace education is seen as an activity that promotes knowledge, skills and attitudes that will allow people of all ages, and at all levels, to develop the behaviour changes that can prevent the occurrence of conflict, resolve conflict peacefully, or create the social conditions conducive to peace (Isaac 1999, p.2). Alternatively, Brock-Utne claims that peace education is “education or socialization that results in more peace in the world or that at least has as a result the greater likelihood that peace will be the existing condition than the case would have been without that education” (Brock-Utne, 1989, p. 78). Besides Baldo and Furniss stressed that “peace education is most effective when the skills of peace and conflict resolution are learned actively and are modelled by the school environment in which they are taught” (see Fountain 1999, p.17). Isaac

(1999) agreed that Peace education is the provision of teaching materials and a teacher's kit to restore a feeling of normalcy in schools and to bring a message of calm and peace to children affected by conflict. Fountain (1995, p.4-5) further emphasised that peace education promotes the development of values as the basis for behavioural change, and views behaviour as an indicator of an individual's or group's values. He pointed that the process of changing behaviour proceeds through a sequence of stages adapted from Fishbein, 1992; and HealthCom, 1995) in which an individual:

1. becomes aware of the issue (peace and conflict);
2. becomes concerned about the issue;
3. acquires knowledge and skills pertaining to the issue;
4. becomes motivated, based on new attitudes and values;
5. intends to act;
6. tries out a new behaviour (for example, peaceful conflict resolution);
7. evaluates the trial; and
8. practices the recommended behaviour.

Depending on the social and cultural context in which the behavioural change is taking place, these stages may vary in order, or take place simultaneously. Nevertheless, a comprehensive approach to peace education should address all these stages. Therefore Ginsberg et. al in Bhagabati (2006, p.3) stated that schools and universities could focus on educating students for cultivating the seeds of peace. Curriculum and pedagogy ought to be followed at all levels of education to encourage the development of peace and international understanding.

2.4 Conflict resolution

Conflict resolution is a process of dealing with tension between two or more parties to manage their feelings of aggression, frustration and violence. Parties to the conflict agree upon a solution to put the situation to rest. Galtung (1965, pp.353-354) pointed out that “to resolve a conflict means to decide who is the winner and who is the loser and seek future distribution of value, administer the distribution of value and define the conflict as terminated”. It simply refers to the process and the way of dealing with conflict related issue. Figure 4 portrays the mechanism as intervening means between problems and solution.

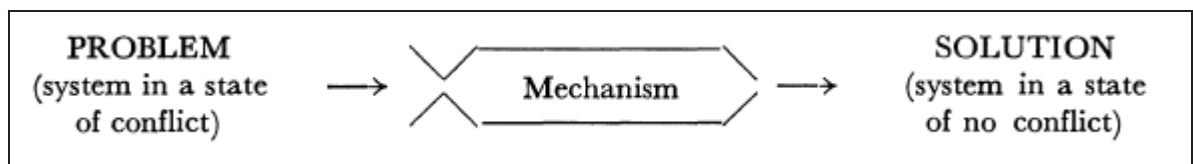


Figure 4: Galtung resolution mechanisms

(Source; Galtung 1965, p. 354)

Simplistically, the resolution mechanism is a kind of machine that defines the problem, the conflict, and then offers a solution. The mechanism is an intervening variable between problem and solution. Baldo and Furniss explain that conflict resolutions are learned actively and are modeled by the school environment in which they are taught. Emphasis is placed on improving the school environment so that it becomes a microcosm of the more peaceful and just society. This creates a consistency between the messages of the curriculum and the school setting, between the overt and the ‘hidden’ curriculum (see Fountain 1999, p. 16). A practical resolution strategy in a school setting

demonstrates life skills education that enables children and young people to translate knowledge, attitudes and values into action and to cope effectively with the challenges of everyday life. It enables them to become socially and psychologically competent and encourages cooperation, negotiation, communication, decision-making, problem-solving, coping with emotions, self-awareness, empathy, critical and creative thinking, dealing with peer pressure, awareness of risk, assertiveness, and preparation for the world of work (Fountain 1999, p.11)

2.5 Peace building

The concept “peace building” first emerged over 30 years ago through the work of Johan Galtung, who called for the creation of peace building structures to promote sustainable peace by addressing the “root causes” of violent conflict and supporting indigenous capacities for peace management and conflict resolution (UNICEF 2011b, p.13). Since then, the term is used by the international development community to cover a multidimensional exercise and tasks ranging from the disarming of warring factions to the rebuilding of political, economic, judicial and civil society institutions and to describe the processes and activities involved in resolving violent conflict and establishing a sustainable peace (UNO 2010, p.5). As rightly stated by the UNO Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon, in his 2009 report, “... peace building in the immediate aftermath of conflict, places social services, including education, among the five recurrent priorities for peace building in post-conflict transition” (UNICEF 2011a,

p.6). Besides, peace building is a process of preventing chaos in the aftermath of conflict. UNICEF (2011b) clearly stated that,

Peacebuilding involves a range of measures targeted to reduce the risk of lapsing or relapsing into conflict by strengthening national capacities at all levels for conflict management, and to lay the foundations for sustainable peace and development. Peacebuilding strategies must be coherent and tailored to specific needs of the country concerned, based on national ownership, and should comprise a carefully prioritized, sequenced, and therefore relatively narrow set of activities aimed at achieving the above objectives (UNICEF 2011b, p.14).

The notion of peace building in the work of Galtung includes: negative peace (the cessation of violence), positive peace (structural changes that address social injustices that may be a cause of violence), structural violence, root causes of conflict and sustainable peace. These core peace building concepts are outline in Table 1.

Table 1: Johan Galtung's core peacebuilding concepts

Concept	Definition
Negative peace	The cessation and/or absence of violence.
Positive peace	The absence of structural violence. The presence of social justice. The conditions that eliminate the causes of violence.
Structural violence	Indirect violence. "Violence that is built into structures and shows up as unequal power and consequently as unequal life chances" (Galtung 1990: 171). Structural violence accompanies and is an underlying cause of direct violence.
Root causes of conflict	Manifestations of structural and cultural violence, leading to direct violence.
Sustainable peace	Peace and processes towards it that address the root causes of violent conflict.

(Source: UNICEF 2011b, p. 13)

In the context of Solomon Islands, peace building is a process that promotes national unity and reconciliation by engaging all stakeholders in the reconciliation process, discovering and helping them to understand what happened in the tensions and why. It examines the patterns of human rights abuses and intervenes in synergy and co-operation with other initiatives and strategies being implemented (TRC 2012, p.1). Put simply, peace building in the Solomon Islands is a process that involves parties to the conflict identifying the root causes of the conflict, assess the nature of the conflict and address its sources to avoid future violence.

2.6 Social reconstruction

The concept “social reconstruction” is defined as the ability to shape the experiences of the young so that instead of reproducing current habits, better habits are formed and future adult society is better (Zuga 1992, p. 48). It is a strategy for human development in a post-conflict society that would minimize related social problems emanating from conflict. The way to socially reconstruct in the aftermath of ethnic conflicts is through intellectual development. Because ethnic violence impacts communities and societies, it distorts people’s mind-set and shifts their normal way of life to a more discomforting way. Given the scenario, it is imperative that a society provides a stable environment suitable for human needs. By doing so, developing the human intellect is significant to reconstructing the society’s social norms and values. The basic instruction for intellectual development begins with the children in the classroom. As Santrock (2011, p. 352) explains this as a process of “fostering a community of learners” (FCL). FCL encourages reflection and discussion through the use of adults as models and children teaching children. It uses reciprocal teaching strategy in which students take turns leading a small group discussion. The notion of FCL helps students to expose and express themselves to solve real problems and develop deeper understanding of the concept. Gauven and Parke pointed out that involving students to share with others is creating opportunity for them to participate. Through participation students will learn as they are exposed to the thinking of others (in Santrock 2011, p.333).

2.7 Justifying the role of education in conflict resolution and peacebuilding

Framing education at the centre of peace building and social reconstruction is critical for conflict resolution and stability in the country. In countries where peace education was introduced, education contributes to peacebuilding by promoting inclusion, socialization, social capital and social benefits (UNICEF 2011b, p 26). Inclusive education is about how we develop and design our schools, classrooms, programs and activities so that all students learn and participate together. It helps individuals to develop children's strengths and gifts, with high and appropriate expectations for each child. Inclusive education provides opportunities to learn about and accept individual differences, lessening the impact of harassment and bullying. It develops friendships with a wide variety of other children, each with their own individual needs and abilities (Inclusion BC 2014, p.1).

On the other hand, socialization is a learning process that begins shortly after birth. Early childhood is the period of intense and crucial socialization. It is then that we acquire language and learn the fundamentals of our culture (Dennis 2011, p.2). We continue to be socialized throughout our lives. Different communities use different strategies to socialize their children. Nevertheless, we learn the formal and the informal ways of education. Formal education is what primarily happens in a classroom. It usually is structured, controlled, and directed primarily by adult teachers who are professional "knowers". In contrast, informal education can occur anywhere. It

involves imitation of what others do and say as well as experimentation and repetitive practice of basic skills. This is what happens when children role-play adult interactions in their games (ibid)

Social capital refers to the collective value of all social networks (who people know) and the inclinations that arise from these networks to do things for each other (norms of reciprocity). Social capital emphasizes the trust, reciprocity, information and cooperation associated with social network. It creates value for the people who are connected and at least sometimes for bystanders as well (Saguaro Seminar, 2014, p.1)

The social benefit of education is significant to our society, not only through higher employment opportunities and income but also via enhanced skills, improved social status and access to networks. By fully recognizing the power of education, policy makers could better address diverse societal challenges (OECD, 2012 p.1). It should, however, be pointed out that education taking the role for peace building has to take place throughout the whole country in order for successive generations to be equipped with knowledge and skills needed to participate effectively as members of society and contribute towards the development of the nation.

In this section, some of the popular justifications for the role of education in conflict affected societies will be discussed. In particular, we look at nature of conflict in the global context and also in the Solomon Islands context and how education could

contribute to peace building. More specifically, the discussion will concentrate on: 1) the nature and impact of conflict; 2) education as a peace building tool; 3) education as tool for social reconstruction after conflict; and 4) education for reconciliation.

2.7.1 The causes of conflict and violence

Some degree of conflict is a natural, vital part of life. It happens everywhere in every country. Be it civil war, ethnic violence or even intimidation, they are all categories of violent conflicts. It is very important that the nature of conflict is clearly defined to be able to prevent further escalation. The nature of conflict around the world is much the same though there are variations in the making. Jacob (2012) explains the reasons for ethnic conflicts as those pertaining to colonialism. For instance, the history of ethnicity and ethnic conflicts in Nigeria is traced back to the colonial transgressions that forced the ethnic groups of the northern and southern provinces to become an entity called Nigeria in 1914. The British colonial policy was autocratic in nature and it denied people's participation in the processes of meeting basic needs, equality and social well-being. The separations of governments, which the colonial administration introduced in the North and the South, were designed to lead to the growing ethnocentrism, and generated hatred and conflict among different ethnic groups (Jacob 2012, p.14).

This argument was supported by Vandenberg (1998 in Osinubi). He pointed out that in Africa; ethnic conflict was expressed as a counterproductive aspect of colonialism. This

is because Africa was divided into different administrative district by Europeans and it had no control over the central power (Osinubi 2006, p.102). Besides, Welsh (1996) saw violent conflicts in recent years in Somalia, Liberia, Rwanda, Burundi, and Sudan as the failure of states in sub-Saharan Africa to manage the ethnic grouping. He blamed ethnic identities on the colonial period's 'instrumentalism' and argued that ethnicity in that region was invented for political purposes. He noted that African countries were not ready for their independence but were forced to adopt the colonial system, which was unrealistic to expect them to do (Welsh 1996, p.477).

In this same context, the Bougainville crisis of 1988 to 2000 has been the core issue for the people of Bougainville as they had fallen under the control of multiple colonial powers. In this regard, the colonial legacy was partly blamed for the crisis on Bougainville. Miriori (1996, p.1) explains that the colonial power had arbitrarily drawn up boundaries within the territories, without any due respect for or consideration of the indigenous populations. There was consciousness of cultural differences with neighbouring language and cultural groups. In Fiji, Dakuvula (2004) demonstrated that the ethnic conflict there is rooted in its colonial past where the emphasis was on racial differences. Ethnic groupings were used for administrative purposes. The term "Fijian" is a reference to indigenous people of Fiji while "Indians" are the descendants of the indentured labourers and traders from India who came to work in the sugarcane plantation in the late 19th and early 20th century and settled there (Dakuvula 2004, p. 3). Likewise, for Solomon Islands, Dinnen claimed that "[t]here is still little sense of unity

binding the disparate communities falling within the arbitrary boundaries that were established initially by colonial powers in the late 19th century” (Dinnen 2002, 285). This was supported by Kabutaulaka (2002) when he stated that the hatred and rivalry between the Guadalcanal and Malaitan militants was expressed as a legacy of colonialism (Kabutaulaka 2002, p. 4).

The land issue has been another source of ethnic conflict. In Kenya, the colonialists dreamed of making Kenya a white man's country. The colony established the Kenyan protectorate and they financed the protectorate with money generated from the white settler plantations located in the areas of the country with the high agricultural potential. The colony claimed large parts of the fertile agricultural land and made it as alienated land (Nyukuri 1997, p.8). In the case of Solomon Islands, centralization of political administration by the colonial administration after World War II in Honiara on Guadalcanal creates a central “pull” factor for other islands to migrate to Honiara for employment. As Allen (2007, p. 9) puts it, the conflict on Guadalcanal is a result of economic disparity, claiming that it was due to the large population that is economically disadvantaged, which ultimately intensifies the force for conflict. The population of Honiara grew rapidly; likewise its squatter settlement intensified and Honiara became a hub for other ethnic groups in the country. Hegarty (2003, p.4) further explained that the Malaitans were alleged to have unrightfully seized their [Guadalcanal] lands without paying compensation and denied them [ethnic Guadalcanal] the opportunities for work and had no respect for their culture. This was supported by the Guadalcanal Leaders’

Summit (2005, p.8) where it was resolved that Honiara land was never properly acquired from the landowners nor paid for. The UNDP (2004) identified “[t]he following land-related issues repeatedly as flash points in the conflicts leading to violence during the tensions: (i) unauthorized sale of customary land by a few; (ii) self-interested, individuals; (iii) the unequal distribution of rent income/royalties from land; and, (iv) illegal squatting on, and use of, customary lands, particularly around Honiara” (UNDP 2004, p7).

Some countries became more dependent on primary commodity exports for their economic survival and these countries are prone to conflict. Collier (2006, pp.7-10) claimed that as of 1995, a country with the highest risk of civil conflict was Zaire. It has three-in-four chance of conflict within a five-year period. He also argues that in the really poor economies, like Ghana and Uganda, the government can raise only 6% of its national income. As a result the government had cut its spending on policing and defence, making things easier for rebel predators. In such poor countries, there is a high chance of conflict taking effect because governments cannot defend themselves and their people (Collier 2006, p.7-10). Liloqula and Pollard (2000, p.42) similarly claimed that the ethnic conflict on Guadalcanal can be attributed to the failure of government policies and strategies. Public resources have not been managed effectively and efficiently. People have not been sufficiently involved in consultation processes, resulting in implementation failures.

However, Crawford (1998) notes that ethnic violence frequently occurs in places where circular economic decline, neoliberal economic reforms and institutional transformation have broken old patterns. He comments on the ethnic and religious conflict in Asia, Eastern Europe, North Africa, the former Soviet Union and the United States between 1945 and 1990. These examples demonstrate how this distribution and power shifts have been experienced. He argues that much of this ethnic conflict and religious violence is closely related to globalization forces and demands for economic liberalization, which have weakened states' capacities, both political and financial, for redistribution of resources (Crawford 1998, pp.3-5).

Systemic explanations of ethnic conflict focus on the nature of political leadership, that national, regional, and international authorities must be too weak to keep groups from fighting and too weak to ensure the security of individual groups. In Zimbabwe, Hill (2002, p.259-260) argues that the weakness of the colonial government was unable to control the people migration from the communal areas to the Matabeleland North in the forest. The Forestry Commission was weak to prevent the continue migration of the people to that area. He argues that this weakness was due to the inability of the Forestry Commission to properly administer the government's forests enforcement capacity and that of the tenant programme in state forests. Tenant programme finally collapsed due to the escalation of the uprising, and the subsequent civil war that occurred in the early 1980s. Blagojevic (2009) describes former Yugoslavia as a nation that suffered from a major structural change and once found itself at a dangerous political crossroads. The

nationalist intellectuals and leaders used the weapons of nationalist rhetoric to intensify ethnic divisions and ethnic intolerance. He explains that pro-independence leaders used the rhetoric of “us” (our ethnic/national group) being exploited by “them” (other ethnic/national groups). He argues that everybody making complaints against Yugoslavia them and against each other (Blagojevic 2009, p.18). In a similar context, Sanga argues that leadership is the root cause of the conflict in Solomon Islands. He claims that the national leaders in particular have been weak in character (2005, p. 6). Tovua supports this position, claiming that the problems arose “because of poor and ineffective leadership as well as other socio-economic factors” (RAMSI 20013, p.9). Bennett (2002) further explained that the speech by the Guadalcanal Provincial Premier, Ezekiel Alebua, in mid-1998 triggered the whole situation, arguing that the “call was heard as a blanket authorization to harass Malaitans” (Bennett 2002, pp. 10-11).

The issue of unequal distribution of resources is yet another source of conflict globally. Many countries had encountered violence when one of the ethnic groups is marginalized. Nyukuri (1997) made reference to the case of Kenya to confirm this position. He claimed that the Kikuyu region envied by other ethnic groups because of its good infrastructures and facilities. It has good modern roads and abundant school and education facilities. It provide better health services, a good piped water supply, better electricity and other forms of infrastructure (Nyukuri, 1997, pp.9-10). In contrast, Nyanza (i.e. the home of the Luo ethnic group) suffered severe suppression and neglect, most than any other province. Closely related is Wallerstein’s (1979, in Osinubi)

argument that ethnic consciousness and conflict occur when groups feel threatened with loss of previously acquired privilege, or conversely feel that it is an opportune moment to overcome a longstanding denial of privilege. He says the mechanisms and machinations through which these groups advance their aims are expressed through ethnic tensions and violence. He argues that the current indicator of ethnicity in Africa is an elite and class phenomenon where one community's elites feel excluded by another from control of economic and political power. It is then that members of their ethnic groups believe that this is a conspiracy by a whole community against another, which should be aggressively confronted (Osinubi 2006, p.104). In a similar frame, Dinnen (2002) explains that the conflict in Solomon Islands was partly because of the assumption that the settlers, especially Malaitans, prospered unfairly at the expense of locals, exploiting their resources. Anti-Malaitan sentiments have been reinforced by popular stereotypes, such as the sentiment Malaitans had no respect for indigenous local culture (Dinnen 2002 p286).

2.7.2 The impact of conflict and violence

This subsection discusses the impact of the Solomon Islands 'ethnic tensions' on socio-economic activities of the country, human rights and on education.

2.7.2.1 Impacts on socio-economic activities

Recent studies on the impact of conflict and violence find a variety of challenges amongst communities, societies and the school system in places where conflict actually

took place. In most conflict affected countries, the social consequences were enormous. Writers like Nyukuri (1997 p.15) describe the impact of ethnic conflict and violence in Kenya as a huge indiscriminate loss of human life. Many people sustained physical injuries and others were traumatized. He argues that the social consequences of the clashes were enormous and cannot be easily quantified. Most of the victims were left homeless, landless, destitute and injured. The author gave an account of the death toll for the following ethnic groups; Kikuyu - 102, Kalenjin - 87, Luhya 69; Kisii - 44, Luo - 30, Maasai - 12, Somalis - 10, Turkana - 6, Teso - 4 and Arab – 1 . Furthermore, the account for displacement of population for the following ethnic groups during the same period was also highlighted: Luhya - 2,382; Kikuyu - 1971; Kalenjins - 1720; Luo - 403; Kisiis - 354, Teso – 259 and Kamba - 25 (Nyukuri 1997, p.15) This is also similar to the conflict in Angola, which killed nearly 500,000 children and caused nearly 15,000 children to be separated from their parents. As a result, most children in most of the provinces in Angola had experienced single or in combination chronic poverty, attack, loss of loved ones, uprooting and community destruction (Monteiro 2007, p.7). On the other hand Bonofer (2011) points out the impact of the prolonged ethnic conflict between the Tamils and the Sinhalese in Sri Lanka which produced a huge number of migrations to India. The total migration of the Sri Lankan Tamils to India as refugees from 1983–1989 was 134,053 displaced persons who arrived from Sri Lanka. In 1989–1991, the total of displaced persons who went across to India was 122,078. However, in 1991, there was a significant drop in the refugee influx till 1996. The third phase was in 1996 to 2001 in which, a total of 21,940 migrant refugees arrived in India

The author describes life as a refugee in India as not an easy and pleasant position to be in. Most of the camp refugees, although they are allowed to work, in some instances have been forced to stay back in their camps. As a result of this restriction by the Jayalalitha government, educational services and opportunity for higher education were not affordable (Bonofer 2011, p.17-18). Likewise Schoorl and Friesen (2002) pointed out that in the Solomons the crisis resulted in the displacement of people from both Guadalcanal and Malaita. The Malaitans fled Guadalcanal and the Guadalcanal people were forcibly moved out of Honiara since the Malaitans dominated the Solomon Islands Police Force, who took control of Honiara (Global IDP 2002, p. 5).

Hou (2012) explains that the outbreak of severe violence and breakdown of law and order has had deep and far-reaching effects on the economic and social life in Solomon Islands. On Guadalcanal, there was extensive damage to transport infrastructure, schools, water supplies and sanitation systems, government buildings and health facilities. Honiara, the economic base of the country was almost crippled: electricity and water supply infrastructures were disrupted or damaged (Hou 2001, p.2). Adeveni in Zakaree (2012) pointed out that one of the major implications of persistent conflicts is the insecurity of lives and properties which tend to hinder foreign economic relations to jumpstart the economy (Zakaree 2012, p.182). The damage inflicted on the economy and social infrastructure is estimated to be over \$250 million, or about 20% of Solomon Islands Gross Domestic Product (GDP). These damages have disrupted and slowed down economic activity and placed severe strains on delivery of government services

throughout the country. It is estimated that the economy may have declined by over 14% in 2011 (Hou 2001, p.2)

2.7.2.2 Impacts on human rights

In all countries, the impacts of the ethnic conflict are clearly enormous and in most cases there were human rights abuses. Basically, conflict impacted on the countries' law and order situations, causing internal collapse of law and order or near total breakdown of structures guaranteeing law and order. The case of the West and Central Africa region would be best to exemplify this human right abuse. In Salah's (2005) article, women and girls, particularly adolescents, in the West and Central Africa region have been specifically targeted with violence such as torture, rape, mass rape, forced prostitution, forced termination of pregnancy and mutilation. In particular, most girls were abducted and used as sex slaves or given as wives to soldiers (UNICEF 2005c, pp.6-7). An overwhelming experience was also found on Bougainville where the law and order situation was diminished, and human rights abuses and other related problems increased. Greater divisions and social disintegration also increased. Health and education services could not reach the poorest population of Bougainville (Regan 1998, p.279). In Fiji the events of 2000 also resulted in the lack of respect for the rule of law. Soldiers were involved in the armed takeover of Parliament, corruption in the public service has intensified, communities remain disintegrated and reconciliation has not been successful (Dakuvula 2004, p5). But in Solomon Islands, the weakness of law and order become

increasingly apparent during the height of the crisis and its aftermath. Those who possessed guns took over the legitimate power from the government and the key members of parliament have close links with former militants, and depended on them for their political and economic survival. Government neither has a loyal and effective enforcement capability nor an effective Cabinet process. Real power and decision making occurs outside the formal political arena. The parliament largely serves as an avenue for access to dwindling resources by political players. Very few legitimate compensation cases (to displaced persons) have been settled, but large sums have been disbursed to political leaders, former militant leaders and their associates. Government had very little legitimacy and was seen as being subordinate to the interests of the Malaitan gangs (Global IDP 2004 p16).

