

<http://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/>

Research Commons at the University of Waikato

Copyright Statement:

The digital copy of this thesis is protected by the Copyright Act 1994 (New Zealand).

The thesis may be consulted by you, provided you comply with the provisions of the Act and the following conditions of use:

- Any use you make of these documents or images must be for research or private study purposes only, and you may not make them available to any other person.
- Authors control the copyright of their thesis. You will recognise the author's right to be identified as the author of the thesis, and due acknowledgement will be made to the author where appropriate.
- You will obtain the author's permission before publishing any material from the thesis.

THE CONTROL OF POST-PRIMARY SCHOOLS

To understand this issue, it is necessary to review the pre-1940 situation, with special reference to the post-primary school controlling authorities, and to the significance of Fraser's Education Amendment Bill 1937. As indicated in chapter 3, secondary and combined schools had their own boards of governors,¹ while technical schools and district high schools were controlled by their district education board. In practice, the education boards delegated most of their powers in respect of technical schools to the individual schools' boards of managers. The Education Amendment Bill 1937 was analysed in the first section of chapter 4. This analysis showed that the main thrust of the Bill was to establish unified district control of all primary, intermediate, secondary, combined, and technical schools, with the existing governing bodies of the post-primary schools replaced by school councils having greatly reduced powers. In the event, the war intervened, and the Government did not proceed with the Bill. However, though shelved, the Bill was not withdrawn; unified district control of primary and post-primary education continued to be Labour Party policy for many years.

This was the situation in 1940, when a new school, Horowhenua College, was due to be opened. The type of control this school was to have presented the Government with a dilemma. As Campbell explained:

To have given [Horowhenua College] an independent board would have invited the comment that the 1937 Bill had been completely abandoned; on the other hand the Government did not wish to commit itself finally to district unification of control.²

The only alternative was to constitute the school a technical school so that it could be placed under the control of an education board,³ at least for the time being. By adopting this course of action, the Government created the anomalous situation of a multi-lateral post-primary school being conducted under technical school regulations. This anomaly was compounded when the same arrangements were made in 1945 for the control of Avondale College, the next post-primary school to be opened. The problem had still not been resolved when the secondary departments of a number of district high schools became large enough to justify their being granted full post-primary status. As a result, Matamata College and Tauranga College (1946), and Northcote College, Te Awamutu College and Northland College (1947) were all set up under the regulations governing technical schools, and placed under the control of the Auckland Education Board.⁴ By 1948, this Board was controlling seven post-primary schools,⁵ and the indications were that it could be responsible for many more within the following two or three years.

It was against this background that, in 1948, the Department of Education, with the full agreement of the Auckland Education Board, asked the New Zealand Council for Educational Research to authorise its Director, A.E. Campbell, to conduct a survey of the control of post-primary schools in the Auckland district. The Department considered that the Auckland Education Board, with so many post-primary, primary, and intermediate schools under its control, had virtually been engaged for some years in an experiment in unified district control;⁶ Beeby deemed that "... the time had come to assess the results".⁷ Campbell took as his control group all the other post-primary schools in the Auckland district,⁸ so that his survey

covered a very wide range of schools. His purpose was to determine the outcome of the Auckland Education Board's stewardship in respect of the post-primary schools it controlled "in terms of [its] possible bearing on the policy to be applied throughout New Zealand".⁹ After pursuing his enquiry for two months, Campbell reached three main conclusions. First:

The balance of advantage is against bringing all post-primary schools under the jurisdiction of regional boards, and as a general rule it would be best to give each school a board of its own with direct access to the Education Department.¹⁰

However, Campbell did propose some modifications to the current system. These included improved arrangements for servicing schools in matters like the provision of secretarial and financial services, and the supply of equipment. He also suggested that the local education board should continue to control the secondary departments of district high schools which were translated to full post-primary schools for a period of, say, three years. Second:

The typical school has ... more to gain from a board of its own - a board that is concerned wholly and solely with the welfare of that school and that is in close touch with its principal - than from a board controlling several schools.^{11,12}

Once again, Campbell emphasised that "the existence of separate boards is not inconsistent with an economical organization of clerical work or with the servicing of schools by district agencies".¹³ He did not rule out the possibility of boards controlling more than school, but suggested that no school should be left under such an arrangement if it preferred a board of its own. Third:

The responsibility for the general planning of post-primary education should rest, as it largely does at the present time,

with the Department of Education The degree and kind of centralization we have appears to be quite compatible with a large amount of educational liberty.¹⁴

In effect, Campbell came out firmly against "embarking on a scheme of administrative re-organization¹⁵ that would involve a considerable disruption of established relationships, and that offers no reasonably sure prospect of substantial educational gains".¹⁶ Campbell's conclusions have been set out here in some detail because they were certainly heeded by the Labour Government, as well as by Algie, who, during his eight-year reign as Minister of Education, beginning in December, 1949, introduced many legislative measures dealing with the control of post-primary schools, almost all of which bore the stamp of Campbell's thinking on the issue.