2.7.2.3 The impact on educational services

In such a situation where the country was significantly unstable, schools in most of the conflict affected areas were either forced to close their doors or their buildings were burnt down by militants leaving immense misery for women and children living in the affected areas. In Sierra Leone the decade-long war similarly destroyed the infrastructure of the country's education system and reduced the quality of teaching and of the learning environment (UNICEF 2011c). UNICEF also quotes from the Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children (2004) that education in Sierra Leone was dramatically affected by the conflict, particularly in the country's rural areas, where

it was almost entirely halted. It was estimated that up to 70 per cent of the school-aged population had limited or no access to education during the conflict (UNICEF 2011c, p.28). In Kenya, Nyukuri (1997) admits that as a result of the clashes in Molo, over 55 primary schools in Molo South catering for over 16,500 pupils did not re-open for the new term because of insecurity. The author mentioned that standard eight pupils due to sit for their Kenyan Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) fled their homes in 1993 because of insecurity caused by violence (Nyukuri 1997, p.20). Hilker (2010) also expressed that in such ethnic violence, schools are mostly affected. He described the Rwanda genocide in 1994 and how it negatively affected the Rwandan school system. Huge parts of school infrastructure were severely damaged. Furthermore, around 75% of teachers were either killed or jailed for allegedly participating in the genocide (Hilker 2010, p.8)

In the same context, Solomon Islands went through such major conflict that adversely affected communities and schools in the provinces. Wainwright (2003, p. 488) argues that the country failed to sustain most of its essential services at that time. Schools, for instance, were closed indefinitely due to the heightened violence. The thugs with guns took over the legitimate power from government. Many schools in the country ceased their operations. The Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights, and Labour (2002, p. 1) noted that the already poor state of education worsened as a result. Infrastructure deteriorated and financial resources almost disappeared; the government was unable to pay teachers regularly.

2.7.3 Education as a peace building tool

Given the above experiences and scenarios, it is important to investigate the significant roles played by education in peace building and social reconstruction in a post-conflict society. I suppose, at the centre of conflict resolution and social reconstruction, is intellectual development and vocational preparation. This is perceived as a comprehensive humanitarian strategy for a post-conflict society that would minimize unemployment problems and provide young people who have been through the worst misfortune and even horrors, the tools to build a better life for themselves and a better future for their nations. UNESCO (1998, p. 4) puts it succinctly by saying that the basic principles of education for peace reflect its fundamental purpose, to construct the defences of peace in the minds of men and women. Education in this regard is the fundamental means for accomplishing the task. Therefore, restructuring the education system and reforming the school curriculum to accommodate needed programmes that would promote peacebuilding is a cornerstone of rebuilding efforts. This is because an intact and functioning education system complements other social and economic transformations. It rebuilds social relations and instigates a routine normalcy to post-conflict communities. Making references to Iraq, Athena (2010) explained that in post-conflict Iraq, education is regarded as a pathway for achieving peace. It contributes a lot in playing key roles in peace restoration and long-term development (Athena 2010, p. 101). Likewise, Townley (2002, p. 2) stated that schools can play a significant role in providing support mechanisms and offering courses in conflict resolution and

programme evaluation services to the community. Similarly in South Africa Ndura (2006, p. 6) explained in a situation that where conflict is based on ethnic differences, educational policy makers and practitioners had built on the findings to help educators become active agents for peaceful coexistence in their communities. Sinclair (2007) demonstrates that education provides better chance for a full healthy and safe secure place for children in conflict areas, in that it provide a sense of normality and restoring hope through access to the 'ladder' of education. It support psychological and healing from traumatic experiences through structured social activities in a safe place (Sinclair 2007, p.52). For example, Fiji's education programme is devoted to promoting peace and multiculturalism program in its education framework to ensure people live in equal harmony and respect for the rule of law. It should be a channel through which Fijians acquire knowledge and understand the issues of democracy, human rights and responsibilities, citizenship, and good governance (Citizens' Constitutional Forum 2010, p. 1).

2.7.4 Education as a tool for social reconstruction

Social reconstruction is a vital strategy to bring back confidence and trust to a community that has been marred by social unrest. "Social reconstruction tasks include rebuilding civil society; resettling displaced peoples; revitalizing the community; establishing awareness of and support for basic human rights; and creating social trust across the lines of conflict...transforming patterns of exclusion, inequality and

oppression that fuel tension and fighting” (Monteiro and Wessells 2007, p.3). In most conflict affected countries education plays a pivotal role in rebuilding effort. It:

creates the need to bridge work on healing and wider work on reconstruction for peace. The latter includes rebuilding social trust; facilitating the return of displaced people and building a sense of community; addressing issues of intolerance; nurturing respect for human rights; encouraging pro-social values and education for peace; supporting norms of nonviolence and law; rebuilding civil society; and enabling the social empowerment and mobilization needed to construct peace, among others. (Wessells 2007, p.2)

Education is a medium for peace and social reconstruction where peace education is embedded through curriculum design and programs. It addresses the knowledge, values, skills and behaviours needed to nurture a culture of peace (Kester 2010, p.1) The learning objective of the role of education in conflict resolution, peace building and social reconstruction is to transform conflict through dialogue and nonviolence. Philips et al. pointed out three forms of reconstruction that are significant to the aftermath of conflict. He refers to ‘physical’ reconstruction, as the rebuilding and repairing of schools, second, ‘ideological’ reconstruction, as he mentions the retraining of teachers and third, the ‘psychological’ reconstruction, which responds towards issues of demoralization, loss of confidence and health related issues of stress and depression (UNICEF 2011b, p.22).

Apparently education is a powerful tool that educates people to analyse and understand social problems. It provides the means to reconstruct the failing or fragile society. Thus, providing training to individuals can transform the society socially into a better shape. A well described study best suitable for this argument found in the case of Togo where according to Gbesso (2000) “the curriculum guidelines introduce moral and civic education into teaching subjects” (Gbesso 2000, p.21). The need to revise or reform the school curriculum or programme is important, thus to accommodate the need to address democracy education, peace building, conflict resolution and transformation and sustainable development education (Kester 2010, p1). In Chittagong Hill Tract (Bangladesh) “transformation of society in the context of multiculturalism is a challenging and complex task, requiring not only the transfer of knowledge and skills but also behaviour and actions of individuals. It remains to be seen to which extent societies can be actively constructed in general by policies and knowledge transfer where the majority of all inhabitants has no access to educational facilities” (Novakova 2010, p. 74). Strategy for AusAID Support to the Papua New Guinea Education Sector 2010 to 2015, which points out the principles of educational access and equality, has been recognised by the Papua New Guinea government and it has made provision in the areas, including retention of primary students, access and retention for girls at secondary, vocational and tertiary levels, basic education for out-of-school youth, isolated and mature-aged students, and services for students with disabilities (Department of Education PNG 2010, p. 23). Maebuta (2010) suggested that we ought to contextualize peace education within the peace concept *nowe*. In the Temotu province

(Solomon Islands) dialect, *nowe* connotes a calm sea or still crystal water and implies that the calmness of the heart embraces open-arm interaction in the community (Maebuta 2010, p. 2).

2.7.4.1 Education for reconciliation

Education is very important in the process for social reconstruction in post-conflict societies. Given what the society went through, their normal ways of life were disturbed and their social values and attitudes compromised. Reconciliation could foster progress in rebuilding a fragmented community haunted by ethnic conflict and violence. Smith (2005) contributed that this can be done within various levels and groups of the community. It can take place between individuals or between groups in conflict and between peoples or nations at war. There are suggestions for education in terms facilitating reconciliation by addressing the legacies of conflict. In this regard the author includes the impact on the bereaved and injured, remembrance and tribute; debates about forgiveness, expressions of regret, apology and symbolic events; understanding the role of amnesty, prisoner release, alongside concepts of restorative and transitional justice (Smith 2005, p. 385).

Education for reconciliation is a vital and necessary component of building sustainability in conflict affected and deeply divided society. Bakker (2005 in Smith) claim in Guatemala, primary secondary and tertiary education curricula had included in their

program the history of the conflict, including its causes, course and impact (Smith 2010, p.11). A similar arrangement was made by the Truth and Reconciliation Committee for Timor-Leste as Naidu (2011) reported; the truth and reconciliation commission has made recommendations to addressing the right to education, including collaboration between Government and the religious education system to develop curricula and teaching methodologies aimed at developing human rights education appropriate to Timor-Leste's traditions in promoting a culture of peace, non-violence and human rights. The school curriculum teaches history of the conflict and human rights education (2011, p.13). On the other hand Fiji Education Programme for peace was focused mainly on community based training. Many workshops were conducted by the CCF's education team in trying to educate people on the following issues of concern: human rights and responsibilities, responsible and active citizenship, and good governance principles. This education program was design to educate key people in the community on the significance of human rights and good governance so that they can teach others and influence their succeeding generations (Citizens' Constitutional Forum 2010, p.1). However, in Solomon Islands reconciliation was embedded within the school curriculum in that it promotes peace, unity in diversity, in harmony within a multi-ethnic and diverse community (MEHRD 2011, p.25). "Promote human rights, gender equality, the principle of non-violence and social justice. [In the center] peace, education assumes that diversity of culture (e.g., faith, gender, socio-economic, race, ethnicity, etc.) is a positive commodity that makes the world a richer and more exciting place. It is not to be feared" (Ashton 2005, p.iii).

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter attempts to show that education gives young people who have been through conflict situations the tools to build a better life for themselves and a better future for their nations. It is a medium for peace and social reconstruction where peace education is embedded through curriculum design and programs. It addresses the knowledge gaps, values, skills and behaviours needed to nurture a culture of peace and peaceful coexistence. The objective of the education curriculum in conflict resolution, peace building and social reconstruction is to transform conflict through dialogue and nonviolence. In Chapter 3, the thesis will focus on the research design and the methodological approaches taken to collect information and data used in the analysis in Chapters 4 and 5. .

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the design and methodology adopted for this research. It starts with a general discussion of the conceptual context of methodological approaches. Having done that, it discusses the sources of data and the research methods adopted in the present study, before presenting the sample, sampling size and sampling population chosen for this study, followed by the method of analysis used in this research. It concludes with discussion of justification of the study area, limitations of the study and ethical considerations governing the study.

3.2 Methodological Approaches

Amongst the social and natural sciences, two important philosophical research approaches persist. The first, which continues to be dominant in both sciences, is termed the 'Positivism Realism Approach'. Positivism advocates the application of traditional methods, used to study the natural world, to the study of the social world. Realism comes from the position that believes that there is an objective reality that is possible to know, which is separate from our understanding of it. It shares some common ground with positivism in that it also adopts the same approach for studying the natural and social worlds and is concerned with uncovering truths or rules about the social world.

These two positions relate back to an ontological position that argues an apprehendable reality is assumed to exist, driven by absolute natural laws and mechanisms and that by using the right scientific research method, the reality can be discovered. Here, the epistemological position is that the investigator and the investigated “object” are assumed to be independent entities and the investigator to be capable of studying the objective without influencing it or being influenced by it (Hesse-Biber and Leavy 2004, pp23-25). Put simply, interpreting and understanding the objective reality means the researcher is looking in from outside rather than inside. It also presupposes that there is a universal truth out there that can be understood using universal quantifiable scientific models. Some academics and scholars (Johnson et al. 2010, p. 2) call this quantitative research implying research that employs strategies of survey that ask pre-coded questions and assign numeric values to responses; such pre-coded answers can be analysed by the straight forward methods delineated in programs like SAS, SPSS, or STATA that yield statistical data. Exemplify in Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2004) it sets up hypothesis and tests them with repeatable and quantifiable experiments (2004, p.25).

On the other hand, there is the second research approach known as the ‘Constructivist Approach’ or ‘Constructivism’. In constructivism “[r]ealities are apprehendable in the form of multiple, intangible mental constructions, socially and experimentally based, local and specific in nature and dependent for their form and content on the individual person or groups holding the construction. Epistemologically, this research paradigm sees knowledge as created in interaction among investigator and respondent”(Hesse-

Biber and Leavy 2004, pp. 26-28). It assumes that knowledge is maximized when distance between the inquirer and the participants in the study is minimized. Furthermore, it holds that the voices and interpretation of those under study is key to understanding phenomena of interest, and subjective interactions are the primary way to access them. The findings from constructivist approach are the product of the interaction between the inquirer and the participants.

In this study, the researcher opted to investigate the impact of ethnic conflict and violence in the schools of Solomon Islands. The latter approach, constructivism, is adopted as the objectives are to document the perceptions, feelings and experiences of people living under the issues being studied. The nature of the topic warrants the application of a research methodology that captures qualitative data but also collects quantitative data to support it. In this regard, the researcher integrates ‘qualitative’ and ‘quantitative’ research approaches and uses ‘triangulation’ in the analysis of data. The term triangulation refers to the use of more than one approach to the investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings (Nwabude 2010, p. 3). This method helps the researcher to map out and explain more fully the richness and complexity of the data by studying it from more than one standpoint. Looking at the issues from different angles has provided the author with more reliable and valid data for analysis in this research project. Single method approach yields only limited and sometimes misleading data so the researcher chose to use triangulation in this research to give more confidence and credibility to the results.

3.3 Study Area

Figure 5 indicates the map of the actual area the study was carried out. Further discussion of the area will appear in the next section on the source of data. The selection of the study area, the schools on Guadalcanal, was influenced by a series of reports and publications as well as the researcher's personal experiences of living and teaching on the area. First was the decrease in the enrolment rate for 2009 where 83.3% cohorts at age between 6 to 12yrs and 16.1% at age between 12 and older were not attending schools (MEHRD 2011, p. 2). Secondly the behaviour and attitude of the children and youths has changed significantly in the aftermath (Burnett and Dorovolomo 2007 p. 49). And, thirdly a report on has been made noting a shift of youths' interests from classroom [learning] to participating in criminal activities (Wainwright 2003, p. 488).

The findings of these different reports and the experience of the researcher working and living on Guadalcanal have influenced the selection of this study area. Most of the studies have covered either adequately or inadequately the subjects of this study. In many instances, there seemed to be an exaggeration in the figures, statistics and findings presented for the study area by these various reports. This was why the study area was again selected for purposes of verification as well as correcting misrepresentative information about the issues concerning this study. The selection of the study sites is justified in section 3.6



Figure 5 Map of the three regions and schools on Guadalcanal (Source; Guadalcanal map retrieved online 14th October 2012)

3.4 Sources of Data

For this thesis, two types of data were used to obtain the relevant information. One is primary data obtained through school surveys, focus group discussions and informal discussions. This type of research was carried out in Avuavu Provincial Secondary School (PSS) in the Weather Coast of Guadalcanal, St. Josephs National Secondary School (NSS) east of Honiara, Marara Community High School (CHS), Tamboko CHS and Visale CHS, west Guadalcanal. The school survey requires a lot of preparation thus necessitating the preparation of questionnaires. Two sets of questionnaires (see appendix

5) were prepared for the two sets of surveys undertaken in the study area. The first set of survey questionnaires targeted teachers, parents, school boards and students. The second set of questions was developed to collect information from relevant government officials such as the chief education officer and the principal education officer Guadalcanal Province, and Curriculum officers of the ministry of education.

The second source of data used is secondary sources. Secondary data was sourced from both government departments and agencies dealing with education and curriculum development. In particular, the various reports by Education Planning (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development), the provincial secondary school library and the curriculum development unit, SICHE Panatina campus. Government Policy Documents were also consulted. Other school documents such as such as textbooks, teachers' guides, teachers' workbooks, prescriptions, school syllabus, teaching aids, schools vision and mission statements, school calendar of events, activities, and duty statements. Policy statements were also evaluated. The research uses data in the documents that are relevant to the research question, a technique substantiated by Bouma (2005) "one of the common data-gathering techniques is to measure variables by using the information kept in records or official reports of organizations, government agencies or person" (2005, p. 77). These secondary sources of information played a pivotal part in assisting the principal researcher to further understand the historical, social, political, economic and environmental and cultural context upon which the study should be developed. It deals with the issues covering the subject of this thesis – conflict

models and theory, impacts of conflict, the role of education in conflict resolution and peace building strategy

3.5 Triangulation

As noted earlier, although some quantitative presentation is made, the overall research framework was conducted under the qualitative approach. The presentation of data in the forms of tables and graphs only facilitates proper analysis of data. Combining both qualitative and quantitative analysis is considered the strength for this study. A single method approach yields only limited and, sometimes misleading data. The researcher can gain the advantages of each method used while also reducing the limitation of a single method. For example, combining qualitative and quantitative methods can give overall findings that are statistically rigorous or precise and rich in the contextualised meanings the respondents ascribe to the research topic (Walter 2006, p.11). Findings from different methods and analysis techniques are useful to allow the researcher to be more confident of the results. Combining both methods of data analysis allows triangulation. The regression results show the association between lawlessness in post-conflict society and the role of education. Quantitative data is used to support qualitative analysis.

For this research, the author uses both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis. The researcher uses figures and data sourced from the Ministry of Education

and Human Resources Development and the Statistics Office in Honiara to present data in the form of tables and graphs. There is also corroboration with published materials and articles obtained from online sources and public library together with information collected from interviews and group discussions to ensure the richness of analysis of the issue.

3.6 Sampling

Sampling is an important feature of social science research. “The manner in which the sample is drawn determines to what extent we can generalize from the finding” (Bouma, 2004, p. 113). The sample study represents a larger population, assumed to give reliable information about the population. Sampling methods such as random samplings are relatively uncommon in qualitative research. Most qualitative data collection methods are time consuming and expensive. Given this constraint, an alternative approach used in qualitative research is purposive sampling. The author believes in using his own judgment to select the best people or group he wants to study. In this case, typical rural schools that are affected by the ethnic conflict and violence are selected and studied and the result generalised to all schools in the Solomon Islands. The prime objective is to gain a deeper insight into issues of ethnic conflict and violence and the role of education in peace building from groups of people in five selected schools of Guadalcanal and near Honiara City who experienced the impact of ethnic conflict and violence.

For this research, the researcher adopted purposive sampling since the prime objective is to gain deeper insights into issues of ethnic conflict and violence from groups of people in the school community and its surroundings. These are people who lived under the circumstances relevant to the social phenomenon being studied.

3.6.1 Population, Sample and Sample Size

Sample design of the survey captured the region of the weather coast on south Guadalcanal, the area on the coast of west Guadalcanal and the area on central Guadalcanal. As noted above the purpose is to gain a deeper insight into issues surrounding the impact of ethnic conflict and violence from groups of people that are experiencing the effect of ethnic violence. In total, five schools were surveyed. Typically, 6 teachers and 1 principal in each of the secondary schools were selected and 6 were selected from students, board members, parents or individuals, meaning twelve (12) respondents from each school (but one principal was not available). Thus, a total of 64 responded from the 5 schools. Four Officers from the Guadalcanal Education Authority three of them males and one female, and two officers of the Curriculum Development Unit. A total of seventy (70) people were interviewed. Ten (10) were provided with the structured questionnaire while sixty (60) were interviewed using unstructured or semi-structure questions.

3.7 Data Collection Methods and Processes

Questionnaires, face to face interviews, focus group discussions, and key informants were used to derive primary data. The following sub-sections provide brief accounts of each of the methods used to generate primary data.

3.7.1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire for this study was a structured questionnaire designed after a thorough review of relevant literature on the study area was undertaken. For structured questionnaires, the principal researcher was present when the respondents answered the questions. This ensured that doubts, queries, or ambiguity in the questionnaires were clarified and to enable the researcher to have control over the study variable. The structured questionnaire was designed to accommodate the issues on the impact of ethnic conflict and violence and the role of education in peace building. The first section of the questionnaire was to collect background information of respondents. The second part of the questionnaire asked questions about the impact of conflict in the schools of Solomon Islands. The third part of the questionnaire focused on the role of education in conflict resolution¹. These questions are important to ascertain what was going on as well as how the people in the study were affected by conflict and violence in Solomon

¹ Refer to questionnaire in the appendix 5 for the types of questions under each section of the questionnaire

Islands. These questions were asked in order to understand the issues as well as how people in the study areas were affected by the ethnic conflict and violence. Issues that are not covered in the structured questionnaire are catered for in the semi-structured interviews and informal discussions.

The second set of structured questions was designed for the ministries, departments and government agencies dealing with education policy and planning. The structured questionnaire was administered to the following people: i). Officer of the Guadalcanal Education Authority, Chief Education Officer and the Principal Education Officer Guadalcanal Province Non-formal and Secondary Division, in order to understand the issues related to the number of teachers and students affected during and after the conflict; ii) Staff of the National Curriculum Development Centre, in order to understand the current status of the curriculum the country has used since independence and iii) the School Principals of each school to gauge their views on the impact of ethnic conflict and violence and to determine the pressures encountered by school administrators during and after the crisis. The principal researcher administered the questionnaire.

All structured questionnaires were distributed in advance, which allowed respondents ample time to contemplate the issues. For these ministry and agency officials and school Principals, the questions asked were open-ended questions to get in-depth understanding

of institutional responses, planning and management methods employed in addressing conflict in the Solomon Islands ²

3.7. 2. Interview

Another method used to minimize the weakness of data collected through structured interview was the use of individual interviews. Interviews enable the author to delve deep into a situation in a way that questionnaires are often unable to do. The other interviews conducted for this study consisted of semi-structured questions. As Mikkelsen (1995) said, in a semi-structured interview, only some of the questions are predetermined. This allows for more interactive and conversational approach and scope for changes, if needed. It also allows for re-structuring the questions as well as adding new questions during the interview. The use of semi- or unstructured interview is more flexible and can be compared to conversations in style. The interviews aim to elicit rich, detailed materials that can be used in qualitative analysis. This approach allows for a more interactive and conversational approach. It also allows time for re-structuring of questions, change or addition of new ones during the interview.

Semi-structured interview is relevant for this research because it allows for the respondents to freely express themselves, their feelings, impressions and opinions in such a way that may not be possible in a structured interview. Besides, it provides

² For government ministries, curriculum departments etc, see appendix for questionnaire.

greater in-depth assessment of the issues uncovered by this study. During the course of the research, the author interviewed individuals such as teachers, students, school board member and parents from the following five schools: Avuavu, Visale, Tamboko, Tanahai and St. Josephs NSS. In this regard, the principal researcher, as much as possible interviewed teachers and parents/individual respondents from different professional backgrounds to bring into focus their side of the story. In doing so information was verified using what the other individual said. For instance the claims of the teacher will be verified against what the school board members or individual and the students said. In this case, the researcher gauges opinions from individuals that are affected by conflict and violence in Solomon Islands. Using own judgment, the author selects from individuals that are affected by conflict and violence in the Solomon Islands. All interviews conducted in this nature were recorded for purposes of final analysis.

Interviews were carried out at two levels: the school level, including teachers, students and the school board members, and the community level including parents or individuals of the five schools used in this study. The interviewing of the school staff and students was geared towards the general discussion on the impact of the ethnic conflict and violence on school resources and stationery. These interviews enabled the author to develop an understanding of the effect of the ethnic violence on schools. The aim was to obtain the views of the teachers and students on their experience during the post-conflict period and the challenge to teachers in the aftermath of the ethnic conflict and violence.

Questions aimed at identifying student attitudes and behaviours towards study and the available school resources and material used in the aftermath of the ethnic conflict and violence and the justification of education role in peace building and social reconstruction. School infrastructure and materials and student behavior were the focus of interview at the school level.

At the community level, the author carried out interviews in the communities within the five schools identified above. The author looked at individual experience of the ethnic conflict and violence. The author specifically looks at the personal impact of the ethnic conflict and violence during the post-conflict period, material loss and social problems emanating from the impact of the ethnic conflict and violence. The aim was to identify the impact of the ethnic conflict on schools and its diverse effects on the community.

All interviewees were informed of the nature of the research and verbal agreements were sought from them before the interviews. A list of topics and questions was used to guide the interview schedule. As much as possible the researcher encouraged the respondents to open up and express themselves freely. Some interviews were conducted in the 'pidgin' language and some in the indigenous (local) language, depending on the participant's choice of language. The author conducted all the interviews to avoid confusions. The interviews were documented using an audio recorder and field notes.

3.7. 3. Focus Group Discussions

Focus group discussions are used increasingly as a way of learning about public opinion on a variety of issues (Bouma 2004, p. 180). This method was particularly important for this study in order to capture the variety of opinions and views from the students and communities that are affected by conflict and violence. It encouraged participants to exchange their views and feelings and react to what other participants say. Not everyone has the same views and experiences, thus, many different views were obtained through this method. Focus group discussions were used to understand people's perceptions and feelings towards ethnic conflict and violence. A list of questions was used to guide the group discussion sessions.

For the focus groups, a combination of in-depth interviews and unstructured questions were used to strengthen, verify and validate information collected. In this study the researcher selected a group of six people (females and males) to discuss issues raised by the researcher. The researcher acts as a facilitator, ensuring that the discussions are on track and revolve around the subject of the study. The discussions were recorded and some of it is used as direct quotes in case studies. A combination of in-depth group interviews and direct observation were used to strengthen the authenticity of information collected. In the group interviews, the principal researcher selected a group of six students (females and males) who met and discussed issues raised by the study. Transcription of the conversation is done in pidgin or local language by the author who

knows both of the languages and translates to English. Rich data on the impact of conflict was gathered from varieties of ideas raised by participants. Namey and co-authors acknowledged that through focus group discussion, rich data will emerge from the group dynamic and from the diversity of the group (Namey et al. 2005, p. 52). Here the principal researcher was also the facilitator ensuring that the discussion stayed on track.

3.7. 4. Key Informants

A key informant interview refers to getting information from an individual who is considered to be particularly knowledgeable about the topic of interest. Key informants for this study were drawn from the various agencies and departments within government. These are individuals expected to have “expert” knowledge on issues covered in this study. This provided a much deeper and fuller understanding on the role of education in peace building and social reconstruction. A total of ten key informants were interviewed with structured questions. It was unfortunate that only nine of the key informant were available during the research. The Officers of the Education Division and Policy Advisors were not available at that time, it was anticipated to obtain from them information regarding issues on policy and administration. The nine informants include the Officer of the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) and head of the Social Science Curriculum Unit, whose span of experience in curriculum development proved an invaluable part of this study. The Principal Education Officer Secondary and the

Principal Education Officer Non-formal from the Guadalcanal Education Division were helpful for the challenges encountered by schools in the province and the school principals from the five selected schools for the challenges encountered in school in the post-conflict era. The Chief Education Officer (Ag), of the Guadalcanal Provincial Authority provided in-depth knowledge and understanding on the impact of conflict and violence on schools in the provinces of great value. Lastly, The School Principals, of the five secondary schools their area of experience is broad especially to understand the relationship between school, the community, the authority and the national government, and how they contribute towards peace building and social reconstruction.

3.7. 5. Secondary Data

Secondary data for the study were obtained through archival research and documentary analysis. Secondary data are very important source of information, both as data and in the preparation for this field study. Moreover, it is a way of fitting the research findings with existing body of knowledge about conflict and the role of education in peace building and social reconstruction. This study emanated from issues raised in various government and international reports on conflict in Solomon Islands and the role of education in peace building and social reconstruction. Secondary data is retrieved from both government departments and agencies dealing with education and curriculum development, in particular, the various reports by Education Planning (Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development), National Parliament Library and the

Solomon Island National Archives, and government policy documents. Other school documents such as textbooks, teacher's guides, teacher's workbooks, prescriptions, school syllabus, teaching aids, schools' vision and mission statements, school calendar of events, activities, and duty statements were also obtained from respective schools. The research engages with relevant data in the documents that are relevant to the research question. Bouma explained that "one of the common data-gathering techniques is to measure variables by using the information kept in records or official reports of organizations, government agencies or person (2005, p. 77). For this research, these secondary sources of information assisted in understanding the historical, social, political, economic, environmental and cultural context upon which the study is undertaken.

3.8 Research Analysis

After data collection, the next critical step is data analysis. As highlighted above, a variety of data collection methods was utilized for this study. Given this variance, the principal researcher utilized an array of data analysis techniques. Data from secondary sources like literature was analysed using a content analysis technique. Main themes, trends, patterns and ideas are extracted on the issues of concern in this study. For all interviews, the researcher employs 'thematic' analysis. Thematic analysis is important especially for data collection from interview. Transcription of data is carrying out in order to identify main themes or ideas that the researcher seeks to find. After

transcription the researcher arranged the themes categorically and produces live stories from the respondents with main themes that are identified. Bouma (2005) stresses that as in content research, qualitative researchers look through interviews, textual data and observation data for recurring ‘themes’ or issues. Themes are identified and organized in a system of categories, a practice called ‘coding’ (2005, p. 181).

For the survey questionnaire, a coding booklet was used to assist in the analysis. The questions in the questionnaire were pre-coded and later tabulated. Tabulation is significant in order to draw out the main themes according to individual questions from the interview. Tables produced from the code booklet should draw out statistical representation of variables that the questionnaire attempted to generate. This is later converts into tables and graphs using Microsoft Excel Program to ensure easy summarization of data. The adoption of Microsoft Excel Program is important in order to identify variables that might affect the social norms and values of the Solomon Islands society.

As highlighted earlier, although some quantitative presentation is made, the overall research framework was conducted under a qualitative approach. The presentation of data in the forms of tables and graphs only facilitates proper analysis of data. Combining both quantitative and qualitative data analysis should be considered as the strength of this study, a single method approach yields only limited and sometimes misleading data

so the researcher chose triangulation. Findings from different methods and analysis techniques have been used to answer the research questions.

3.9 Limitations of the study

The limited time and inadequate funding are the major limiting factors in this study. There was not sufficient funding provided by the research institute to allow effective and efficient coverage of the area under study. The researcher had to find other sources of funds from friends and relatives in order to cover the cost of travelling and accommodation.

Timing and scheduling of the project may also affect the successfulness of the thesis write up. The researcher found it very difficult to get into the field quickly since a research permit was not quickly considered by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (MEHRD) to allow an effective and timely schedule to carry out field work in the country. It was not possible in time, which had affected the original time schedule for the project to take effect.

Accessing primary data from key informants was also difficult, taking into consideration their movement on special duty or weekly training or workshops overseas. Some of them are really hard to find. It is more difficult when trying to make an appointment. “Come back tomorrow” was the saying at all offices. Subsequently it was also quite

difficult access to the ministerial data source as it was highly guarded and required appointments. Even with approved appointments, the people needed were not available in their offices.

The sampled population and size chosen for this study as well as the sampling method being a purposive sample, is not representative of any larger population. Therefore, the findings are valid only for the sample. Since the study is qualitative research, only some variables, particularly in the structured questionnaire, were controlled. It is possible that other variables that are not in the questionnaire are more likely to introduce biases in the sample. The presence of the researcher during data collection may have affected the subjects' responses. The researcher may easily influence or bias the data unintentionally. Having stated that, it must be admitted here that because indigenous language and 'pidgin' had to be translated into English during data analysis, there was some chance of biasness based on the author's understanding of 'pidgin' language. However, due care was taken in minimizing the risk of distortion of information while translating and analyzing data from indigenous and pidgin languages. In order to maximize the data validity, the researcher also consulted others well versed in the indigenous and pidgin languages and English translations. Furthermore, the unavailability of required data from the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development in Honiara city put a limitation for an in-depth study. The author had to search from other organizations such as the World Bank, UNDP and UNICEF data sources in order to get the data needed for the study.

3.10 Ethical considerations

For a researcher who engages in data collection through interviews or questionnaire, ethics is always a consideration. Anonymity and confidentiality are highly considered. Responses to both interviews and questionnaires depend to a large extent on how well the researcher is able to guarantee anonymity and confidentiality. As Bouma pointed out, “[t]he ethical principles basically require that participants in the research must be able to give informed consent to being part of the research, the identity of informants must be protected. [The] researcher must not coerce participants into participating or divulging information” (Bouma 2004, p. 188). Because of this, the researcher ensured that only those who understood the purpose of the study and agreed to be interviewed were engaged in the research process.

For this study, the interviews consisted of teachers, students, school board and parents and individuals in the community within or around the school vicinity. Participants involved in this study were assured about confidentiality to allow them to engage openly in discussing issues pertinent to this study. The interviewees and participants were assured that information collected would be used solely for the purpose of this study.

3.11 Conclusion

This chapter attempts to provide background knowledge on key aspects of research and the methodological approaches used in the study. It indicates the types of data collected; methods used, and justify the adoption of these methods. Sources of data for the study are also presented to help the reader understand the method of analysis that was employed in this thesis. The chapter also provides the readers with a thorough knowledge on how the research was administered in the field and highlighted the potential limitations. Finally, the chapter highlighted the ethical issues and concerns that researcher adhered to when collecting information and generating data for this study. Having outlined the research design, let us now turn to chapter 4 on the findings and analysis

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND ANALYSIS: CONFLICT EXPERIENCE

4.1 Introduction and Overview

The results of the interviews, focus group discussions and open-ended questionnaire are discussed and analysed in this and the next chapter. Chapter 4 presents the results on the impact of ethnic conflict and violence on Guadalcanal, especially in schools and in communities. The findings of the study are presented to answer the following questions.

1) What are the impacts of the ethnic conflict and violence in the Solomon Islands? 2) How do educators characterize their experiences with ethnic conflict and violence? The respondents were asked to deliberate on their experiences of ethnic conflict (commonly referred to as the ‘tensions’) and violence broadly incorporating social, psychological and physical intimidation. Violent behaviour includes insolence, intimidation, bullying, physical fighting (including with knives and guns), and aggressive outbursts. The chapter will firstly outline the impact of ethnic conflict and violence on schools and communities in the Solomon Islands. Second, it will describe and discusses experience encountered by educators in the aftermath of the ethnic conflict and violence. Third, it highlights community participation in the aftermath of the ethnic conflict and violence. Finally, the chapter closes with an attempt to summarise the overall findings from these interviews and questionnaires.

Respondents are represented by codes and the descriptions of data has been developed using the simple coding shown in table below. To protect the anonymity and confidentiality, of the interviewees' their names have been replaced with the codes shown.

Table 2: Code representing respondent

INTERVIEW	CODE
Curriculum Officer	CO1&2
Principal Education Officer Secondary (GP)	PEOS-GP
Principal Education Officer Primary (GP)	PEOP-GP
Principal Education Officer None-formal (GP)	PEONF-GP
Registry Clerk (GP)	RC-GP
High School Principal Avuavu PSS	HSPAPSS 1
High School Principal Marara CHS	HSPMCHS 1
High School Principa Tamboko CHS	HSPTCHS 1
High School Head Master Visale CHS	HSHMVCHS 1
High School Teacher Avuavu PSS	HST APSS 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 & 6
High School Teacher Marara CHS	HSTMCHS 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 & 6
High School Teacher St' Josephs NSS	HSTSJNSS 1,2 3 4, 5 & 6
High School Teacher Tamboko CHS	HSTTCHS 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 & 6
High School Teacher Visale CHS	HSTVCHS 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 & 6
High School Student Avuavu PSS	HSSAPSS 1, 2 & 3
High School Student Marara CHS	HSSMCHS 1, 2, &3
High School Student St' Josephs NSS	HSSSNSS 1, 2 & 3
High School Student Tamboko CHS	HSSTCHS 1, 2 & 3
High School Student Visale CHS	HSSVCHS 1, 2 & 3
School Board Members Avuavu PSS	SBMAPSS1
School Board Members Marara CHS	SBMMCHS1
School Board Member St' Josephs NSS	SBMSJNSS1
School Board Member Tamboko CHS	SBMTCHS 1
School Board Member Visale CHS	SBMVCHS 1
Parents/Individual Southern Guadalcanal Region	P/ISGR 1, 2, 3 & 4
Parents/Individual of Western Guadalcanal Region	P/IWGR 1, 2, & 3
Parents/Individual East Guadalcanal Region	P/IEGR 1, 2 & 3

4. 2. The impact of ethnic conflict

The 1998-2003 tensions in Solomon Islands had ripped the country apart and inflicted deep wounds in the hearts and minds of many Solomon Islanders. People living outside or in less affected conflict areas witnessed or experienced little impact in comparison to those living within the conflict areas. It has been ten years since the overt fighting stopped but people are still struggling to get over the horrifying memories. Many doubted the country's ability to be stable as they attribute the state of the country to the efforts of the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI). "There is mistrust amongst many Solomon Islanders that if RAMSI leaves whatever happens before will definitely [had] a huge chance to return" (The Solomon Star Newspaper 24 April 2012, p.3).

Teachers, parents and individuals who lived through the conflict and violence in Solomon Islands were much more direct and personal in their responses. Many of the respondents were exposed to violence and some talked about having witnessed intimidation and shootings during the height of the tensions. Consequently, the social consequences are enormous and cannot be easily calculated. There are also psychological and sociological impacts of the tensions that continue to haunt many people. Most conflict victims were left homeless, jobless, destitute, injured or dead, or experienced some form of abduction, threat or physical violence. The immediate and fundamental consequence of the conflict on Guadalcanal was felt mostly at personal and

family levels. During the period of unrest, there was no security. As a result, many people were intimidated and killed while others sustained physical injuries and were traumatized. The absence of security interfered with people's usual way of life. Teachers, parents and individuals expressed their experiences of the conflict as very much an inhuman act.

4. 2.1. Personal impact of the conflict and violence

According to the British Broadcasting Corporation, at least 200 people were killed and 20,000 displaced at the height of the tension from 1997 to 2003 on the island of Guadalcanal (BBC, 21 June 2003, p.2). Many were kidnapped and tortured while some girls and women were allegedly raped. The Global IDP Report gave a higher figure of victims. It stated that “[c]lose to 40,000 people from Guadalcanal rural areas and from the capital Honiara were either temporarily or permanently displaced. For Malaita Province alone the total number of returned settlers during June/July 1999 was estimated to over 20,000 people or about 4,000 families” (Global IDP 2002, p. 22).

One shocking account revealed by a teacher in his own words was that “during the height of the crisis some militants from a nearby village came to our school and raped one female student. They raped her and took her away the whole night. In the morning they returned her. Luckily she was not killed” (HSTAPSS1 interviewed 11 September 2011). Some other interviewees described attacks on themselves and family members in

their homes. Such attacks had the effect of transforming their homes from havens of safety and security to an insecure site of potential violence. One respondent relayed this personal story:

It was sudden, we didn't expect such things to happen, they walked into our village with fire arms and shoot aimlessly. We were already in our hide outs. They forced us out from our homes and villages to live in the jungle. (P/IWGR2 interviewed 2 October 2011)

Thousands of families lost personal and household possessions as their houses, farms, shops and other business premises went down in flames. One such victim told me his experiences, pointing to the area of his old house: "it's really a bad experience you look at that remains, it was my old house before the conflict, and I lost all my essential belongings there, we do not have time to move them to safe ground". (SBMMCHS1, interviewed 5 October, 2011).

Others also convey similar experiences. In Marasa on the Weather Coast of Guadalcanal, civilians were held hostage for three days. All their homes and houses were burnt to the ground except the chapel. They lost all their belongings and properties. One of the victims stated that "there is nothing much we could do. That was the moment when we all experienced torture and the horror of war. As we found nothing left, we sat down and cried what else could we have done? All was gone" (P/IWGR1, interviewed 2 October 2011)

The accounts one person gave of the killing of two civilians conveyed their sense of danger, insecurity and injustice. One parent described seeing his nephews tortured and slaughtered:

they took us to the beach...they tortured Smith and Lovana, forcing them to dance, pushing twelve thousand dollars each into their mouths telling them to swallow the money...they separated the boys to one side, women to another side, girls to one side and men to another side. .We sat down and watched as if we were watching a show. They tortured the two boys mothers broke down in tears as they watched their sons tortured in front of them. Smith was the first to die since he was very young. They threw huge timbers at him till he was dead. They continued with Lovana until sun set. Blood was all over him, was told to dance sing and do all sorts of things until sun set. They made him to lie down on top of a rock. They picked one huge rock and threw it right to his chest. At sunset, Lovana was chopped into half and he die (P/IWGR2, interviewed 2 October 2011).

In certain communities on Guadalcanal, the level of violence in the community meant that some individuals had repeated experiences of witnessing killings. One of the most shocking accounts was given by a young man. He gave me this account:

A Malaitan male student was accused of joining the Eagle force before attending a Guadalcanal School. He was led by the Guadalcanal militant and was stripped naked in front of all of us. They forced him to remove his clothes and to walk right into the school compound. They led him to the dorm. At the dorm they instructed him to show his weapon (gun), claiming he was in possession of one. They beat him up and strike him at the hind with guns handle. He was already defaced when I saw him. His eyes were no longer that person I knew. (P/IWGR 2, interviewed 2 October 2011)

A similar case was also described by another parent who told me that the militants “took a young lad from another village, at day break when they arrived at our village his face was already flattened they accused him for being a member of the Isatabu Freedom Movement (IFM). The young man was tortured and put to death” (P/IWGR 2, interviewed 2 October 2011). There were wide variations in the personal experiences described by interviewees depending on where the interviewees lived during at the height of the tensions. Some individuals interviewed lived in the most affected areas while others lived in less affected areas. It was those interviewees who lived on most affected communities that described the intensity of the conflict and violence. A number of interviewees described differences in the experience they faced during conflict as one victim revealed:

...they accused me of being a spy, I told them that I was escaping from the Malaitans in the city... they said that I am a liar and that I was an informant for the MEF group. They forced me to tell the truth, but I don't know what truth they were looking for. I was already telling them truth. they butted me with guns and held me captive. They said that I still kept the truth to myself. They fed me uncooked wild taro to make me reveal the truth. I decided that I may have to admit that I was a spy in order to convince them. Instead of me telling the truth, I told them lie by saying that I was a spy sent by Malaitans to determine how many guns you have. It was a total lie and they believed in me because this was what they were assuming I was doing. They took me and locked me in a cave. In the night a close relative came from behind the cave when nobody was there, open the cave and lead me across the island to Honiara. (P/IWGR3 interviewed 2 October 2011)

On Guadalcanal, militants basically took advantage of the law and order problem to exploit others for economic survival. They walked from village to village demanding money from individuals and families. One respondent revealed that “militants came every day to ask for money saying that they needed money for the ‘operations’³. Today one group will come and ask, the next day another group and so on. If we do not give them money, they will kill us” (P/IEGR1 interviewed 10 October 2011).

³ The word ‘operation’ refers to the militant activities on Guadalcanal

In school communities like those in the most affected area, teachers were threatened to call off schools. One of such shocking accounts was given by one board member:

...the Principal was at gun point as I watched the militants came running in total possession. They shouted 'don't move'! Someone asked, 'where is the school principal? The Principal replied nervously and the militants' commander demanded the removal of all Malaitan students from the school before daybreak. (SBMAPSS1 interviewed 13 September 2011)

One teacher described the experiences of being confronted, which confirm the real risk associated with continuing classes and opening schools at the height of the tensions:

...the Guadalcanal militants demanded the removal of all Malaitan teachers and students from the school, they promised to kill them if they hesitate to leave. It was twelve (12) midnight when the incident happened. We will shoot all Malaitan teachers and students, We will march them in rows and shoot at them one by one, the militants ordered. The whole school was convened in the dining room and thought of ways to save the lives of teachers and students. The school instructed me to carry out the negotiations. I was scared then but someone had to do something to save the Malaitan teachers and students. I walked to the militants and asked if they could refrain from such unlawful and inhumane activities. They insisted and instructed me to organise the Malaitan teachers and student in rows for slaughtering or if not send them

off right away. I told them it is not a good idea to slay people and it is also not safe for them to leave at night fearing that other militants may rape or torture them on the way. The militants told me that I was being too smart and that I talked too much, you should only follow orders no negotiating or otherwise we'll kill you, they warned me. I tried every effort to broker some compromise but was unsuccessful. I tried three times and in the end they accepted our request and the teachers and students left in the morning of the next day. (P/IWGR2, interviewed 2 October 2011)

The empirical findings in this section have indicated that the personal impact of the ethnic conflict and violence on Guadalcanal Solomon Islands had severely affected individual lives. It was revealed that many people lost their lives during the height of the crisis while some experienced intimidation, physical injury and were traumatized.

4.2.2 Loss of paid employment

The conflict and associated violence created job insecurity for the people of Solomon Islands. Most people gave up job employment as the crisis heightened. One respondent confided: "I was a victim of the crisis. I escaped Honiara to the village for my safety. The company suspended me for being absent from duty" (P/IEGR2, interviewed 11 October 2011). Suspension of wage and salary payments disrupted people's livelihoods.

Many informants expressed that they could not afford to meet the cost of their children's school fees since they did not know how they could raise money at that time. For instance, the Solbrew Limited used to have 118 employees but this had now decreased to 23 after the 2000 June coup. Similarly, the Solomon Taiyo Limited with 2000 employees reduced to 195. The Ross Mining Company used to employ more than 400 labourers but had definitely laid-off and some entrepreneurs have closed down their operations completely.

The closure of SIPL and Solomon Taiyo alone has caused a job loss for about 3,700 or more people (about 11 per cent of employees in the formal sector). Besides, 550 government officers were laid off in 1999, additional to 1000 (including 142 teachers) who have now given leave without pay. The total number of unemployed due to the tension (including those who are on leave without pay) is estimated to have reached 8,000. Many families have now lost their income from formal and non-formal employment (Kudu 2001, p.6).

It is echoed by most informants that the situation affected not only Malaitans on Guadalcanal. It affected the whole country. Some teachers from other provinces teaching on Guadalcanal and Honiara, including Malaitans and Guadalcanal, were forced by either Guadalcanal militants or Malaita Eagle force to leave and not to return to their schools. Many expressed that it was a horrible experience they went through. *'Taem iu lukim oloketa kam wetem gun and pointim lo iu en talem iu mas livim peles, iu bae panik*

nao...wat taem nao bae oloketa bae kilim iu' (When they came with their guns instructing you to leave the place, you would be nervous and scared knowing that they may kill you anytime) (P/IEGR2 interviewed 11 October 2011). Most teachers, teaching on Guadalcanal and Honiara, returned to their home provinces as the crisis heightened for security reasons. Table 3 shows numbers of teaching Staff at Secondary Schools, in Honiara at the beginning of the term and by the end of August 2000

Table 3: Teaching Staff in Honiara at the beginning of the term and by end of August 2000

Secondary Schools	Beginning		End of August		%	
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female
King George VI	32	9	20	8	62.5	88.9
Honiara Secondary	26	8	22	7	84.6	87.5
St Nicholas	18	7	14	5	77.8	71.4
Selwyn College	na	na	na	na	na	na
Bishop Epalle	19	8	15	6	78.9	75.0
Tenaru	na	na	na	na	na	na
Florence Young	12	4	10	2	83.3	50.0
Burns Creek	10	4	8	4	80.0	100.0
Vancouver	14	6	11	4	78.6	66.7
Vura	9	4	9	4	100.0	100.0
Naha	8	3	7	3	87.5	100.0
Mbua Valley	6	3	na	na	-	-
Koloale	12	4	na	na	-	-
Tuvaruhu	na	na	na	na	na	na
Mbokonavera	na	na	na	na	na	na
Mbokona	na	na	na	na	na	na
St John	13	5	9	4	69.2	80.0
White River	13	5	na	na	-	-
International Woodford	2	1	1	0	50.0	0.0
Zion Academy	2	2	2	2	100.0	100.0
Total	196	73	128	49	65.3	67.1

Source: Kudu, 2001, p.25

According to the table, a total of 196 teachers were teaching in Honiara at the beginning of 2000, 73 of them females. At the end of August 2000, the number of teaching staff

was reduced to 128 and only 49 females remained. Looking at individual schools from the top list, King George VI School had at the beginning of 2000 recruited 32 teaching staff. Nine of them are female. At the end of August 2000, the number went down to 20, and only 8 of them were female staff. For St John School there were 13 teachers in total at the beginning of 2000, including 5 female. At the end of August 2000 only 9 teachers remained, 4 were female. Data for the 8 schools were not available because these schools were closed at the time of the survey.

4.2.3 Denial of education services

The violence on Guadalcanal was blamed for disrupting the delivery of educational services to students on Guadalcanal and Honiara. Educational services ceased as the crises brewed to its height. Equitable access to educational institutions and opportunities and equitable distribution of resources within the system itself was problematic. Most respondents revealed that their children were unable to attend classes during the height of the unrest. Most schools on Guadalcanal were affected either because teachers escaped for the fear of their lives or schools were burned or damaged. Even schools located in the less affected and remote areas experienced negative impacts of the crisis. One parent lamented, that “as the crisis heightened, schools on Guadalcanal ceased operation and our children receive no education. It was sad to see them not attending classes for almost three years and we did not know exactly what to do to help our children with their education” (P/IWGR2 interviewed 2 October 2011). The situation

was even worse in the most affected schools on Guadalcanal and Honiara. (Described in Kudu 2001) “...settlers of Malaita origin at East and West sides of Honiara were harassed and in some cases intimidated at gunpoint to leave the area. Incidents of harassment took place at boarding schools as well, forcing many students to leave (2001, p.3). Table 4 shows private schools on Guadalcanal and Honiara during the crisis. Two major schools in the country, one located on West Guadalcanal (Selwyn College NSS) and one at East Guadalcanal (St Joseph’s NSS Tenaru) had definitely closed their doors during the height of the crisis. A massively skewed distribution of educational resources among other resources in Solomon Islands prior to the conflict perpetuated elitism and exclusion from larger society through differential access to and quality of educational opportunities to different groups.

Table 4: Churches & Private Secondary Schools Enrolment at the beginning of year & end of August 2000

School	Beginning of Year	End of August	%
Bishop Epalle	396	282	71.2
Female	198	139	70.2
St Nicholas	383	369	96.3
Female	187	175	93.6
Florence Young	313	313	100.0
Female	134	134	100.0
Betikama	443	293	66.1
Female	196	122	62.2
Burns Creek	193	129	66.8
Female	88	48	54.5
Woodford International	26	6	23.1
Female	14	2	14.3
Zion Academy	18	4	22.2
Female	14	4	28.6
Selwyn College	420	Closed	Closed
....Female	na		
Tenaru	na	closed	closed
...Female	na		
Total (excluding Tenaru & Selwyn)	1772	1396	78.8
Female	831	624	75.1

Source: Kudu 2001, p. 23.

In a situation where the society is in chaos with no education or no schools available, the only role models for the young men were those with guns. School students, did not attend school as they were affected and got involved in criminal activities. As one parent at Aruligho west Guadalcanal stated, “most were caught up by joining the bunch of criminals, some involved in the overt fighting during the conflict while others were killed” (P/IWGR3 interview 2 October 2011). An Amnesty International Report (2000, p.2), recorded between March and October 1998, that there were approximately 500-2,000 indigenous Guadalcanal villagers from south coast, northwest and northeast who emerged to form the group known as ‘Guadalcanal militant’. Many of them were child soldiers.

4. 2.4: Material loss

As a result of the tensions, many schools on Guadalcanal lost their resource materials and infrastructure. They were burnt, destroyed or stolen during the height of conflict. The severity of damage depends on the concentration of the activity. The most conflict affected areas experienced great losses compared to the other areas. As some respondents recounted, most of the materials were either fully damaged or partly damaged by both parties to the conflict, depending on the location of the school. For instance on the Guadalcanal plains one teacher revealed that,

The RRU⁴ destroyed the school infrastructure. They walked into the school vicinity expecting the Guadalcanal militants were around. They shot aimlessly, damaging the school buildings and breaking doors and walls. Stationery and other school resource were also taken and some destroyed. (HSSSNSS3, interviewed 10 October 2011)

Besides, the Malaita Eagle Force (MEF) had been responsible for the burning of some of the schools located on the periphery of Honiara. The Guadalcanal militants were responsible for those that were within the Guadalcanal boundary. One respondent reported that “they [militants] walked into the school compounds, kicked the doors open and walked right in. They pleased themselves with everything there. At night they used the classroom for camping out” (P/ISGR4, Interviewed 12 September 2011). Some schools that are located far from the conflict affected areas did not experience severe damage but some found destruction as well. Militant came into the school compound and wrote on the walls and on the tables and chairs and took off with text books and exercise books that were in the office (P/ISGR1, interviewed 12 September 2011). For many respondents, resources such as text books and other school materials teachers normally use as teaching aids were never recovered since.

Some schools were also used as refugee camps for displaced families and most of such schools complained of losses and destruction to their properties. Books and stationery

⁴ RRU stands for “Rapid Response Unit”, a team of police set up in response to violent activities by the Guadalcanal militants.

were taken away by people either intentionally or accidentally. Most of the resources included library books, students' and teachers' resource and work books. For most schools, it will take a very long period of time to recover the loss.

Most school infrastructure on Guadalcanal was destroyed or damaged beyond use and repair. In the most affected conflict areas on the Weather Coast of Guadalcanal, militants entered schools and destroyed the only water supply that served the school and the surrounding community. Most teachers and students interviewed concurred that a huge burden was placed on them after the crisis as students had to walk to the river to fetch water for bathing. One student commented, "...our water supply was destroyed during the crisis. They removed all the piping and used them as barrels for homemade guns" (HSSAPSS3 interviewed 13 September 2011). It was understood that many of the weapons the Guadalcanal militants used during the crisis were homemade weapons made of galvanized iron pipes. As put succinctly by the MEHRD (2007, p. 34) "[s]chools experienced vandalism during the ethnic tension, and some schools were totally destroyed. The ethnic tension affected access at all levels of education in the Province".

4.3 Challenges to Educator's Tasks in the Post-conflict Period

Educators encountered enormous challenges to continue to provide educational services since the crisis only exacerbated the already poor state of education services. From the information gathered in this study, most of the common challenges educator's

experienced in the aftermath of the tensions include: (i) lack of instructional materials and resources; (ii) overcrowding; (iii) educators' poor living conditions; (iv) student poverty; (v) student's behaviour and attitudes problems; and (vi) community interference.

There is a considerable variation in the challenge encountered. Informants from the most affected schools on Guadalcanal said that they experienced a major challenge in teaching students especially when there were very limited resources. One teacher, for instance, stated that *“stationary and resources are not enough because during the crisis, militants came and took off with everything. We found it really hard to begin after the tensions. Everything was either stolen or damaged from agriculture and industrial arts tools to teaching resources such as student resource books and teaching materials”* (HSTAPSS4 interviewed 12 September 2011).

Many of them expressed that even currently, they do not have enough supplies at their disposal and as a result most students are sharing text books in class. Teachers also expressed difficulties to begin classes after the tensions as they do not have enough text book materials and other teaching resources to guide them in their lesson preparations. This made their work even more difficult. In most cases, they had to use the chalk board for making notes for students, whereas in the past, they were able to use students' work books to give student activities. One student commented:

Teachers used to write on the black board and we used our books to copy the notes from the board. It's really bad for some of us who are slow in writing. Sometimes, we do not take most of the notes given to us by the teachers because at times, the teachers write so fast that we were unable to cope with their speed. (HSSMCHS1, interviewed 26 September 2011)

Other teachers pointed out that because of the situation they were unable to cover the contents of the syllabus properly and according to schedule. Consequently, they had to organise extra classes in order to cover all topics required by the syllabus. This adversely impacted the extra curriculum duties because teachers concentrated on academic stuff and ignored other important school activities, such as sports and other extracurricular activities.

Before the tension two major schools on Guadalcanal (Tangare PSS and Avuavu PSS) were fully equipped with library books and stationery. Now there were no books or even a proper storage room to keep books. Most of these were either damaged or burned by militants during the crisis (HSPAPSS1, Interviewed 13 September 2011). The absence of this infrastructure made it more difficult for teachers to organise library activities for students or even teachers' research on the topics required in the syllabus. Students also expressed concerns about their schools without a proper library or book storage. They felt that they had missed out on one most important area of learning. One student reported the following: *"We do not have the library, we stored all the books in one of*

the small rooms we call library. Not all books we have are in complete sets. Some text books are left with only 1 some 2 but none more than 4. There are 40 of us in the class and we had to share these resources among us” (HSSAPSS2, interviewed 14 September 2011).

Most teachers interviewed agree they really struggled at least to try and provide the best they could for their students. In many instances, they had to buy some materials so that they are able to teach the right contents of the syllabus. To be able to teach proper and reliable lesson teachers sought assistance from other friends who teach in well-resourced and comfortable schools or less affected areas to assist them with the teaching materials. One commented as follows: “we do not have the teaching resources and stationery; they were all damaged during the crisis since everybody escaped and no one was there to take care of them. We teach our students with resources borrowed from friends in Honiara” (HSTAPSS5 interviewed 15 September 2011). Most respondents that were interviewed expressed similar concerns and indicated similar challenges faced in the provision of teaching material for purposeful learning. We can therefore say that it is an indication that the service provided after the tensions was not sufficient and lacked quality.

Teachers and students also expressed concerns over the condition of the learning environment. Limited space to accommodate the increasing number of students enrolled in schools is a major concern. Teachers encounter difficulties in monitoring and evaluating classroom activities. They do not have enough space and resources to accommodate the increasing number of students who were transferred from other

schools in the province to theirs. Most complained that the increasing number of students transferred to their schools stretched the already insufficient resources further.

Things have not improved from the days of the tension to the present. A student interviewed in 2011 gave the following account: “We live in a small room crowded into groups. There are ten of us on one long bench and we share all the resources that were given to us by our teachers. We don't have a proper bookshelf or text books and when we are assigned to do homework, it is really difficult because we do not have the tools to use” (HSSTCHS2 Interviewed 19 September 2011). Table 5 shows the achievement of Guadalcanal Province against these minimum standards, as reported in the *Digest of Education Statistics 2005, 2006 and 2007*.

Table 5: Achievement of Guadalcanal Province against minimum standard

1	Standard	Achievement per year			General indication	Result
		2005	2006	2007		
2	Average number of pupil/Class 1:35	38.9*	38.89**	68.49***	↘	Standard not met
3	Toilet/Pupil ratio in all schools is 1:50	50.8 **	50.8**	57.33***	↘	Standard not met
5	Average Number of Pupils per Textbook (CHS)	1.72*	0.61**	2.65***	↘	Standard not met
6	Average Number of Pupils per Textbook (PSS)	0.83*	na	1.14***	↘	Standard not met
7	Average Number of Pupils per Textbook (NSS)	3.24*	na	3.85***	↘	Standard not met

Source: Digest of Education Statistics

2005*; 2006**; 2007***

Data from table 5 support the argument that schools on Guadalcanal are significantly overcrowded. The national education enrolment policy for Solomon Islands is at the ratio of 1:35 teacher/pupil ratio, a standard for a maximum class size (MEHRD 2007b, p.58). For Secondary schools on Guadalcanal, the teacher/student ratio is on average 1 teacher per 38.9 students in 2005 and 2006; With the huge increase in 2007, facilities in the Provincial Secondary School and National Secondary Schools are very poor, and overcrowding is common (MEHRD 2007d, p.54).

Poor student living condition is also a current challenge for teachers and educators. It also affects student learning and teachers are expected to provide a comfortable place for students to live and study in. MEHRD (2007) puts it succinctly, “[i]ssues and constraints affecting senior secondary education in Guadalcanal province [include]: a) very poor facilities, both academic and boarding; b) lack of curriculum resources and equipment; c) shortage of qualified trained teachers; and d) limited space at the senior secondary level” (MEHRD 2007d, p.53) Some schools experienced shortages in furniture like tables, chairs and raised bed for students. Student sleeping arrangements are normally organized according to forms from junior classes to senior ones. The senior ones are usually fortunate because schools usually provide them with raised beds, compared to junior students, who use the floor to place mattresses or beddings.

One teacher confided that most students are unable to complete the school academic year and become repeaters every year because of financial difficulties experienced by parents. He further explained that:

...in an already economically poor society, exacerbated by ethnic conflict and violence, money is very difficult to find in order to settle school fees. Parents are not able to pay up their children's fees on time, resulting in their children being ineligible to sit for the form three or five examinations. As a consequence, students often demand the school to spare them a chance to repeat the next academic year, a recurring experience year after year. (HSPAPSS1 interviewed 15 September 2011)

Teachers also gave account of students' aggressive behaviour towards their teachers. One teacher described a situation he witnessed when students confronted teachers of a school as follows:

One night three students came drunk after disagreement with the school administration for suspending them for stealing from the school canteen. They returned to school the other day, burnt down the school market house and started fighting teachers with knives and stones. The teachers escaped to safety. The students damaged a building, tore the walls down, broke louvres and threw stones at it. This type of student behaviour is only found after the tensions. Besides, it is difficult to teach students with unstable mindset. They developed a no-care attitude towards other

students, teachers and school property as a negative impact of the tensions. They are more aggressive than ever and even if you apply school discipline, they often commit the same offences again. As a teacher, I found it very difficult to handle students when it comes to conflict among students in school. This is because many of the students had witnessed horrible things during the violence and are excited doing it. Most students still have the mentality of the fighting that they witnessed as children at the height of the tensions. (HSTAPSS1 interviewed 13 September 2011)

In a certain school, the level of discipline was so low that students were unable to comply with the school rules. Another teacher relayed this story during the fieldwork:

Student behaviour really changed compared to the past. In the past students would listen when teachers instruct them to do certain activities. Now, when teachers give instructions, students rarely listen. School activities and programmes are difficult to organise as students are reluctant to participate in them and they do not accept disciplinary actions imposed by the school authorities. (HSTAPSS3, interviewed 12 September 2011)

Schools that are located in most affected conflict areas continue to experience threats from outsiders who interfere with school discipline procedures. Communities sometimes demand compensation from schools as schools do not have power to defend staff

members from physical harm. The victims are usually teachers or students who for some reason or another become parties to a problem. In such occasions, students would normally call on their parents, brothers or family member to come and physically abuse the teachers. One teacher conveyed the following sentiments to me during the study. “I was threatened on two occasions. First a girl told me that she will tell her brothers to shoot me because I put her name down for punishment on Saturday for breaking school rules. The other time a student in form one told me that he has a gun at home and he will shoot me if I continue to punish him for breaking the school rules” (HSTAPSS1 interviewed 12 September 2011).

The educators’ task in a post-conflict society is of great challenge as we experience from the preceding argument that teachers had encountered enormous challenges to continue providing educational services. The challenges as we learn range from poor classroom space where teachers cannot even monitor or evaluate classroom activities during classes. Poor student living conditions are also a major challenge for educators as well, where students express concern over overcrowding in their dormitory. The shortage of school stationery and resource materials means that in most case students are unable to complete the school academic year and become repeaters every year because of financial difficulties. Apart from that, teachers express concern about aggressive behaviour by students and the worsening of the school discipline.

4. 4. Community Disintegration after the Tensions

The study fieldwork also revealed that community participation is generally poor and is worsening after the ethnic conflict and violence. People are not really putting much effort on school development activities. The situation varies from among communities most affected by violence to those less affected. Most respondents highlighted concerns over the visible lack of community participation after the tension. This is mainly attributed to recovery efforts while some people also expressed fear of ‘payback’ culminating from their involvement in the conflict. Some blamed arrangements by the school administrations as not being very effective in encouraging community participation. The results of the survey highlighted the motivation factors experienced by the community upon and rehabilitation towards communal activities such as schools and churches. See table 6 for data on ways in which the tensions have had negative effects on community participation in efforts to rehabilitate the schools.

Table 6: Rates of community participation in post-conflict rehabilitation

Variables	Observation result
Structural elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Community relies on their leaders (MPs) to support the project financially• Community expects money from the project donors
Previous conflict rivals	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• People remain mistrusted and fearful of their former rivals during the conflict
Rebuilding effort	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Because recovery has been a slow process, the community concentrate on their daily activities• People put less effort into school projects than into their own work

Source: Primary data obtained from the survey of Schools and the Community, (September 2011)

The conviction that parliament has the last say in school project activities is a looming stumbling block in most communities, especially in the Weather Coast of Guadalcanal. Informants claimed that their parliamentarians usually give funds to school committees to meet the wages of casual workers to carry timber and gravel for construction activities. Table 6 on variable structural elements shows the observation result that the community relies on their leaders (MPs) for financial support of the project. They expect cash for work that they usually did for free in the past, as they no longer see the school as a community responsibility.

Apart from the movement towards work for cash, some informants expressed their guilt or shame in showing up for community work because of their involvement in the past conflict and violence. In the Weather Coast, there were two warring parties⁵, during the conflict after the signing of the Townville Peace Agreement (TPA). The parties to this conflict still have outstanding issues hanging over their heads. The killing of some innocent civilians by the Special Constabulary established after TPA has never been resolved. Payment of compensation and reconciliation has never been made to the relatives of the deceased and so the problem lingers on (P/ISGR4 interviewed 14 September 2011). Others claim that their homes were destroyed by militants at the height of the unrest. Many communities are still recovering from the loss they encountered. Due to their slow recovery from the ethnic violence, with no assistance

⁵ Party to the conflict after the Townsville peace Agreement; The Isatabu Freedom Movement lead by Andrew Te'e and backed up by the Royal Solomon Islands Police, and the Guadalcanal Liberation Front lead by Harold Keke.

from government or donors, most of the communities concentrated on rebuilding their homes, villages and livelihoods, leaving very little time for communal work (P/ISGR1 interviewed 15 September 2011)

To assess community participation levels in schools on Guadalcanal, teachers were asked the following question. 1) What happened to the school community participation? They were given a choice to make from a) very good b) good, c) poor and d) very poor. There were 30 teachers responding to this question, of the 30 teacher, who responded to this question, two-thirds (66.7%) indicated poor or very poor participation; only one-third (33.3%) regarded the community participation as good or very good (see figure 6).

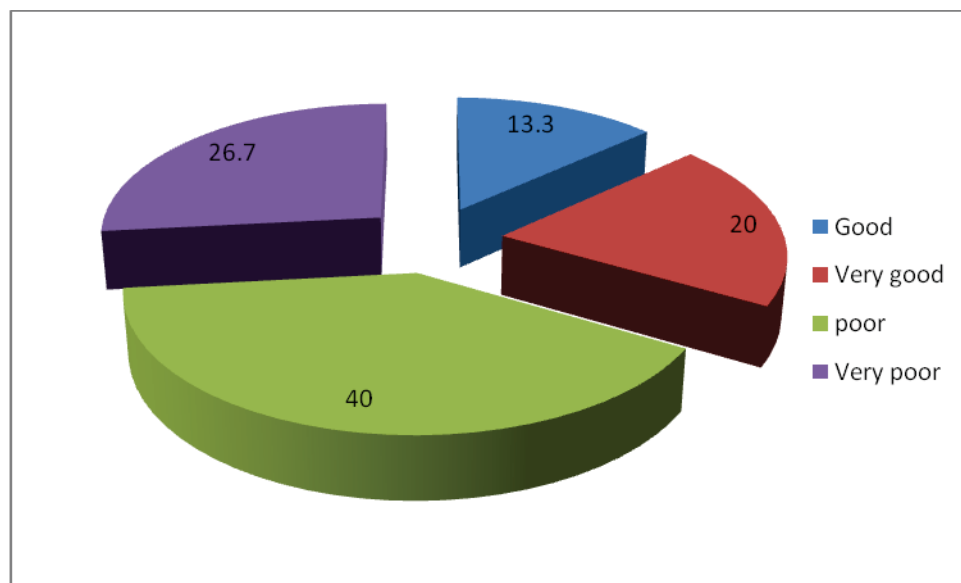


Figure 6: Teacher's responses concerning community participation in schools
(Source: Primary data obtained from the survey of Schools and the Community,
(September 2011)

4.5. The Current Social Status

Lawlessness as a spill-over effect of the ethnic conflict and violence continues to be experienced in some communities of Solomon Islands. Individuals construct new knowledge from experiences learnt from influential militants. Youths shifted their interest from classroom activities to joining thugs, with past conflict experiences and aggressive behaviours. Youth behaviour and attitudes changed and are continue to affect the values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviour of individuals and groups. As the Solomon Star Newspaper succinctly puts it, “lawlessness was one of the consequences of the unrest that remains within some of the hotspot communities, and that had given [a] chance for many youth [to] resort to illegal and criminal activities as a means to enjoy life” (3 December, 2011a, p.7).

Most informants agree that unlawful activities grew rapidly after the ethnic crisis. “[E]ffects from the ethnic tension which took place from 1997-2003 still exist today. [People] tend to put up road blocks and demand compensation on people they are not happy with them” (Solomon Star Newspaper 25 February 2011b, p.5). Many individuals continue to experience intimidation within the community they call home. In the weather coast on Guadalcanal chief Ngelea give an account, claiming many young people today resort to drugs and other abuses that lead to social problems. They engage in criminal activities including burning and looting people’s home. At Navui village, on the weather coast on Guadalcanal, a group of young boys entered a family home and torch their house. The family managed to escape the ordeal. Call was made to the police station at

Haimarao and Isuna but there was no response from them (P/ISGR4 Interviewed 14 September 2011).

Other young people shifted their interests from classroom activities to acquiring superstitious ‘articles’ such as ginger and lime ‘*poke loki*’ made from death man’s born and offering animal sacrifices and gifts, to their spirit to obtain help in the form of more strength to fight, kill and also for attracting young ladies ‘*madu*’. They assumed that such undertakings would give them immediate luck and they strongly believed that such practices are true and powerful (P/IWGR1, interviewed 2 October 2011). A similar cult behaviour, like the Voodoos, in which “they believe they are guided by the direct intervention of nature deities who have come directly to them to offer guidance, spiritual evolvment, and blessings” (Weekly Webcast 2013, p.1).

In certain communities, the level of lawlessness is very high and some people had repeated experiences of witnessing the atrocities and violence. One shocking account of an incident after the tensions was given by a parent:

An incident after the ethnic tension at my village resulted in one person being killed by another at a drinking party. These are all elements of the ethnic tension where law and order is not effective. Before the tensions you would hardly see people holding bottles of beer or consuming alcohol in the village, not to mention fighting among themselves. After the crisis, young people consume alcohol nearly every day. Cartons after

cartons they consume each day. Men also took other men's wives resulting in more problems. Mothers who grew tired of watching such activities daily subsequently joined the bunch of drinking men. Young children were discouraged to attend schools and also joined the 'team'. Our mindsets have changed over the period of ethnic crisis. Besides, we live in close proximity to the perpetrators of attacks on our families, adding to the climate of mistrust and animosity. (P/IWGR3, interviewed 2 September 2011)

Interviewees not only witnessed the impact of the conflict and violence but were also sometimes victims themselves. Situations in rural villages at the moment are not progressive. People lost sight of their social values and respect for the old men and women in villages are eroding rapidly. Many young people left school to join their friends at home to consume the locally brewed kwaso⁶. Even children also participated in the consumption of this local home brewed alcohol.

⁶ A homemade beer/homebrew

4.6 Conclusion

This account indicates that the impact of ethnic conflict and violence on Guadalcanal has had significant effects and cost many lives. Homes and village were burnt as a result; schools closed and people lost their jobs as they escaped the violence. In Honiara and Guadalcanal, teachers escaped to other provinces for their safety. Many of the Guadalcanal schools were either burned or damaged by militants. Consequently, many of these schools could not operate fully as teaching resources and materials were scarce or non-existent. The situation created exceptional challenges to teachers as increased numbers of students had to be transferred from the conflict areas to schools in the other provinces. Generally speaking, increasing numbers of young people are involved in criminal activities and continue to harass women and children. The continued intimidation and harassment by youths impresses on us to be very concerned about the future of Solomon Islands. This leads us to the next question, which we will try to address in the next chapter. ‘How can education contribute to social reconstruction?’

CHAPTER 5: EDUCATION, PEACEBUILDING AND SOCIAL RECONSTRUCTION

When we think about building a culture of peace on any level from a local community to the entire globe, education is central to the vision. Indeed, it may be said without exaggeration that education is the only path to peace that is both practical and sustainable (Ndura-Ouédraogo and Armster 2010, p.7)

5.1: Introduction

Education has a significant role in peace building. It creates opportunities for students to meet and learn from each other through participation. Children learn when they are exposed to the thinking of others and develop the values and knowledge for their future. In chapter 4, I discussed the violence experienced by people living in conflict affected areas and schools on Guadalcanal. This chapter will assess the education system and programs of the country and their roles in maintaining peace and promoting development. The nature and trends of successive education policies, management systems and institutional setting for curriculum development are considered to contextualize the changes, processes and patterns of education development in the country. In brief, the chapter will first present some background information on the education system. Second, it introduces the role of education in post-conflict Solomon Islands and provides a chronology of education programs and policies during the period of ethnic violence and in the immediate aftermath. It analyses the current education

intervention and its focus on peace building and the general development of Solomon Islands. Finally, it will define the role of educators in post-conflict Solomon Islands.

5.2: Background and Context of the Education System

The national education system was based partly on an academic tradition inherited from Britain, and partly on a desire to train Solomon Islanders in technical skills for paid employment. The emphasis on the latter was to fill the numerous jobs that were becoming available in administration and elsewhere during the period immediately before and after independence. Many Solomon Islanders came to regard education as a route to paid employment, especially paid employment in office jobs in towns (MEHRD 2004b, p. 9).

5.2.1 Legal framework

The education system in Solomon Islands is administered under the Education Act of 1978. There are other Acts of Parliament and laws that also affect the actual operation of the system. These include:

- The Public Service Act of 1968, which empowers the Public Service Commission for the appointment, promotion and discipline of public officers including education officers in the Ministry Head office and the provinces.

- The Constitution (Amendment) Act 1982, which provides for the establishment of the Teaching Service Commission to deal with appointments, promotion and discipline of teachers.
- The Provincial Government Acts, 1981, 1996 and 1997.
- The College of Higher Education Act, 1983 and the College of Higher Education (Amendment) Act, 1984.
- The National Library Service Act of 1979, which provides for the establishment of a National Library Service and for the provision of efficient library services throughout the country.
- The Research Act of 1982, which provides for the guidelines governing any research activities in the country

Solomon Islands formal educational history is firmly rooted in its colonial past. Schooling was first introduced by the missionaries, in an effort to convert the Islanders into Christianity. In that context it was used as a vehicle to change the natives and advance western ideologies and religious beliefs. Missionaries taught basic numeracy and literacy, accompanied by Christian faith based subjects on western culture and beliefs. Young Solomon Islanders were encouraged to attend formal classes in order to advance their knowledge to continue the work of the missionaries and to promote the values of various churches. All education was therefore undertaken by the churches, who were themselves much restricted by lack of funds.

Give this in full the period between 1942 and 1945, the islands experienced great loss as a result of war. Immediately after the war the missionaries began rebuilding educational institutions, but were greatly hampered by shortage of funds following the disruptions of the war. As Bugotu recorded, considerable progress was made in the immediate post-war period but the government was unable to provide any material assistance due to shortage of funds and the need to concentrate such efforts on the reinstatement of essential basic services (Bugotu et al. 1973, p. 16).

Around 1957/1958, the government was able to play an active role in planning and facilitating education with the hope of improving its quality, to prepare leaders for the future and help provide people with skills to resource the emerging private sector. The 'Government White Papers' of 1962 and 1967 plus the *Sixth Development Plan* prioritised education and training of the country's future leaders (Bugotu et al. 1973, p. 16).

A start was made with a new government boarding secondary school built in each major rural district in 1973 (Bennett 1987, p.340). The system included intakes into four years of junior primary school. Out of this intake, half would proceed to senior primary school while the other half would be selected for secondary schools. The ultimate aim was to ensure that the most able ones would proceed to tertiary and other training institution such as the then newly established Solomon Islands Teachers College [now Solomon Island National University] (Bennett 1987, p.318). The education system that eventuated

was one largely controlled by the churches at primary and secondary levels, with assistance from government, while teacher training and technical education were directly controlled by government. The pattern of development brought with it acute problems of disparity between standards in different schools and conditions under which teachers served in the schools (Bugotu et al. 1973, p. 17).

5.3: The Current Education System

The present formal education system provides seven years of basic education, including a preparatory year, followed by five years of secondary education. There is limited provision for forms 6 and 7 in the senior secondary school level and limited provision for early childhood education before the preparatory year. There are four terminal examinations in the formal system. These are administered in year six, year nine and year eleven. Those who continue to year 12 sit for the ‘Pacific Senior Secondary Examination’ (PSSE) to be eligible to proceed to form seven. The only national tertiary institution in the country is the Solomon Islands College of Higher Education (SICHE) (now Solomon Islands National University) although the University of the South Pacific (USP) and the University of Papua New Guinea (UPNG) are also offering tertiary courses locally. There are also Rural Training Centres (RTCs) which offer vocational education to those who cannot make it through the formal academic stream. Figure 7 shows the existing structure of education in Solomon Islands as students move from primary school to senior secondary, tertiary and vocational institutions.

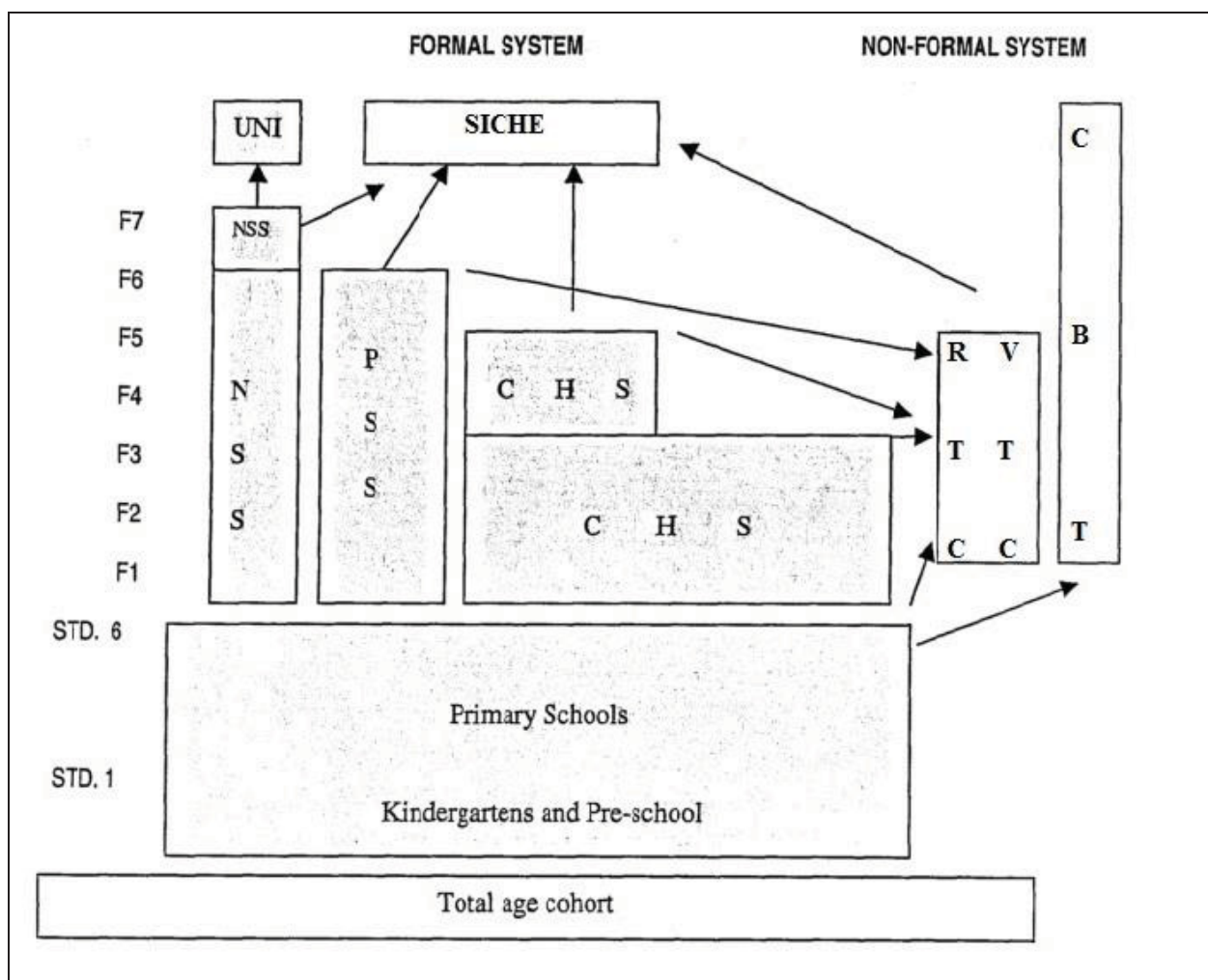


Figure 7: Structure of the education system

(Source: MEHRD 2004b).

This structure shows that attrition is a feature of the school role as students get older. Table 7 indicates the trend of a student cohort as they move from primary school to senior secondary school in 2005.

Table 7: Enrolment by class level, 2005

School Level	Total Enrolled
Kindergarten	11,251
Preparatory Year	21,082
Standard 1	17,389
Standard 2	15,220
Standard 3	13,941
Standard 4	12,352
Standard 5	11,053
Standard 6	9,319
Form 1	6,522
Form 2	5,839
Form 3	4,854
Form 4	3,703
Form 5	3,029
Form 6	881
Form 7	189
Total	136,624

(Source: Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development 2007e, p.54).

This Solomon Islands education system is like a pyramid. At the kindergarten and preparatory years, there is a huge number of student enrolments. It continues to reduce gradually from Form One up to Form Five. The attrition rate is even higher in Form Six and Form Seven. The cycle of gradual attrition demonstrated in the enrolment figures above indicates that most students who are pushed out of formal schooling may either enrol in non-formal education or join the rest at home and in urban centres.

5.4 Chronology of Education Programming and Policy

Current education programmes and planning in Solomon Islands can be separated into three fairly distinct phases: (i) the ethnic conflict phase from 1998 to 2003, (ii) the aftermath of the ethnic conflict and violence from 2004 to 2006 and (iii) the medium term 2007 to present. In this selective analysis, I will assess the work of government policy in its attempt to operate education during the conflict period, in the aftermath and to assess critically if there is any change in the process since the civil uprising.

5.4.1: The ethnic conflict period (1998 to 2003)

During the ethnic conflict and violence on Guadalcanal, the National Government tried its best to provide education for all citizens through attempts to improve the quality, scope, and relevance of education (Ramoni 2000, p.16). The National Government through the Education Authorities (EAs) vigorously attempted to provide schooling for those displaced by the conflict and ensured that emergency education provision was available to address both psychosocial and education needs. There were some important innovations and attempts to provide temporary respite for children and ensure a protective environment for them. For instance, since 2003, the country has taken various measures to prevent and mitigate conflict by infusing peace education into the curriculum. Firstly, a full-time Education in Emergencies (EiE) focal point was placed within MEHRD. Secondly, MEHRD sought technical support from UNICEF's regional

office in Bangkok for an (EiE) training-of-trainers workshop for key national and provincial officials (UNESCO 2012, p.6). EiE was trying to ensure that risk reduction measures were addressed through a national policy and plan and therefore children and youth of Solomon Islands will lead to a safer, more resilient society and education system.

During the first years of the civil conflict, these were problems that were encountered. The whole country descended into violence and educational activities were severely hampered. Attempts made by government to intervene were unsuccessful and many initiatives led to be abandoned. It was regarded as an internal problem that did not require international intervention (HSTMCHS1, interviewed 15 October 2011). For many Solomon Islanders, the situation was a disaster. *Mi fala continiu skul no mata lo hait blo tensin. Kasem taem oloketa MEF mekem rot bloc lo tufala saet blo taon nao, mekem mifala stop skul nao bikos no eni wan woka na, bank hem clos, office lo Honiara hem clos tu and everything clos daon. What nao bae mi fala usim fo mekem skul ia ran.* (We continued having classes even when the crisis was at its height. At the time when the MEF established road blocks at two ends of the town (Honiara), we called off classes and closed the school, because all basic services we relied on ceased operating. The banks were closed and offices of the Ministry of Education were also closed and all other businesses stopped operating. We did not know what to do to keep the school opening (HSTAPSS6, interviewed 16 September 2011). The state institutions

that were responsible for law and order were unable to maintain peace and provide security while basic services came to a halt.

In 2002, the Ministry of Education developed the *Education Strategic Plan 2002 to 2004*. The plan envisaged a united and progressive society in which all could live in peace and harmony with fair and equitable opportunities for a better life (MEHRD 2002b, p.2). Universal access to basic education was adopted then to ensure every child has the opportunity to obtain an education that is relevant and appropriate to his/her particular needs. The idea was to provide equitable access to good quality basic education and to provide access to community, technical, vocational and tertiary education that will meet individual, regional and national needs for skilled and competent people (MEHRD 2002b, p.3). It was highlighted in the said plan that the recognition of traditional, social and cultural values was critical in stabilising rural communities during and after the conflict. Basic education was to re-emphasise the need for the community to facilitate the development of knowledge and skills needed for economic wellbeing and advancement in order to promote social cohesion and discourage destructive conflicts. The aim was to revamp the education system from the effects of the conflict and violence. It was hoped that individuals will possess the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to earn a living and to live peacefully with others and their environment.

While interviewees commented on the importance of these interventions to address both the traumas of conflict on young peoples' lives and the importance of bringing some normalcy and stability to their lives, it was also recognised that these education interventions were inadequate to prevent a generation of children from missing out on schooling. Anga (2002) in his statement mentioned that:

With the clouds of uncertainty and doubt over us, it is difficult to ascertain the right activities to maintain a credible and reputable work program throughout our education system at the height of the social unrest here in the Solomon Islands. Many children were denied their right to education as there were reductions and to some extent withdrawals of interaction between the students and teachers and the shift from child-friendly schools to child-unfriendly schools, due to lack of capacity to continue the teaching and learning process that the students, teachers and members of the community once enjoyed. (MEHRD 2002a, p.1)

Looking through the programme rationale of educational interventions, one can clearly see that delivery of education services in the midst of the crisis sought to do a range of things. It tried to provide a sense of normalcy for students; provide a place that could give them respite from the daily traumas of war; and efforts that would give them hope that things will return to normality in the immediate future.

5.4.2: Immediate aftermath of the ‘tensions’ (2004 to 2007)

In the immediate post-conflict period, there was great interest in and appreciation of the importance of education. The government and international agencies struggled to cope with the upsurge in demand. The focuses then were to: (i) increase access to education and rehabilitation of schools and teachers; (ii) the reintegration into society of both ex-combatant youths and returnees through educational access either via formal schooling or TVET; and (iii) reconstruction of education infrastructure.

Many respondents described education change since the conflict as a remarkable recovery. One high school teacher conveys that there are signs of recovery in education as the number of students attending school have been increasing dramatically every year (HSTAPSS3 interviewed 13 September 2011). There was an enormous demand for access to education with many seeing education as a route to a more prosperous future. Figure 8 show enrolments doubled for both primary and secondary between 2004 and 2007. The maintenance and the delivery of education services during this rehabilitation period were very successful and there were significant improvements for access and quality of primary and secondary education.

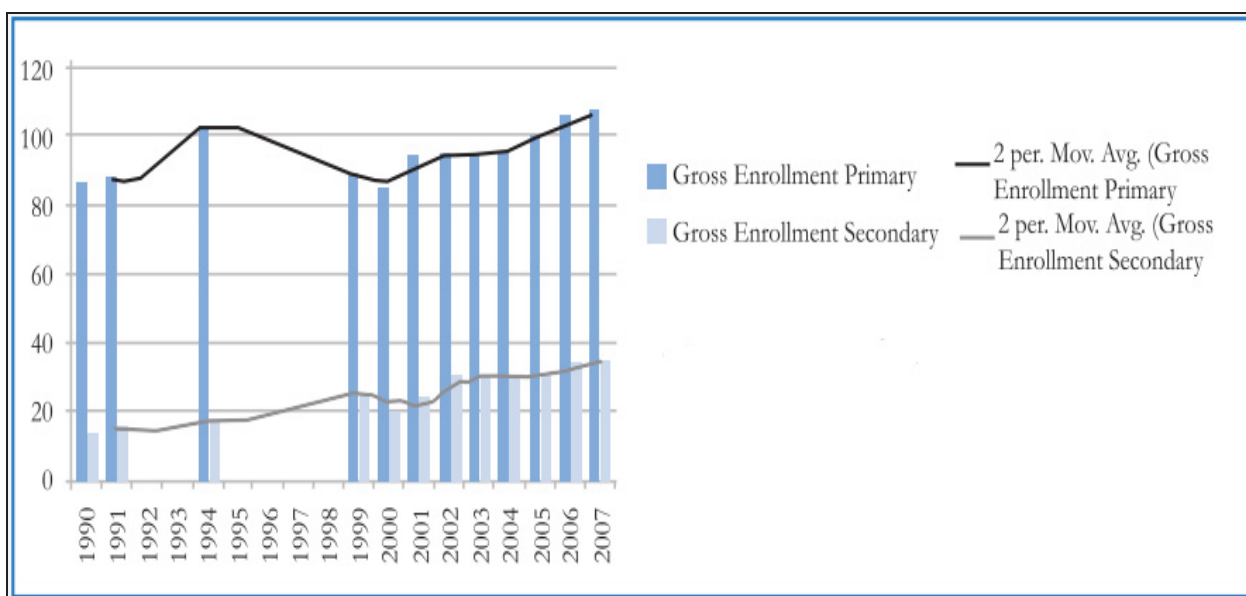


Figure 8: Primary & Secondary enrolment trends, 1990 to 2007 (Source: MDPAC, 2010, p. 66)

The underlying success was initially established through the *National Education Sector Investment and Reform Programme* (ESIRP). This encompasses all formal and informal educational activities in the country and is grounded in human development that focuses on basic education. Basic education in ESIRP cover the following areas: i) increased access with a target for 2015 of universal access up to form three (3); ii) a curriculum review and reform programme; iii) the introduction of practical and vocational subjects into the secondary curriculum; iv) a teacher training and development programme; v) educational materials; vi) national and provincial planning and educational management; vii) development of infrastructure, and viii) support for the Solomon Islands College of Higher Education (SICHE) [now the Solomon Islands National University] (MEHRD 2004a, p.8). Besides, it stressed that education must be available to all regardless of

gender, ethnicity and socio-economic background of the citizens. Basic education must be accessible to and be accessed by all school aged children nationally. Adults should also have access to further education and training to enable them to develop skills for employment to broaden their knowledge (MEHRD 2004c, p.7).

The ESIRP was developed to implement the *Education Strategic Plan*⁷ 2004 to 2006, which was prepared in 2001 and was approved by cabinet in February 2002 and revised in 2004. ESIRP is a sector wide programme involving a partnership between the European Union and NZAID under the leadership of the Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development. In April 2004 the EU, NZAID and Solomon Island Government (SIG) signed the 'Letter of Intent' formalizing the ESIRP. This was followed by the signing of the *Joint Memorandum of Understanding* in June 2004, formalizing financial, technical and managerial arrangements. A total of SBD 330 million was committed, of which approximately SBD 200 million was paid from the EU Stabex 99 facility and SBD 120 million by New Zealand over the first project cycle period of 2004 to 2006 (MEHRD 2004a, p.8). During this period, a range of programmes were initiated. Some of the most important are briefly outlined here.

The *Education Strategic Plan 2004-2006* was a review of the Education Strategic Plan 2002 to 2004. ESP 2004 to 2006 aims at maintaining the delivery of education services

⁷ The Education Strategic Plan is the Ministry's proposal to overcome the effect of two years of ethnic tension and civil disturbance, culminating in the coup of June 2000, and the rapid decline in the financial position of the Government and the nation's economic condition (MEHRD 2004a, p.4).

during the post-conflict rehabilitation period from 2004 to 2006. As a result of community pressure, a large number of community high schools were established to serve the needs of widely dispersed communities. National, provincial and community resources were directed at establishing these community high schools. The infrastructure development programmes were carried out as part of the reconstruction process. ESP 2004 to 2006 was prepared incorporating all provincial plans, school library plans, communication and broadcasting plans. It determined the classification of some primary schools to cater for lower primary grades (Standards 1 to 3) with pupils transferring to a larger central school when old enough to travel the extra distance involved. Besides the development of distance education infrastructure, focuses on the out-of-school population were successfully carried, with many students from the rural communities having access to distance education studies, especially from the University of the South Pacific (MEHRD 2004b, p.35-36).

The ESP 2004 to 2006 programme details the conditions of teacher employment, and equitable and cost effective deployment of trained teachers was employed. Teachers that were not teaching but still received their salary were closely scrutinized and a complete reconciliation of teachers in schools and payroll was engaged to ensure that only teachers in school are receiving their salary and others removed from the payroll (MEHRD 2004b, p.32). The ESP 2004 to 2006 catered for the development of the *National Training and Development Plan* which includes in-service and pre-service training and the restructure and development of the Solomon Islands College of Higher

Education (SICHE). The programme focuses on preparing teachers, (both pre-service and in-service) and development. These include the on-going teacher development activities and focused workshops. For instance, it:

addresses teacher supply needs through, field-based training (the Teachers-in-Training (TIT) scheme) to upgrade the skills of unqualified teachers in the service; Initiation of programmes to up skill existing teachers; Targeted (and bonded) scholarships for primary and secondary teachers to study overseas, who then return to teach in the Solomon Islands; Support for teachers who enrol in University of the South Pacific (USP) programmes to upgrade their qualifications (distance education, summer schools, etc.); Specific training programmes to support multi-grade teaching in primary and secondary schools, especially for teachers in areas where student numbers are not large; and approaches to donors for assistance with a specific proposal for field-based teacher support and/or a teacher development programme, especially [where] the proposal involves upgrading unqualified teachers (Catherwood 2007, p.6).

Subsequently, unqualified and untrained teachers were recruited from among the local population and underwent an induction programme in lesson planning and basic teaching techniques. They would then have six weeks per semester of in-service training

in the period between June and July and be allocated a supervisor who would act as mentor to assist and observe them regularly. A majority of these teachers would later enrol in the *Distance Education Programme* (DEP) offered by SICHE [now the Solomon Islands National University], a three-year, part-time teaching education programme leading to a diploma in teaching, which is the official teaching qualification in Solomon Islands (MEHRD 2004b, p.33).

The education system operating immediately after the conflict period up to 2006 encouraged greater public participation. The *National Education Board* (NEB) was re-established to advise the Minister on policy matters and to reach out to the community through awareness of the education reform. On-going radio and newspaper campaigns facilitated the dissemination of information to the public, informing communities and parents of government's plans for education, the importance of education and to encourage families to send children to school. Frequent meetings were also organised to meet with officers of respective EAs. Principals and head teachers were also informed of the reforms and public service procedures (MEHRD 2004c, p.43).

ESP 2004 to 2006 is an important educational intervention with a programme rationale addressing universal basic education to promote equity in education. The programme was tailored for children who missed out on their education during the conflict, especially those between the ages of 10 and 19 who were pushed out; students who are economically marginalized; and students with disabilities. These policy outlines should

help young people to move on with their lives and improve their situation. Besides, ESP 2004 to 2006 also recognizes the need to improve participation of women at all levels (MEHRD 2004c, p.39).

It is evident from Figure 8 that education has proven successful as it doubled its enrolments figure of 2000 in 2007. Drawn from that, one could sense that there is a positive come-back in the education system after the conflict. The achievement was made possible through the *Education Sector Investment and Reform Programme* (ESIRP) that allow for the commitment of the donor partners, especially the European Union (EU) and New Zealand Aid (NZAID) to commit financial and technical support through MEHRD. This in turn enabled the implementation of *Education Strategic Plan 2004 to 2006*, the strategic framework within which the education system has been rehabilitated and development programmes designed. According to Sikua, ESIRP is a genuine partnership where management is vested in the Ministry with financial and technical support from the EU and NZAID (MEHRD 2004a, p.1).

5.4.2.1: Demobilization, disarmament and rehabilitation, 2002 to 2007

Demobilisation, disarmament and rehabilitation (DDR) programmes were carried out by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and other agencies in Solomon Islands with the help of the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI). It is estimated that more than 1,000 people have undertaken DDR programmes since

2002, and this was a central task of the UN mission. The UNDP helped to demobilise and reintegrate ex-combatants into special constabularies and into civilian life through short-term immediate employment and training. Short-term education training in small business enterprises was provided as part of the rehabilitation process. UNDP assisted in the demobilisation exercise and provide initial support for resettlement and effective reintegration support to individual special constables through micro-grants for training, employment creation, microenterprise development and the monitoring of their reintegration in wider society. About 900 special constables were mobilised with support from UNDP (Global IDP 2004, pp.70 to 71). Besides, UNDP trained and fielded ninety young volunteers. Each constituency had a representative trained under the Solomon Islands Development Administration Planning Programme (SIDAPP) in the area of peace building and assisted them to identify and formulate community projects. The content of the project was established before the start of the demobilisation process. The reintegration project included access to technical assistance, monitoring and guidance for projects with a maximum duration of six months.

The education components of these programmes, while valued by interviewees, were often seen as insufficient and inadequate to the needs of ex-combatants. “The span of the programme is very intensive and too short that we did not fully understand the basic requirements (technical knowhow) that will help us create opportunities for ourselves” (P/IWGR1, interviewed 16 October 2011). Six months of skills training was perceived as being too short to provide an adequate basis for productive employment

(HSTMCHS6, interviewed 16 October 2011). While it was recognised that different measures were needed for women and children involved in the armed conflict, in reality children did not benefit from the UNDP programme, and concerns remained for hundreds of former child soldiers who received little support.

5.4.2.2 Community peace and restorative funds (CPRF)

Australian aid funded some school facilities, especially in conflict affected communities through the *Community Peace Restoration Fund* (CPRF). This funded programme is designed to support the implementation of the 2000 Townsville Peace Agreement. CPRF later changed its name to *Community Support Program* (CSP). It is one of the AusAID's key programmes for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of post-conflict Solomon Islands. It provides support for small scale, community based projects that meet the reintegration, resettlement and rehabilitation needs of Solomon Islanders. It was independent from the national government but had invested a lot of money to the various sectors of government. CPRF was present in every province throughout Solomon Islands and manned by a principal coordinator, supported by provincial coordinators (Lenga 2006, p.107). Figure 9 indicates that CPRF project had contribute a lot in education and training. Most funds under education and training were earmarked for rehabilitating young people through outreach programmes and youth development

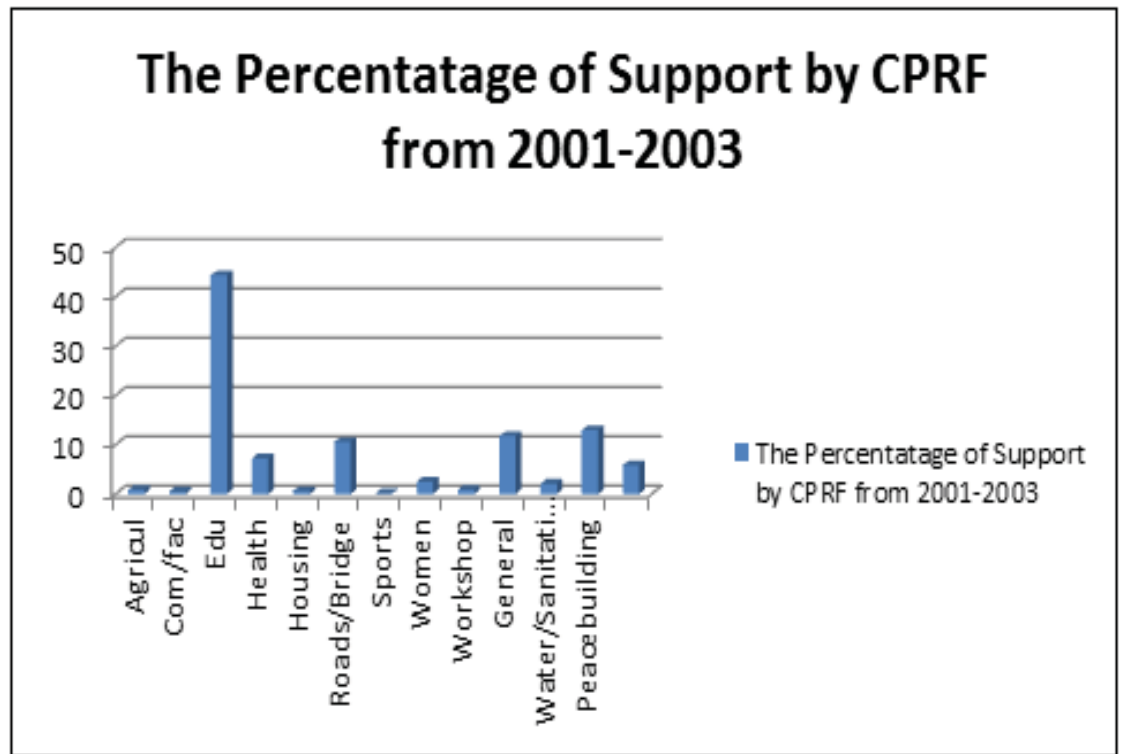


Figure 9: CPRF funds to post-conflict community (Source: Lenga 2006, p.107).

Funding support from the CPRF towards education was progressively increased and reached AU\$21 million by the end of 2004 (Whalan 2010, p.4).

5.4.2.3 School building and reconstruction programmes

School construction and refurbishment projects were clearly a core priority of the education sector because of widespread vandalism during the conflict on Guadalcanal between 1998 and 2003. The implications were significant and adversely impacted basic education services then provided by government. The refurbishment project had a range

of components, including school-building reconstruction and repair, teacher training, textbook provision, sanitation and capacity building within the Ministry of Education.

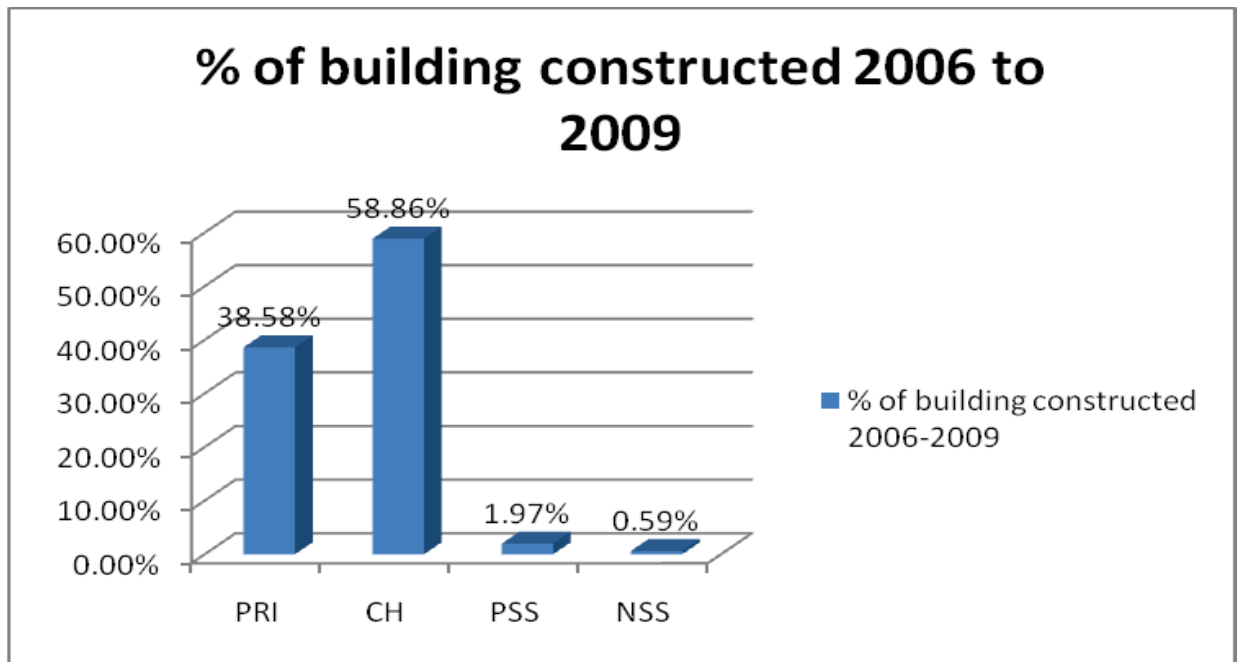


Figure 10: % of building constructed from 2006 to 2009
p.20)

(Source: MEHRD 2009,

The construction of school buildings from 2006 to 2009 was closely monitored and supported by MEHRD. From the interviews, it was clear that there were important lessons to be learnt from the management of school buildings, both in relation to transparency and measures to prevent corruption and to ensure quality of the buildings. In terms of the programme rationale, the reconstruction of schools was a clear sign to citizens of the state's presence. It was a signal that the state is there to deliver social

services needed by the people. Moreover, it was also a sign that normality was returning and was a visible peace dividend.

The number of Community High Schools (CHS) in the Solomon Islands grew as it is one of the government's key strategies to provide education for all. The plan to increase the number of CHSs was to accommodate the increasing number of pupils demanding access to education. Table 8 shows the section on CHSs with an increase in number from 2006 to 2008. We can also see from the data on secondary enrolments in Figure 8 above that there were positive achievements by MEHRD under its *Strategic Framework* 2004 to 2005 and 2006 to 2008. The biggest relative gains in enrolment were made in Community High Schools although Senior Secondary Schools also showed positive gains in enrolment.

Table 8: Number of schools built from 2006 to 2008

	2006	2007	2008
ECE	555	568	525
PRIMARY	531	524	517
CHS	143	153	161
PSS	16	16	16
NSS	9	8	8

(Source: MEHRD 2009, p.20).

5.4.2.4 Refugee return programmes

The European Union, NZAID and non-government organizations worked closely with the Solomon Islands Government (SIG) to support ‘returnee refugees’. This included the provision of education services. There were a wide range of programmes initiated to re-settle displaced people into their original islands and villages. In the education sector, calls were sent out by the *National Teachers Association*, via Solomon Islands Broadcasting Corporation (SIBC), Solomon Star newspaper and other media outlets to encourage teachers to return to their schools and resume duties. Salaries were backdated for many of the returnees. The European Union assisted with approximately 9 million euros and New Zealand (NZAID) committed SBD 120 million and later SBD 18.4 million towards the repatriation and reintegration of teachers. They also provided operating grants and recurrent costs as well as the salaries for teachers and public servants (MEHRD 2007e, p. 3).

5.4.3 The medium term: 2007 to 2013

In this latest period, and in response to the push for the expansion of the education services, particularly Education for All (EFA) policies, there has been a shift of emphasis towards quality of education, sparked by the recognition that educational achievement was weak. There is a shift in the emphasis of curriculum. The shift was driven away from training citizens for worthwhile learning towards academic and there is also a shifting emphasis on upstream work addressing the lack of capacity within the

Ministry of Education. There is success in the EFA goal of improving access, but there are questions about quality as drop-out and repeater rates remain high (MEHRD 2009b, p.73). During this period, one gets the sense from the different interviewees that the education strategy is much less about reconstruction and concerns with training citizen to meet their individual, regional and international needs.

In 2007, the *Education Sector Investment and Reform Programme* (ESIRP), 2007 to 2009 was launched and this allowed Solomon Islands to gain access to NZAID and EU funding (see Figure 11). The plan was developed with strong support from UNICEF and UNESCO and is a very sophisticated and well-developed plan that addresses the main issues affecting the education sector and the obstacles to its on-going development. The *National Education Action Plan 2010 to 2012* is built on the strengths of the *NEAP 2007 to 2009*. NEAP 2010 to 2012 was an amended version of NEAP 2007 to 2009 with emphasis on access, quality and management that has characterised the implementation of the previous national planning documents. MEHRD (2010a, pp24 to 88) noted a range of challenges facing the education sector as it emerges from the ethnic conflict and violence. The summary of it could be found as listed in Appendix 1. These challenges have greatly affected educational progress in the country. Emanating from these issues, the key strategies of the ESIRP are in Appendix 2.

Despite these efforts, the education system remains seriously underfunded. Solomon Islands government's recurrent budget in 2009 was reduced by 26% compared to a 31%

reduction in 2007. This heightens the likelihood that some issues will be prioritized at the expense of others. Figure 11 shows that the development budget decreased in the period 2007 to 2009 by 9%. The Government of Solomon Islands intends to continue to devote a significant proportion of its annual budget to support education, but the resources that central Government can afford are limited, and Government resources are not sufficient to ensure the success of this plan (MEHRD 2007a, p.7). Therefore the decrease in the development budget performance was partly due to that. Only 56% of the approved budget was spent in 2009, compared to 2007 when 72% was spent from a larger budget.

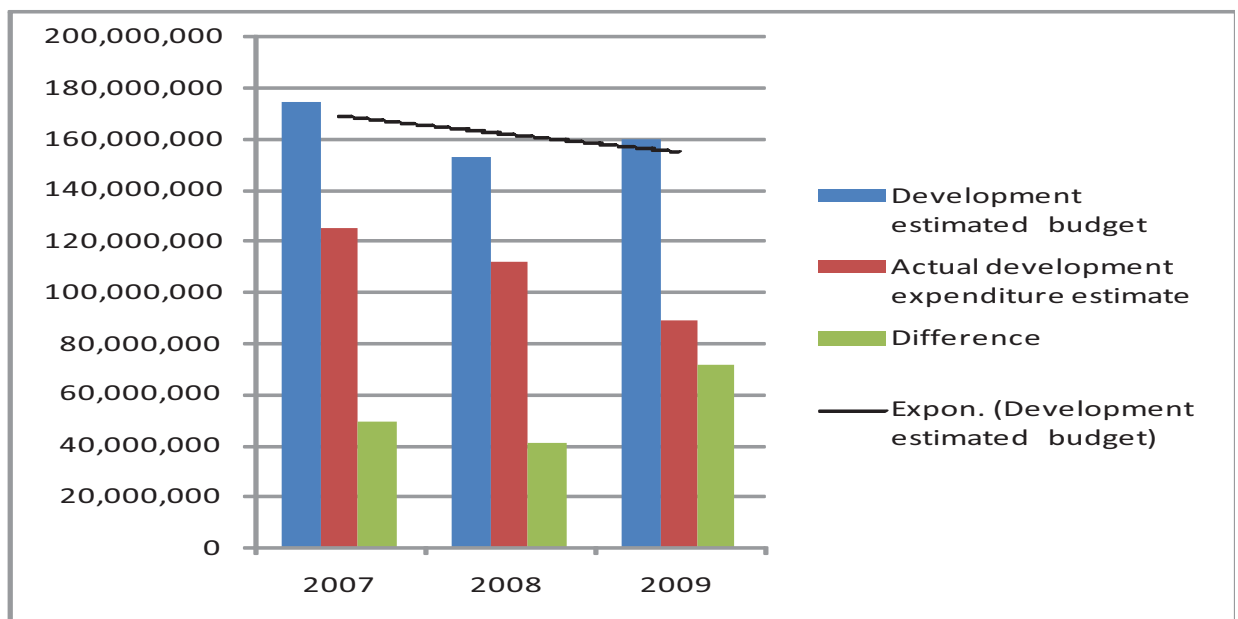


Figure 11: Development budget estimates and actual expenditure for 2007-2009

(Sources: MEHRD 2010b, p.75).

Interviews conducted and documents reviewed for this research revealed a wide range of serious challenges to the sector. At least 30% of school-aged children remain out of school. At primary level, enrolment disparities between boys and girls have almost disappeared, but at secondary school level, more boys continue to enrol than girls. The Gender Parity Index (GPI)⁸ for enrolments across all examination levels shows that more boys than girls sat for Senior Secondary School-exams (i.e. *Solomon Islands School Certificate* and *Pacific Senior Secondary Certificate*). The enrolment rate grew from 31% in 2007 to 38% in 2009. A total of 5,415 more students were enrolled compared to year 2007. This paralleled growth in Net Enrolment Rate (NER) and Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) indicates that the education sector in Solomon Islands is still at the pace of building and expanding access as it is still recovering from the conflict. According to MEHRD, the same trend in NER and GER will continue for a few years (MEHRD 2010b, p.17).

Since the goal for Solomon Islands is universal basic education, the intention is that Solomon Islands Secondary Entrance Examination (SISEE) at year six will be phased out while the introduction of a school based learners' assessment system will replace this, under which all pupils will progress automatically into Year Seven. In order to have universal access to basic education up to Form 3 level, it is anticipated that most CHSs

⁸ Gender Parity Index is usually designed to measure the relative access to education of males and females. It is calculated as the proportion of the number of females by the number of males enrolled in a given stage of education

and all the provincial and national secondary schools in the provinces will accommodate double streams (MEHRD 2010a, p.78). The expected outcome is therefore to provide access for all children to a good quality basic education from primary school to junior secondary level.

The demand to meet this expectation is very high and so is the need for infrastructure in schools to accommodate it. Realistically, there are considerable challenges to achieving the EFA goal in Solomon Islands. The challenge increases even more given the imperative for better quality universal education. Demand for junior secondary schools increases as school-aged population grows and when/as the existing cohorts of students in primary schools reach Year Seven (7) level. “The total enrolment in the Solomon Islands [has] increased by 9% in 2008 over the level in 2007. Junior secondary school enrolment increased by about 2,000 students between 2006 and 2008 (from 18,208 in 2006 to 20,204 in 2008)” (MEHRD 2010a, p.76).

Furthermore, classroom conditions remain poor. The pupil: classroom ratio for CHSs has worsened, reflecting higher enrolments and relatively fewer classrooms. Learning materials are insufficient in quantity and quality. The textbook: pupil ratio is most favourable at primary schools where one child has 8 textbooks. However, the ratio increases with the level of education. The highest ratio is at National Secondary Schools where children do not even have 2 textbooks. In 2009 the overall textbooks to pupils’ ratio was slightly worsened in all education sectors compared to 2007. In the period

2007 to 2008 the ratio of textbook to the number of pupils went slightly down for primary sectors from 1/8.3 books to 1/8.1 students. In the CHS the ratio was 1/4.3 books to 1/3.7. Subsequently for PSS the ratio was 1/3 to 1/2 and for NSS it was 1/9 to 1/8 (MEHRD 2010b, p.68). Anecdotal evidence also shows that schooling is still not completely fee free because many schools impose a variety of charges on their students, some in a form of a school development fee or school contribution.

Besides, delivering high quality education requires trained and well qualified teachers. Many teachers in Solomon Islands remain untrained. The number of untrained teachers increased over time for primary education while it has decreased for ECE and Secondary (see figure 12).

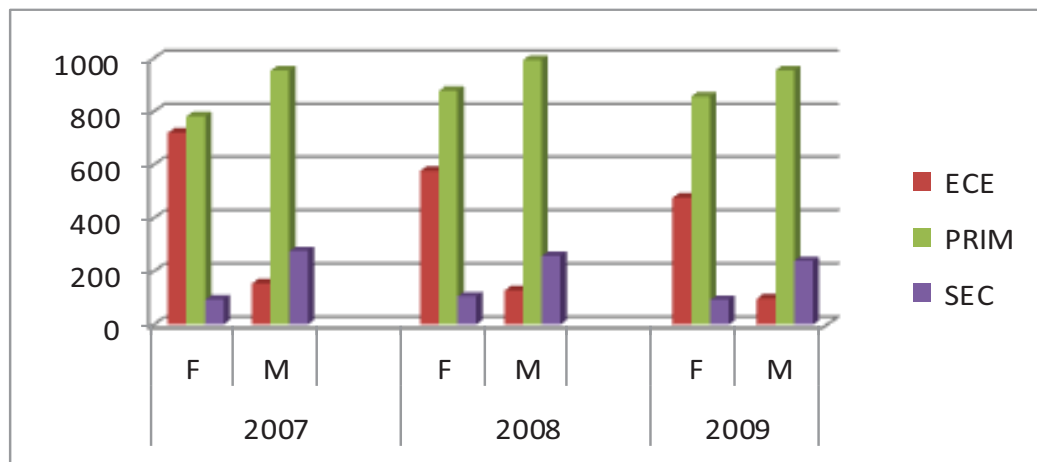


Figure 12: Total Number of Untrained Teachers from 2007-2009 (Source: MEHRD 2010b, p.56)

Teachers are essential for delivering education services and for improving student learning outcomes. The current capacity for teacher training provision (supply) appears

to fall well short of needs (demand). It appears that the number of unqualified ECE, primary and secondary teachers is very high. NEAP 2010 to 2012 revealed that about 15% of secondary teachers in 2008 were not qualified. This is especially a shortage of well trained and qualified teachers at the junior secondary level (MEHRD 2010a, p.77). This low level of untrained teachers reflects and is reflected in the low quality of education in the country.

Despite the written commitment within government policy to prioritizing basic education, there seems to be strong support for the retention of large amounts of resources for tertiary education, reflecting the reproduction of colonial and post-colonial elitism, as can be seen in Figure 13. The figure indicates the total budget by the Ministry of Education in sector allocation for 2006- 2008.

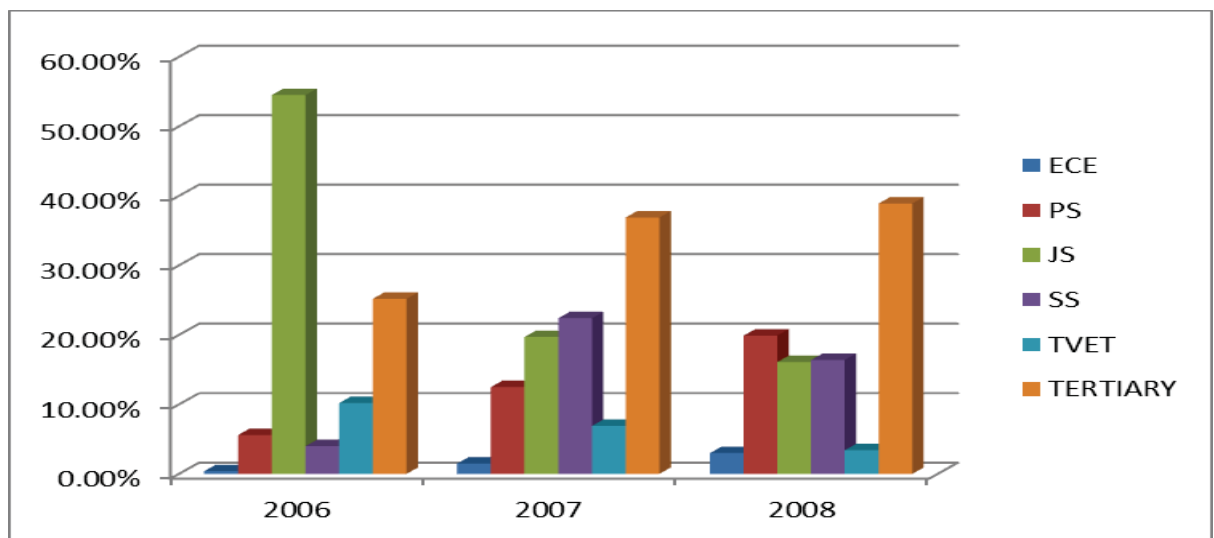


Figure 13: Total actual recurrent budget for education 2006-2008 (Source: MEHRD 2009b, p.59)

From the above statistics, it is evident that the education budgets remain skewed towards tertiary education. In this transitional period, the government had committed most of its resources to support tertiary education. Data above show tertiary education has the largest share of the budget. The Secondary sector, especially junior secondary had the largest share in 2006 but immensely receded in 2007 and 2008. The Ministry of Development Planning and Aid Coordinator (MDPAC) saw this contradiction stating that:

...the Education Sector Plan 2004-2006 (ESP) advocated prioritization of basic education and the shift of curriculum. This shift was occasioned by the increasing budgetary priority given to tertiary education, given that most students go overseas for university qualifications and an increasing perception of its lack of practical value combined with the realization that the vast majority of secondary students were being obliged to go through a narrowly focused academic programme, which was proving neither suitable nor practical (MDPAC 2010, p.3)

The *National Education Action Plan 2010 to 2012* itself reflected perhaps on an on-going predicament for the government of Solomon Islands. That is, whether it needs to continue to focus on a conflict-sensitive approach or whether it is time to move on to the more usual mode and way of life. This means that the country has adopted its colonial

education system. In its opening executive summary, *NEAP 2010 to 2012* noted that the main challenges for education are:

[The] need to prepare our young people for the world of work. If we are to prosper as a nation, we need to develop people with skills that are in demand in the work force. Too many of our young people do not persevere with the formal basic education system, or do not continue their schooling after Year 9. They need access after school to good quality employment-driven technical and vocational training in order to upgrade their skills. This plan has been designed to help those young people develop their skills and contribute to the country's economy (MEHRD 2010a, p.6)

The NEAP 2010 to 2012 is clear, however, that Solomon Islands education system is in transition from post-conflict recovery to socioeconomic development. One of the nine key strategies of NEAP is to strengthen, technical and vocational education and training and to ensure it is linked to labour demand in the workforce (MEHRD 2010a, p.11). Tertiary education is part of the national education system, and needs to feature in any overarching national education action plan. Policy will need to be developed to create an environment that is dynamic and responsive to the needs of students and employers (MEHRD 2010a, p.90). The question that arises from this is whether sustainable development in the education sector should prioritize some of the drivers of conflict. For

instance, should it address geographical educational inequalities, youth unemployment and skills rather than merely replicating a set of choices of educational reforms repeated and rolled out across low-income countries that prioritize growth before equity? That is, should there be a conflict-sensitive model of sustainable education development? Or should we return to the old colonial system of education that ultimately increases the chances of a return to conflict.

In reference to the ESP 2004 to 2006 and NEAP 2010 to 2012, the plan itself is not necessarily moving away from a conflict-sensitive approach to education, as potentially there are many issues included that attempt to redress the balance of social and geographical inequities that underpinned high level education disparity among citizens of Solomon Islands. The challenge is in the prioritization of which issues, particularly in an environment where optimistic budgets remain unachieved. To recap, the overarching goal of ESP 2004 to 2006 on which NEAP 2010 to 2012 was built, it stated that:

...to rehabilitate and reform the education system, it is essential to recognize traditional, social and cultural values, and the important stabilizing role of rural, village communities. Education was to (sic) re-anchored in the community, and while facilitating development of knowledge and skills needed for economic wellbeing and advancement, basic education should promote and develop positive aspects of village society (MEHRD 2004a, p.6)

From this critical review, it is clear that the focus was not really on community rehabilitation and integration. This is evident on the proportion of funding actually going to higher education, demonstrating the fact that tertiary institutions and education were prioritised over other sectors of education. Whether the Government is going to follow a peace building approach will be seen in the careful monitoring of the implementation, practice and distribution of resources, not in the policy document itself.

5.5 The Current Education Interventions

In this latest period and in response to the success of the expansion of the education system particularly with the curriculum design, it is defined in terms of subject content to learners' expected outcomes. There is a shift of emphasis from content based learning to outcomes based learning. The outcome based education model and curriculum approach is based on the achievement of learning out-comes through a learner centred, problem posing and multiple intelligence education philosophy (MEHRD 2011, p.1). This approach places the teacher as a facilitator of learning and learning is focused on each student's interests, abilities and learning styles.

Informants from the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) concur that Outcomes Based Education (OBE) is better because learners will acquire knowledge, understanding, skills, values and attitudes which will be useful to them later in life. Through the effort of providing EFA, basic education is fundamental to the introduction of a child to the

knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes necessary to prepare him or her to develop his or her potential in order to contribute fully to the community and to the nation (MEHRD 2011, p.17). The *Education Strategic Framework, 2007 to 2015* forms the basis for the programme. It conceptualizes educational interventions as operating in four core components: (i) basic education, (ii) levels and types of education, (iii) quality of education, and (iv) effective and efficient management strategy. However, the current education system is based on eight key learning outcomes: promotion of culture; lifelong learning; ethics and good governance; peace and reconciliation; technology; entrepreneurship; environment, conservation and climate change; and the development of the whole person. Details of these key learning outcomes can be found in Appendix 4.

Most school syllabuses from Early Childhood, Primary and Secondary Schools attempt to make contributions towards achieving each of these key learning outcomes. Each subject syllabus has been developed to meet the requirement of these learning outcomes. In the secondary school syllabus, the curriculum focuses on children in the formal education sphere. As one curriculum officer puts it, “the current curriculum is more precise than the previous one as it addresses the four main domains of learning, knowledge, understanding, skills and values and attitude. It addresses all these four main domains as they will also be assessed in them. Moreover, it takes a holistic approach on what student should achieve (CO1 interviewed 10 October 2011).

The current Syllabus is made for teachers to teach Years 7 to 9 in Secondary Schools throughout the country. It is developed as a guiding framework to meet the teaching and learning needs in all secondary schools. The programme of study presented in the syllabus contributes significantly towards the holistic development of the learner as an individual and the achievement of human integral development. Most informants believe that implementing this syllabus would help students to acquire relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes and values. It tries to address practical subjects like agriculture, technology, home economics and science. A tangible and practical subject orientation is best suited for the country's needs. In preparation for this programme, the Solomon Islands Government through the Curriculum Development Unit is providing tools and equipment to all CHS, PSS and NSS to assist teachers to teach these skills based subjects and students to take on practical subjects taught. It is recommended by one Curriculum Officer that students must experience hands on practice in all practical subjects or they will repeat the old practice of writing on the black board, which is more theoretical than practical. He also declared that MEHRD had supplied 149 CHSs with tools for the four practical subjects mentioned above. It is hoped that students will acquire practical skills through the assigned practical activities and if one cannot find a white collar job, they will make use of these skills. Besides, these skills are also important for the country's development in terms of trade courses (CO1, interviewed 10 October 2011).

Some informants claim that the current outcome based learning curriculum is much improved over the previous content based learning. The previous one has a very huge body of knowledge and most of its contents are not relevant to the country's context. The current syllabus is better because practical subjects are tested out in the field. One curriculum officer stated that "as it is an outcome based approach, attention is on the learners. It is believed that student centred learning is the most effective way of teaching because children will acquire those knowledge and understand it well" (CO2, interviewed 10 October 2011).

Books are written with the key learning out-comes as guidelines where all (text books) contribute to these key learning outcomes. The Subject Advisory Group assists to finalize the curriculum and write the school materials. "The materials are written by curriculum development officers. Later these are sent to a contractor to duplicate, print and supply the required number of copies. In this instance, we contracted Pearson Australia Group Pty Ltd. A total of 21 titles of books was expected to be sent to schools by the year 2012 and that teachers and students will be equipped with materials and text books" (CO1 interviewed 10 October 2011). " Pearson Schools have established a program with the Solomon Islands Government to publish learner books and accompanying teacher guides to support the implementation of the revised syllabus for Grades 1-9" (Pearson 2011, p.1).

Despite the well planned framework of the current syllabus, one gets the sense from the different interviewees that the education strategy is less about reconstruction and concerns itself with educating more children to satisfy the universal goal 'EFA'. It is more about broader discourses related to the general relationship between education and international development. MEHRD clearly stated that "the Government is committed to working to provide resources to support education in spite of the economic and financial challenges encountered, to prepare the young people for the world of work. If we are to prosper as a nation, we need to develop people with skills that are in demand in the work force"(2010a, p.6). This statement made in the NEAP was certainly controverting the argument of post-conflict recovery.

5.6 Defining the Role of Education in Post-conflict Society

Emphasis should be given especially in pre-service and in-service training to help teachers better understands child training development, psychological needs and cultural considerations. As Sutherland puts it, the role of the educator is like a gardener who provides a suitable environment and nourishment for the natural development of the individual (Sutherland 1988, p.14). The role of teachers in post-conflict situations is to assist young people to learn better ways of life and to give them more hope for a better future. They should train young Solomon Islanders to be good citizens and prepare them by transferring practical skills through coaching and mentoring from different levels of education and depending on the demand.

Teachers have the knowledge, skills and experiences that should enable them to guide their students' learning processes. They have expertise in their own profession and are able to teach students how to be peaceful citizens of the country. They could educate their students on peace building and the importance of coexisting in peaceful ways. Besides, they could teach their students to be good citizens by educating them about the negative aspects of conflict and emphasizing the positive sides of peaceful coexistence. Given that, many teachers expressed their role as mentors to assist young people learn better ways of life and to give them more hope for a better future. Their role in the post-conflict period in Solomon Islands is to facilitate, mediate and advocate for peace. They are role models and students believe in them. With this quality, they could be in the best position to change young people's mind-sets on conflict. One teacher described his role as a leader who would mentor students and inform them of the disadvantages of conflict and violence. He stressed that "it is important that students know about it so that they are aware that conflict is bad" (HSTSJNSS1, interviewed on 2 October 2011). Teachers should reach out to students to show them the dark sides of conflict and look at ways to prevent it.

Teachers could influence students to do good because they spend most of the school time with them. They can change the mind sets of youths that are affected by conflict because they are the ones who are usually present with and understand students' behaviour well. Therefore, it is apparent that educators are the right people to change young people's mind sets about conflict and encourage peaceful coexistence, because

they are knowledgeable and skilful in passing on worthwhile information to them. One respondent declared that “without teachers there can be no learning. Teachers are the foundation for successful education. They can read pupils’ minds and have the skills to transfer relevant information to affected students” (HSTAPSS1 interviewed 13 September 2011).

Dealing effectively with this issue is the most urgent priority facing the Solomon Islands education system if it wishes to achieve its goal of universal access to basic education and to improve the standard of educational achievement of its young people. Meeting the challenge of teacher supply and demand, the government is committed to addressing the issue of teacher training through a number of programmes and strategies. Such as upgrading skills of unqualified teachers in the service, provision of scholarship for teachers to study overseas and upgrading their qualifications through distance education and or summer schools such as offered at USP (a detailed list can be seen in chapter Appendix 3).

Responding to these arrangements, many teachers were sent to upgrade their skills locally and abroad. Figures below show the total number of in-service training (awarded) by the Education Authorities from 2007 to 2009. The year 2007 saw the highest number of supernumerary teachers in in-service training. In 2008 the total number of supernumerary teachers in in-service training has decreased compared to

2007 with 36.3% and the total number of supernumerary teachers in 2009 in in-service training further decreased compared to 2007 with 36.3% (see Figure 14).

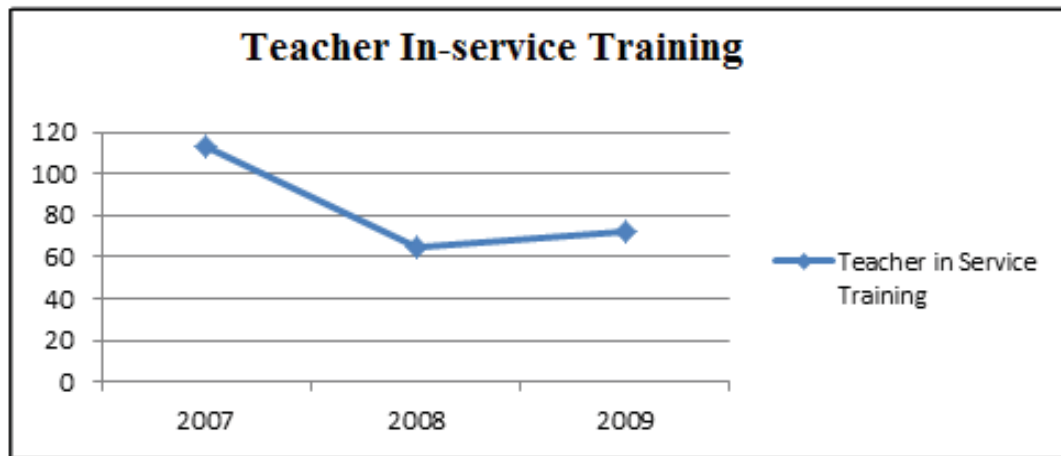


Figure 14: Teacher In-Service Training
2010b)

(Source: MEHRD

With the focus on the in-service training, the role of teachers is important in peacebuilding because teachers shape the minds and ideas of young people. A good teacher can make a real difference in children's life, transforming their horizons and their aspiration. A good quality education is important for the development of higher quality and qualified teachers.

The substantive content of education programs in post conflict contexts is significant. The Solomon Islands school curriculum has been an important catalyst and exception to this critique. The forms 1-3 social studies curriculum has a strand of peace building related topics. The syllabus highlighted social issues and resolution in Solomon Islands.

This strand focuses on the types of social issues and conflicts that affect society. It also includes ongoing challenges that require solutions by different leaders, communities and organizations to ensure peace, harmony and order in society. It begins by examining the types of local issues and conflicts that impacts on society. It then examines the methods of resolving these social issues and conflicts through reconciliation to ensure unity and the restoration of peace and harmony (MEHRD 2011b, p.4). The key learning outcome anticipated in this program is to develop positive attitudes and actions to ensure peace and reconciliation for progressive development of societies. Student are expected to develop knowledge and skills about practicing peace building between individuals, families and different ethnic groups through the process of reconciliation to ensure a peaceful and harmonious society (MEHRD 2011, p.7). One teacher reveals his experience in teaching the topic as follows.

It is very encouraging to teach this topic as we can see students from different ethnic backgrounds interact well in their discussions. They realized that conflict and violence are not good and can cause division among ethnic groups. In the process students learn the traditional methods of resolving conflict from their various ethnic groups (HSTMCHS1, interviewed 26 September 2011)

It is understood that in the Solomon Islands there are variations in mediating peace. For instance in in the Weather Coast of Guadalcanal, the peace process involves the

presentation of *talina* (shell money) and *chupu* a composition of food crops and fruits especially coconut and betel nut to be surrendered to each other for *laka*⁹ (peace) (personal interview, Erick Henry 2011). In class, students learn the way of mediating peace through role plays by comparing and contrasting their diverse peace making processes. Their involvement in class activities to mediate peace should help them to understand how to solve conflicts in real life. It also helped them to realize the negative effects of conflict and encourages them to promote peace and unity among students (HSTAPSS1 interviewed 13 September 2011)

5.7 Conclusion

The above discussion examined the role of education in peace building. It began by describing the education system during the colonial days, starting with the missionaries and the British Protectorate. The historical analysis demonstrated that the Solomon Islands education system mirrors the education system of its colonial master. For instance, the education system is mostly exam driven, producing an elite, and is also geographically uneven. High numbers of students who dropped out from the formal education system cannot fit in well with village life as they are not trained for basic life in the village.

⁹ The term for peace in the weather coast on Guadalcanal

The study also highlights the critical role of education in the aftermath of conflict: teachers', parents' and students' interviews show that most believed that education should and can contribute to the quest for sustainable peace. Currently the education system is undergoing significant restructuring and reform programmes. It is also developing a comprehensive curriculum geared towards outcome based learning. It is believed that outcome based learning will help to address the need to acquire knowledge, understanding, skills, values and attitudes that are useful to students later on in life. Despite these positive undertakings and a focus on universal basic education, the proportion of spending is still high for the tertiary sector, a reflection of a mismatch between policy and practice. The demand for more equitable education was a driver of Solomon Islands conflict and violence. Many children who dropped out of the education system found themselves not embraced by their communities, thus engaging in lawless activities. More importantly, the education system, devastated by the conflict and violence, badly needs prioritisation and reconstruction. From a peace building perspective, the role of education in shaping the minds and perceptions of young people is central and much more needs to be done through inclusive peace education initiatives and to address the massive geographical inequalities in the access and the quality of education in Solomon Islands. Let us now turn to chapter 6 to discuss the three key question highlighted in chapter 1 of this thesis.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

It is important that peace education be inserted in the formal school curriculum and it must continue. A peaceful society is what we all expect.
(Principal Education Officer Guadalcanal Province, 2 October 2011).

6.1 Introduction

Understanding the role of education in shaping society and reconstructing a national identity in post-conflict societies is a complex undertaking. Each post-conflict situation is unique. As outlined in Chapter 1, the research objectives are pursued by literature survey and fieldwork and the challenge is to respond the following three research questions. First, what are the impacts of the 1998 to 2003 ethnic tensions and violence on Solomon Islands and Solomon Islanders? Second, what is the role of education in peace building and social reconstruction? Third, what education programmes would ensure sustainable peace and development in Solomon Islands? This chapter responds to these three questions and highlights what needs to be done to encourage peace building and national unity. Moreover, it highlights possible directions for future research in this area.

The overall research approach was qualitative but the research methodology employed was not solely restricted to qualitative approach. It interweaved research tools from both qualitative and quantitative approaches in an attempt to ensure the production of valid,

reliable and justifiable data and results. Many researchers call this the 'triangulation approach'. For this study, the research tools adopted include a questionnaire survey, key informant interviews, informal discussions and focus group discussions.

Five schools in Guadalcanal, Solomon Islands were selected using purposive sampling. This sampling method was employed in conjunction with the research question that was not only aimed at finding statistical relationships or explaining the question of 'why', but also attempted to understand social processes and experiences. It also addresses the question of 'what' conflict experiences did the school community experienced during the conflict and post conflict period. Besides, ten key informants from the Guadalcanal Education Authority and MEHRD were interviewed to solicit the institutional dimensions of education. Furthermore, six students from each of the study schools were engaged in the focus group discussions. Teacher trainees, parents and school committee members were engaged in informal discussions on the impact of the conflict and violence and the role of education in peace building.

6. 2 Linkages of Theoretical Approaches to Findings

Two conceptual models that revolve around peace building were analyzed. These are education as a peace building tool and as a tool for social reconstruction. The basic principles of education for peace reflect its fundamental purpose, to construct the defences of peace in the minds of men and women. This is perceived as a

comprehensive humanitarian strategy for a post-conflict society that would minimize unemployment problems and provide young people who have been through the worst misfortune and even horrors, the tools to build a better life for themselves and a better future for their societies. Social reconstruction tasks include rebuilding civil society; resettling displaced peoples; revitalizing the community; establishing awareness of and support for basic human rights; and creating social trust across the lines of conflict transforming patterns of exclusion, inequality and oppression that fuel tension and fighting

Amidst these contested theoretical approaches, it became evident from this study that education can and has played a pivotal role in the process of peace building. The shift of emphasis from content based learning to outcomes based learning focuses on each student's interest, ability and learning style. The outcome based education model and curriculum approach is based on the achievement of learning out-comes through a learner centred, problem posing and multiple intelligence education philosophy. Outcomes Based Education (OBE) is better because learners will acquire knowledge, understanding, skills, values and attitudes which will be useful to them later in life.

Secondly the substantive content of education programmes in post conflict contexts is significant. The Solomon Islands school curriculum has been an important catalyst and exception to this critique. The forms 1-3 social studies curriculum has strand of peace building related topics. The syllabus highlighted the social issues and resolution in

Solomon Islands. This strand focuses on the types of social issues and conflicts affecting society that can become an ongoing challenge requiring solutions by different leaders, communities and organizations to ensure peace, harmony and order.

On social reconstruction, the study found that school buildings were reconstructed and closely monitored and supported by MEHRD. The reconstruction of schools was a clear sign to citizens of the state's presence. It was a signal that the state is there to deliver social services needed by the people. Moreover, it was also a sign that normality was returning and was a visible peace dividend. Schools in the Solomon Islands grew as it is one of the government's key strategies to provide education for all. A wide range of programmes were also initiated to re-settle displaced people into their original islands and villages under the AusAID's programmes for rehabilitation and reconstruction of post-conflict Solomon Islands. Support for small scale, community based projects that meet the reintegration, resettlement and rehabilitation needs of Solomon Islanders have been granted to the wider community

Finally, the study found that education has a direct link to peace building and social reconstruction, and development. It is clear from this study that education works as a medium for peace and social reconstruction where peace education is embedded in and through curriculum design and programmes. It addresses the knowledge, values, skills and behaviours needed to nurture a culture of peace. In the Solomon Islands, the maintenance and the delivery of education services during the post conflict period were

very successful and there were significant improvements for access and quality of primary and secondary education.

6. 3. Conclusions

From the literature reviewed, fieldwork undertaken and the analysis of these data in Chapter 4 and 5 on the impacts of the 1998 to 2003 conflict on the schools and communities, it is now possible to respond to the three major questions that the research sets out to investigate. Below are the conclusions that stem from the research analysis. The sections respond directly to each of the research questions raised. More importantly, it also outlines what needs to be done to encourage education for national reconstruction and unity.

6.2.1 What are the impacts of the conflict in the Solomon Islands?

The conflict and violence on Guadalcanal affected almost all essential services of the country. Law and order was greatly undermined at the height of the crisis. Those who possessed guns took over the legitimate power of government and terrorised the general populace. The whole country suffered because of lawlessness. The police, judiciary and other institutions and bodies with vested authority to provide and maintain law and order were unable to operate or were affected by the conflict. Extortion was common and civilians, especially women, children and the innocent, were harassed.

The inability of government institutions to uphold law and order was aggravated by a number of serious situations. For instance, in Chapter 4 of this thesis, an informer expressed the view that the attacks by militants changed their homes from havens of safety and security to an insecure site of potential violence. Militant walked into their village and forced them to live in the jungles. They torched people's homes, farms, shops and other business premises forcing people to escape to their provinces of origin. Danger, insecurity and injustice abounded during the conflict. As highlighted in Chapter 4, many people witnessed their loved ones tortured and slaughtered by militants. It was revealed as well that at least 200 people were killed and 20,000 displaced from the island of Guadalcanal at the height of the tension from 1998 to 2003. Many were kidnapped and tortured while some girls and women were allegedly raped. Chapter four (4) confirm that students, especially female students were kidnapped, taken away by militants and raped during the night and return them in the morning. One informant expressed that the militants walked into their village with fire arms and shoot aimlessly and forced them to leave their homes to live in the jungles. Besides, this thesis also tells tales where civilians faced immense danger, insecurity and injustice as articulate by a parent who watched his nephews tortured and murdered. A similar case was revealed in chapter four (4) where militants ambushed and took a young lad from another village, accused him for being a member of the Isatabu Freedom Movement and tortured him till death.

Service delivery was scant, especially in remote parts of the country but also in Honiara. Amidst these was education. Teachers were threatened to call off schools and many teachers gave up employment because of security risks. Beside, business owners gave up their operations and owners fled to the provinces for safety. Education service providers throughout the country experienced serious shortages of funds for operational costs including teachers' salaries. Those that were located in affected areas were threatened by outsiders who also interfered with school disciplinary procedures. Community members who aligned themselves with militants occasionally demanded compensation from schools on petty issues and schools had to pay because they did not have power to defend staff members from physical harm. Some schools had their important resources taken from them while others' infrastructure and facilities were damaged. A particular school on the Weather Coast of Guadalcanal had their water supply pipes linking the water source to the school removed by militants to manufacture homemade guns. Militancy basically affected the communal spirit that was once present in the rural communities as people became suspicious of each other.

One shocking account was also revealed by a teacher in chapter four when the Guadalcanal militants demanded the removal of all Malaitan teachers and students from the school. They promised to kill them if they did not leave. This thesis also described how the settlers of Malaitan origin on the east and western sides of Honiara were harassed and in some cases intimidated at gunpoint. Incidents of harassment took place at boarding schools as well, forcing many students to leave school early.

It was also exposed in this thesis that conflict and associated violence created job insecurity for the people of Solomon Islands. Most people gave up their jobs as the crisis heightened. One respondent confided that he was a victim of the crisis and escaped Honiara to his village for safety. The company suspended him without pay for being absent from duty for extended periods. Because of that, those who were once on paid employment could not afford to meet the cost of their children's school fees. Moreover, they could not raise money at that time of the conflict.

Lawlessness and violence continues to be experienced in some communities of Solomon Islands. Youths shifted their interest from classroom activities to criminal activities grouping up thugs who have experienced fighting in conflicts and who have developed aggressive behaviours. Youth behaviour and attitudes changed because of the conflict and these continue to affect the values and beliefs individuals and groups held dearly to prior to the conflict. Increased lawlessness is a direct consequence of the conflict. Unfortunately, this opened up a chance for some youths to resort to illegal and criminal activities as a means to enjoy life. Most informants agree that unlawful activities grew rapidly after the ethnic crisis. The negative effects of the ethnic tension which took place from 1997-2003 still exist in the present day Solomon Islands. People occasionally put up road blocks and demand compensation from people they are not happy with, a practice contrary to cultural practices.

Educators also encountered enormous challenges when they tried to continue to provide educational services. The crisis only exacerbated the already poor state of education services in the country. From the information gathered, most common challenges educators experienced in the aftermath of the tensions included: (i) lack of instructional materials and resources; (ii) overcrowding; (iii) educators' poor living conditions; (iv) student poverty; (v) student behaviour and attitude problems; and (vi) community interference. Most teachers expressed concerns over the challenges encountered in the post conflict period as well. These include poor classroom space where teachers cannot even monitor or evaluate classroom activities during classes. Poor living conditions for students are also a major challenge for educators the post conflict period. Students expressed concern over overcrowding in their dormitories. Moreover, there is regularly a shortage of school stationery and resource materials, meaning that in most cases students are unable to complete the academic therefore becoming repeaters every year. Some teachers also expressed their concerns for the worsening level of behaviour of students and corresponding weak disciplines in schools. Community participation is also generally poor and is worsening after the ethnic conflict in the country. People are not really putting much effort into school development activities. Many communities chose not to participate in school development activities as they are still in recovery mode.

6.2.2 What is the role of education in peace building?

The role of education in peace building and reconstructing post conflict societies like Solomon Islands is significant. It is evident in Chapter 4 that the impact of the 1998 to 2003 violence affected many people and cost many human lives. Homes and villages were burnt, schools closed and people lost their jobs as they escaped the violence. In Honiara and Guadalcanal, teachers escaped to other provinces for safety. Many schools on Guadalcanal were either burnt or damaged by militants. Increasingly, young people were involved in criminal activities and harassed women and children as described in Chapter 4.

It is therefore important to restate that the role of education is significant in peace building in countries that had experienced ethnic conflicts, such as Solomon Islands. Education is a vital tool for peace building that provides an avenue for social reconstruction. It is seen as an activity that promotes knowledge, skills and attitudes that will develop the positive behaviour of children to prevent the occurrence of conflict, to resolve disputes peacefully, or to create the social conditions conducive to peace. The Education for All (EFA) policy sees basic education as fundamental to the introduction of a child to knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes necessary to nurture his or her potential to contribute fully to the community and the nation. Therefore, the role of education is to teach and educate for peace and to allow children from all ethnic groups to participate and explore their own potentials. Chapter five (5) of this thesis revealed

that the role of education in peace building was developed by the national government and channel through the Education Authorities (EAs). The EAs vigorously attempted to provide education for those displaced by the conflict and ensured that emergency education provision was available to address both psychosocial and education needs. There were some important innovations and attempts to provide temporary respite for children and provide a protective environment for them. A practical example was in the design of the curriculum in 2003 that included peace education and provided certain measures to prevent and mitigate future conflicts in the country by infusing peace education into the curriculum.

However, appropriate programmes ought to be incorporated in the education curriculum to ensure peace and development, as outlined below. Apparently the present education strategy is not very clear on what should be prioritized in the post-conflict environment. Should the government return to the old colonial system of education or concentrate on inclusive peace education? Currently, Solomon Island has quickly returned to the general education programme that promotes development. As noted in Chapter 5, the government is committed to preparing young Solomon Islanders for the world of work. Lacking are an education programme that deals with reintegration, and a learning programme for students who missed out on education during the years of conflict. Lacking also is psychosocial support or trauma counselling in the country. Education and training focus on the demands of development. In other words, the education system trains citizens to meet their individual, regional and international needs for knowledge

and skills that would enable them to be competent in their work places. In order to influence the peace building agenda in the education sector in post-conflict Solomon Islands, there must be a peacebuilding lens at all stages of policy and programming. We must be able to articulate a coherent vision of the role of education in peace building. This will require capacity-building interventions across the national ministry of education and training, the education authorities, schools and other stakeholders to develop a coherent peace building approach to education.

It should also be pointed out that training undertaken at vocational level is geared towards examinations and formal employment. There has been a shift of emphasis from basic village life skills towards examination based and oriented programmes. Consequently, most students of vocational schools have high expectations of finding highly paid jobs in towns after graduation, as highlighted in Chapter 5. It is important that the approach and curriculum in this sector should be more vocational based to avoid the examination oriented approach.

The number of untrained teachers had also increased over the years. Untrained teachers remain relatively high in all levels of the education sector. Teachers are crucial in the delivery of education services to improve students' learning outcomes. The current capacity for teacher training (supply) appears to fall well below the need (demand) for teachers in the country. The role of teachers is important in peacebuilding because teachers shape the minds and ideas of young people. As highlighted in Chapter 5 a good

teacher can make a real difference in children's life, transforming their horizons and their aspiration. A quality education is important for the development of a quality and qualified teachers.

Given Solomon Islands' weak economic prospects, the high annual population growth rate (2.3%) and large youth population, the government is unlikely to be in a position to meet growing demands for education in the medium term. There is a need to strengthen the relationship with donors to continue their commitments to fund teacher training, school infrastructure and curriculum materials in order to sustain its population's growing demand for education. Ensuring the continuity, effectiveness and efficiency of the program, the Solomon Islands Government needs to strengthen its own budget allocation and prioritise education as a way forward for peacebuilding and social reconstruction.

In spite of the emphasis on increasing access to and improvement in the quality of education, very little attention is invested in assessing how schools could understand and teach about issues that are critical to nation building and national unity. These are subjects that focus on societal and international values that reinforce social cohesion, citizenship, human rights, peace, unity, and reconciliation. Below is an elaboration of these issues and the type of education programmes that could facilitate peace, unity and development in Solomon Islands.

6.2.3 What education programmes would facilitate peace, national unity and development in Solomon Islands?

The analysis gave rise to the conclusions that developments in the education sector are not efficient and forward looking. There are many outstanding issues that must be addressed and there is need to redirect the attention of curriculum to issues of national unity and reconstruction after the years of civil strife. The intention in this section is to suggest ways of addressing prominent education issues based on the findings of the research. These suggestions on an appropriate education policy and curriculum are aimed at nurturing peace and social reconstruction of the Solomon Islands society and its people.

Firstly, the education policy needs to be precise in articulating education philosophy that is relevant to the national context. A policy that addresses reintegration and accelerated learning programmes for students who missed out on education during conflict is important. The demand for more equitable education to address access and equality for both males and females was clearly a driver of Solomon Islands' recent conflict. This is important because it prepares young Solomon Islanders for adult roles and responsibilities in their communities. The policy should clearly state and prescribe ways of acquiring valuable positive cultural values. It should also give space for the use of local knowledge in peace building and the cultural processes of reconciliation. Revised curricula and syllabus ought to include themes like peace building, co-operation, reconciliation and problem solving. These should accompany methodologies to impart

such values and skills through drama, art, music and storytelling. Moreover, these local values should complement global values like, human rights, gender equality, environmental friendly values and the teaching of international humanitarian law in social science and history programmes at the primary up to junior secondary schools. Incorporating these values is of paramount importance when examining changes to the education policy.

Second, peaceful inter-ethnic coexistence should be placed at the core of education policy and practise at all levels. Peace education is a tool for both conflict prevention and national unity. It is crucial from the start to define clearly what is meant by peace and what models of social coexistence are being envisaged in the curriculum. Ultimately, the curriculum has to accommodate how peace education is conceived; what activities are included, the content of printed education materials focusing on peace; the process of developing materials; the targeted audience; and the means of reaching that audience. Once implemented, comprehensive evaluation of such initiatives would be instituted to capture lessons learned and recommend improvements.

Third, curriculum development, teacher training and new and revised textbooks used in schools throughout the country should inform students of the underlying cause of the 'ethnic tensions'. These may include issues such as traditional land tenure systems, illiteracy, *wantok* and ethnic identities, unfair distribution of national wealth, respect, and various features of patrilineal and matrilineal societies that exist in the country. The

curricula should reflect the best of national identity in terms of worthwhile knowledge, skills, belief systems and values. This is important because curriculum makes assumptions, not only about teachers and learners but also about knowledge, the nature of learning, and the ways people behave. This was a concern that was evident in the education sector. From the tensions, land ownership, access and distribution of resources were hotly debated and were singled out as major root causes of overt violence. Equally important are issues concerning evolving education and training issues, especially the debate over the teaching of traditional customs and skills versus the use of standard Western curricula that are currently dominant in the country's school curriculum. The Western models of education and academic curricula have an equally long and contentious history. The teaching to the local context to the perceived needs of indigenous people is of paramount concern where awareness of traditional rights over lands acquisition is debated. The innovation of a school curriculum that will teach the young to re-integrate into village life as productive citizens and to understand their rights, particularly over land is significant.

Fourth and closely related is teacher education and training. Such trainings ought to be encouraged for teacher proficiency and competence that would enable and empower their skills to meet the requirements of the profession and face accompanying challenges. This would ensure better understanding of children's training, development and psychological needs and also cultural considerations. Teachers are experts in their own field and are able to teach students how to be peaceful citizens of their

communities. It is important to train teachers, in both pre-service and in-service training and in other aspects of teacher development on the aforementioned core values that encourage unity and peaceful coexistence. This will help them improve their ability to transfer worthwhile knowledge to their students.

Fifth, there is a need to revisit the vocational training materials and contents base to avoid it being the exact mirror image of the formal education stream. It would be useful for the National Education Board (NEB), research institutes and related organizations to develop curricula and teaching materials for vocational training rooted on a curriculum that is more practically oriented. They should avoid paper examination based assessment and grading systems oriented towards finding white collar jobs. Their assessment should be based on building communities with the expertise they get from vocational training. Nevertheless, graduates from vocational schools should be able to collaborate with the academic community on specific research and evaluation skills.

Finally, in order to address community disharmony and disintegration, education programmes and awareness on the rights and ownership of the school by the community should be provided for parents and adults. This is especially needed in communities that have low levels of ownership of schools and those areas that frequently experienced destruction and vandalism of school infrastructure. In communities where lawlessness is prominent, it is crucial to train community leaders on aspects of peace building and conflict prevention because of the status and respect they hold in their own communities.

Traditional methods of discussion and dispute resolutions could be encouraged at the community level. It may also be important to engage young people in productive work to keep them away from criminal activities and lawlessness in the villages.

6.3 Concluding remarks and directions

The role of education in peace building in Solomon Islands is important for reconciliation, rehabilitation and the reintegration of young citizens into their own communities. The education sector has the capacity and an important role to play in the rebuilding process. As Isaac (1999) said, “peace education is seen as activities that promote the knowledge, skills and attitudes that will allow people of all ages, and at all levels, to develop the behaviour changes that can prevent the occurrence of conflict, resolve conflict peacefully, or create the social conditions conducive to peace” (1999, p.2). To be able to drive the peace building agenda, the government must develop peace building lenses at all stages of policy and programming. It must be able to articulate a coherent vision of the role of education in peace building and social reconstruction. This will require capacity building interventions across the education system from headquarter to field offices; to develop a coherent peace building approach in schools and communities that were affected by conflict and violence. In doing so, the following three points need to be considered.

The study found that the nature of peace building is crucial to define the possibilities for social reconstruction through education policy. As Tawil and Harley (2004) point out, “[t]he nature of the political settlement, whether internally developed or externally imposed, has implications for the nature of political will to reform education, as well as for the construction or consolidation of legitimating mechanisms which give education policymakers a mandate for change” (2004, p.14). During the conflict in Solomon Islands, educational services were badly affected and the quality of education deteriorated.

In addition, it was found that making structural reforms that enhance political processes that are inclusive and participatory is vital to promote peace building and social reconstruction. For Solomon Islands, the following areas of the education system need to improve: (i) institutional setting for curriculum development that is practically oriented and locally suited; (ii) the nature of donor involvement (where relevant); and (iii) their combined implications for reform.

Moreover, it is also found that curriculum policy is part of a broader process for peace building and social reconstruction which implies a sustainable peace education approach. Schools must use a non-biased curriculum and educational materials that are relevant to the children’s backgrounds and contexts. Reforming the curriculum after the conflict is an opportunity to improve the overall quality of education in the country. Attention to curricula is important “to avoid reproducing contents that at worst have

contributed to conflict and, at best, have done nothing to prevent it (Wedge 2008, p. 20). Poor curriculum design may be one of the significant contributing factors for such a state of education in the country.

Finally, making school environments favourable places to learn and away from the influences of conflict and violence is important. Schools must be seen as places for individual and intellectual development where the respect for universal human rights is nurtured. As Wedge succinctly put it, “attacks on students, teachers and school administrative staff personnel leave long-lasting fear and distrust. [Thus] to build sustainable peace and overcome these fears it is essential that schools, children and teachers are fully protected in a variety of ways” (2008, p. 18). The focus of the national curriculum should be to emphasise the values of cooperation and tolerance of cultural differences that would help overcome prejudicial stereotypes that opportunistic leaders routinely use for their own destructive ends.

The study found that peace education have not been nurtured nor fully promoted in Solomon Islands since the introduction of the current education system. This was partly due to the inadequacy of curriculum resources, approaches, methods and models. This inadequacy was due to the successive governments’ commitment to and emphasis on other priority areas with little attentions to the needs of the education sector. If education is to promote peace building and social reconstruction in schools and communities throughout Solomon Islands, research and innovation for effective peace

education models and approaches ought to be an on-going mission for all education stakeholders. Likewise, the National Education Board would do well by re-focusing the emphasis of vocational educational training on practical re-oriented programmes that would then change the mind-set of the trainees.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Issue and constraints affecting the educational Sector, Solomon Islands

Education Sector	Issues and constraints affecting Education Sectors in the Solomon Islands include:
ECE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The difficulty communities have in affording financial support for ECE; • A lack of trained ECE teachers; • A lack of quality learning resources and equipment; • Poor facilities in existing ECE centres, and very few ECE spaces specifically Designed with the needs of young children in mind; and • A general lack of awareness of the benefits of early childhood education.
Primary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A shortage of trained teachers; • Variable teacher professionalism among staff, with problems including unauthorised teacher absenteeism and little opportunity to upgrade teaching skills through in-service training; • Lack of support, monitoring, coaching from EA's to teaching staff • Poor facilities (including inadequate water supply, poor sanitation and teacher housing at many schools); and • A relatively high drop out and low completion rate
Junior Secondary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A lack of classroom spaces at existing junior secondary schools; • A lack of curriculum resources and equipment, in particular of tools for practical subjects; • A lack of boarding facilities in the existing community high schools; • A shortage of trained teachers in some subject areas, in particular for practical subjects; • The deteriorating state of school buildings; • A lack of specialised classrooms e.g. for home economics, science, and technology; • Gender imbalance in enrolments; and • The geographical location of current community high schools hinders day schooling for many children. • Quality of teaching and learning
Senior Secondary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High gender imbalance in enrolments into year 10, and inequitable access for girls; • Very poor facilities, both academic and boarding; • A lack of curriculum resources and equipment, in particular tools for the practical subjects; • A shortage of qualified trained subject teachers; in particular for practical subjects and • Limited space at the senior secondary level.
Tertiary Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relatively low participation in all forms of tertiary education and training in the Solomon Islands • Lack of linkage of tertiary education and training to labour market demand in the Solomon Islands • Inefficiency and high costs because tertiary education is mostly provided overseas (SICHE excepted) • Lack of financial control and discipline over the annual allocation of scholarships • No independent national quality assurance mechanisms in place • Ineffective curriculum development in most faculties of SICHE (School of Education excepted) • Inefficiency and poor management generally in Solomon Islands tertiary education institutions (USP excepted)
TVET	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of linkage between the demand for education and training in the labour force and the training currently offered in the TVET and non-formal education sector; • Limited spaces available at TVET centres; • Limitations on the range, diversity and quality of courses offered; • Lack of curriculum materials and suitable curricula; • Lack of specific teacher training for practical subjects at secondary schools; • Lack of centralised data about the non-formal education sector; • Non-availability of resources, equipment, tools and proper facilities.

Source: MEHRD 2010a

Appendix 2: Major strategies adopted by the ESRP 2007-2009 for the Solomon Islands education sector

ACCESS

1. To increase access to all levels of education by provision of an adequate number of schools or centres and other school infrastructure, guided by school infrastructure programmes which include provision of an adequate number of classrooms, desks, dormitories, and other infrastructure;
2. To increase access to all levels of education by provision of financial support (grants and other specific financial support) from government and other stakeholders;
3. To improve equal access to all levels of education for students and people with special needs;
4. To improve equal access to all levels of education for girls and boys by improving the gender balance, the quality of basic education and decreasing drop-outs, in particular for those in isolated locations

QUALITY

1. To develop, revise or finalise appropriate policies for the different sub sectors or cross cutting areas by continuing the work of the technical working groups on policy;
2. To improve quality at all levels of education by provision of an adequate number of qualified teachers and other workers in the education sector, preferably through distance and flexible learning modes;
3. To improve quality at all levels of education by developing, distributing and using relevant, high quality and modern national and local school curricula;
4. To improve quality at all levels of education by provision of an adequate number of modern, relevant teaching and learning materials, facilities, and equipment
5. To provide on-going professional development for all education staff, ideally through distance and flexible learning;
6. To monitor and assess standards of student literacy, numeracy and progress in other subjects;
7. To continue with the revision of the inspectorate framework and approach
8. To strengthen community participation in education, community awareness on school committees and boards, and the formulation and implementation of whole school development plans;

MANAGEMENT

1. To manage the sector-wide approach to education the basis for provision of adequate technical and financial support to the NEAP, with the aim of improving service delivery at all levels, harmonising support, and actively involving an increased number of stakeholders (National, Provincial, Government, Education Authorities, Development Partners, and NGOs);
2. To develop coherent and outcome oriented budgeting, planning and reporting in a timely way;
3. To improve a Monitoring and Evaluation Framework that includes a strengthened use of SIEMIS, an updated Performance Assessment Framework and specific research;
4. To strengthen the role of Provincial Government and Education Authorities in planning, implementing, monitoring and (financial)reporting on the *National Education Action Plan 2010-2012* and *Provincial Education Action Plans 2010-2012*;
5. To continue the development and implementation of a programme of Human Resource Development and capacity building; and
6. To develop an improved teacher management system and more efficient teacher management processes.

Source: MEHRD 2010a

Appendix 3: Strategies for upgrading the skills of unqualified teachers

- Field-based training (the “Teachers-in-Training “(TIT) scheme) to upgrade the skills of unqualified teachers in the service;
- Initiation of programmes to up-skill existing teachers;
- Targeted (and bonded) scholarships for primary and secondary teachers to study overseas, who then return to teach in the Solomon Islands;
- Support for teachers who enroll in University of the South Pacific (USP) programmes to upgrade their qualifications (distance education, summer schools, etc);
- Specific training programmes to support multi-grade teaching in primary and secondary schools, especially for teachers in areas where student numbers are not large; and
- Approaches to donors for assistance with a specific proposal for field-based teacher support and/or a teacher development Programme, especially if the proposal involves upgrading unqualified teachers.

Sources: Catherwood 2007, p.6

Appendix 4: The eight key learning outcomes

Key learning Outcomes	
I.	Culture promotion- Awareness of the Solomon Islands culture; in particular the promotion of concept of unity in diversity, the need for equity, and inclusiveness in our community and societies.
II.	Lifelong learning- Realisation that learning is a lifelong experience; encouragement of innovation creativity, and a positive view of learning after school.
III.	Ethics and good citizenship- Development of position moral and ethical values, with respect to others, based on personal integrity, leadership and social responsibility, focus on value education civics and citizenship.
IV.	Peace and reconciliation- Development of positive moral and ethical values with the mind and heart to create peace, reconciliation and able to live in harmony in multi-ethnic and diverse communities and societies.
V.	Technology- Use of appropriate traditional and modern technology to improve community standards in our communities and society
VI.	Entrepreneurship- Development of entrepreneurial skills for making a living through initiative and creativity in our communities and society
VII.	Environment, Conservation and Climate Change- Development of positive attitude need value towards the preservation and conservation of the environment, and adaption and management of the effects of climate change. This include understanding of hazard and planning, and management of the impacts of disaster
VIII.	Development of the whole person- Development of the whole person including social, physical, mental and spiritual life of the individual, environment and health awareness and good health practices.

Source: MEHRD 2011, p.22

Code No.			

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RESEARCH INTERVIEW ADMINISTER TO
SCHOOLS AND SURROUNDING COMMUNITY**

**The Impact of the ethnic conflict and violence and the role of education in
peacebuilding: A case study of the Solomon Islands**

This research is conducted to try and investigate the impacts of ethnic conflict and violence in schools of the Solomon Islands. The aim of the study is to identify the impact of ethnic conflict and violence in the Solomon Islands and how can education be able to contribute to peace and development of Solomon Islands.

The finding from this research will help to : (i) improving the design and delivery of the Educational program in the schools of the Solomon's; (ii) it will enhance the process of peace and social reconstruction in an effort to rebuild confidence and normalcy to a post conflict society, (iii) it will have proper linkages to the overall National educational policies of the country; (iv) it will provide an operational framework in which the overall educational programme or curriculum of the country can be effectively and efficiently carried out to bring about, peace and progress for a nation that has been marred by successive waves of social conflicts.

I would like to inform you that all of your response will be treated confidentially. Your participation and honesty is appreciated in anticipation of the success of this study.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Questionnaire identification

Questionnaire Number;.....

Date;.....

Interview/Self-administer

Please tick (✓) or answer the questions applicable to you,

1. What is your Name? (optional)

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.....

2. Your Gender

a. Male ☐

b. Female ☐

3. How old are you?

4. Marital Status:

a. Married ☐

b. Single ☐

c. Separated ☐

d. Divorced ☐

e. Widowed ☐

5. Educational Status:

a. Not literate ☐

b. Primary level ☐

c. Secondary Level ☐

d. Tertiary level ☐

6. Occupation:

a. Teacher ☐

b. Education officer ☐

c. Student ☐

d. Policy Advisors ☐

e. Education authorities ☐

f. Chief Education Officer, Guadalcanal Province ☐

g. Chief Education Officer Secondary ☐

h. Staff of the National Curriculum ☐

i. Community leaders ☐

j. Others ☐

7. If others Please explain

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8. Are you aware of the ethnic conflict and violence on Guadalcanal?
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9. If yes. What do you think is the cause of this ethnic conflict and violence?
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10. What happen to the student at that time of the conflict?
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11. What happened to the teachers?
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12. What happened to the school infrastructure?
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13. Who do you think is responsible for these effects?
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14. What are some of the challenges that had been experience in schools during the post-conflict period?

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15. Are you aware of any effort previously made towards peace education?

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16. If yes, by which institution?

- a. Government (MEHRD),
- b. Community Leaders,
- c. RAMSI,
- d. Education Authority,
- e. NGO,
- f. Church organization
- g. Any other

17. How would you characterize the role of education in a post conflict society?

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18. In your opinion, do you think peace education could be used as a means to change young generation of post conflict society mind patterns on ethnic conflict and violence?

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19. If yes, in what way will education help to change their mindset?

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20. What do you think the role of educator in a post-conflict society?

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21. In your opinion, do you think educator could be used as a means to change the mind set of students in a post-conflict society?

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22. If yes, in what way will educator help to change their mindset?

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23. Any comments or suggestion?

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Thank you for answering the questions

Appendix 6: List of documents

1. Education Division biannual reports
2. Early childhood education.
3. Inspectors and contact visits reports
4. National education Policy 2009
5. Secondary school Development Plan 2011-2012
6. Education sector structure reform pilot project Review
7. Teachers handbook 2012
8. Teachers roll
9. Students roll
10. Whole school development Plans
11. School profile
12. Minutes of the staff meeting
13. Minutes of the BOM meetings
14. National Curriculum Handbook (Reviewed)
15. Social Science Syllabus (Reviewed)