As the number of post-primary schools increased, it became clear to the Government and to departmental officials that, however much they might favour local control, a single school with its own board of governors simply did not have the means to provide itself with adequate administrative services. Also, in the absence of any overall controlling agency, such matters as zoning and long-term planning inevitably feel back on the Department, thereby undermining the concept of local control. The authorities were also aware of two other factors. First, 1947 was not 1937. When he formulated his original Bill, Fraser could not possibly have envisaged the extent to which post-primary education would expand. Even the twelve education boards the Bill provided for would have been hard pressed to control adequately the rapidly growing number of post-primary schools in their districts, in addition to carrying out all their other responsibilities. Second, the post-primary sector had always strongly

resisted any move which would jeopardise its autonomy, or curtail its powers and its privileges, particularly the right of direct access to the Department. It was, therefore, in no way surprising that the post-primary schools should be opposed to unified local control. The way out of the dilemma lay in a system which would preserve the element of local control while, at the same time, enabling the schools, through amalgamation, to make better provision for developmental planning, clerical and accounting services, salary payments, and the ordering of equipment. The Minister stated the problem, and provided the answer, in his Report for 1948:

A problem in educational administration is to reconcile the need for the greatest degree of local participation with the necessity for central direction of education policy It is highly desirable that there should be individual local interest in and control of each school, but at the same time it is also, I think, necessary to have one controlling authority concerned with the more general problems of educational development and coordination in each urban area. The new arrangement in Christchurch, established in terms of the Education Amendment Act 1948, is designed to meet that need. Each of the two technical schools and each of the four high schools is governed by a board of managers; and a central board of governors on which each board of managers is represented, is charged with general oversight of the coordination and advising the Government on the development of post-primary educational facilities in the Christchurch urban area.¹⁷

Under the Christchurch system:

1. The control of each school rests with the Board of Governors of that school.
2. The Boards of Governors established the Council and appoint a representative from each school to the Council.
3. A Council is required by the Act to apply all property and moneys it holds on behalf of a school in such manner as the Board of Governors of the school directs.

4. Money raised by local effort for any school is not held by the Council unless the Board of Governors so directs.
5. The Council is required to maintain a central office and staff to perform the clerical and accounting work for Boards of Governors of schools.
6. The Council itself may co-opt two to four members.
7. The Council, as it usually includes all schools in the area, makes recommendations to the Minister regarding the provision of new schools in its area, and generally concerns itself with overall planning and matters of common interest.¹⁸

The setting up of the Christchurch Post-Primary Schools' Board of Governors¹⁹ was well received by the six schools affected. They considered that the creation of autonomous boards for each school, in particular, would bring considerable benefits. One advantage, noted by the centennial historian of Christchurch Boys' High School, was that : "As its (the board's) meetings were always held at the school, the governing body was brought into closer contact with its life and problems than was possible under the old regime."²⁰ The former controlling authority of four of the schools, the Canterbury University College Council, continued to be represented on the boards of those four schools. Each school board also had three (later, four) parents' representatives; on the boards which controlled the girls' schools there had to be at least one woman representing the parents.²¹ After the Christchurch system of control and servicing had been working satisfactorily for four years, the Government introduced the Education Amendment Act 1953, which

... set out to meet the administrative problems arising from the establishment of so many new post-primary schools by making it possible for three or more schools to have their own boards of governors, subject, for certain over-all but limited purposes, to the control of a single Post-primary Schools' Council. This is the system which has been tried out experimentally in Christchurch since 1948, and which has proved singularly successful.²²

However, in spite of the strenuous efforts of Beeby and others, secondary school boards (even those in urban areas which were very well placed to accept the scheme) remained unwilling to adopt the Christchurch system. They were afraid that the new arrangement would deprive them of the control of their schools, even though the 1948 and 1953 Acts specifically precluded this eventuality. Once the 1953 Act was in place, Beeby embarked on a renewed campaign to persuade boards of governors in other areas to accept the Christchurch system. He was aware that there was a growing movement towards single board control, and he considered that this development, coupled with the rapid increase in the number of new schools, "... raised to a new intensity the long-standing problem of finding a rational system of control for post-primary schools".²³ In his Report for 1954, he went on to say:

Encouraged by the success of the experiment tried in Christchurch, the Department has been urging certain districts to adopt some form of the Christchurch system It is, perhaps, a sign of intense local interest in each school that no district has yet agreed to follow the Christchurch plan, but the alternative of allowing every school to have its independent board has very real dangers. A single school is usually not big enough to justify the appointment of a well qualified full-time secretary, and the fragmentation of controlling bodies can scarcely fail to thrust onto the Department powers and responsibilities that would be better exercised locally.²⁴

In his next Report (1955), the Director again stressed the drawbacks of each school having its own board; once more, he commended the "scheme of separate boards linked to a central council, which has

proved so successful in Christchurch".²⁵ Although Beeby's vigorous advocacy of the Christchurch system fell largely on deaf ears, he did have the satisfaction of seeing one more Council set up in his time as Director. As from 1 April, 1957, the Wellington Colleges and Girls' High School Board of Governors was replaced by the Wellington Post-primary Schools' Council; separate boards of governors were set up for the control of Wellington College, Wellington Girls' College, Rongotai College, and Wellington East Girls' College.²⁶ Some of the credit for the establishment of the Wellington Post-primary Schools' Council most go to the individual Wellington schools, which had been pressing for autonomous control for some time.²⁷ However, the new Council did not include all of the post-primary schools in the Wellington area. Onslow parents held out for their own board when a post-primary school was opened there in 1956.²⁸ As had happened at Christchurch in 1949, the individual schools which collectively made up the Wellington Post-primary Schools' Council saw many advantages in the new arrangement. The principal of Wellington College found that it enabled him to establish "a close link and a better understanding"²⁹ with his board; while the headmistress of Wellington Girls' College noted in her 1957 Report that:

The greater interest and enthusiasm of Board members concerned solely with one College - a College with which they are directly concerned - has resulted in acceleration of business, in renewed interest in school activities, and a beneficial, closer association between the Board and the School.³⁰

Although only one further Council has been constituted to date,³¹ those who were confident of the worth of the Council system in the 40's and 50's, and worked hard to see it extended, had their faith vindicated when a report on secondary school administration,

commissioned by the Director-General, appeared in March, 1972. The report declared that the Christchurch Secondary Schools' Council "... is by far the most efficient means in the country of providing secretarial, accounting, and staffing services to secondary schools".³²

The Education Amendment Act 1948 was also concerned with the control of post-primary schools. It provided for multischool boards to include a parents' representative from each school, a considerable improvement on the previous regulations, which allowed such boards to have only two parents' representatives, no matter how many schools they controlled.³³ Representations made by the Secondary School Boards' Association in 1947 to have the number of parents' representatives on boards increased to at least four³⁴ possibly prompted the Government to make a start by correcting what was a patent anomaly as far as parent representation on multischool boards was concerned. The Education Amendment Act 1952 included provision for the variation of the constitutions of the governing bodies of secondary schools and technical schools. This Act was followed, over the next few years, by Orders-in-Council which altered the constitutions of a large number of post-primary school boards,³⁵ bringing them up to date, and, in nearly all cases, providing for an increased number of members elected by parents.³⁶ Another clause of the same Amendment Act "made it possible for technical schools, which are now under the control (often nominal) of Education Boards, to assume full control of their own destinies, if that is the desire of the people most concerned with them".³⁷ As a result, from 1953 onwards, a growing number of post-primary schools originally established as technical schools exercised their right to have a board

of governors of their own, and to be reclassified as secondary schools. By 1955, all nine of the schools established between 1946 and 1951 under the technical school regulations had autonomous boards of governors, and were listed as secondary schools. Finally, the Education Amendment Act 1954 provided for each post-primary school under the control of a joint board to be given the right, under certain conditions, to have a separate board.³⁸

No new secondary schools were established in 1948 or 1949. The three schools which were opened in 1950 (Morrinsville College, Whakatane High School, and Dargaville High School) and the only school opened in 1951 (Kaitia College) were all translated secondary departments of district high schools, so that they continued under the control of the Auckland Education Board when they achieved full post-primary status. The next group of schools to be opened (in 1953) included only two former district high schools; the other three were city schools. The arrangement made in their cases was that other boards would act as their caretaker controlling authorities for the first twelve months, during which time each of the new schools could decide what form of control it would like for itself.³⁹ So, Naenae College began its existence under the aegis of the Hutt Valley High School Board of Governors; Henderson High School was temporarily controlled by the Auckland Education Board; and Mount Roskill Grammar School had the Auckland Grammar School Board as its interim controlling authority.⁴⁰

In the period from 1956 to 1959, the issue of the control of post-primary schools remained under scrutiny from a number of quarters. Beeby was clearly disappointed that school boards had not

followed the example offered by the Christchurch model: "What we are seeing now," he said, in his Report for 1956, "is the multiplication of small isolated boards, and the fragmentation of the whole system of post-primary control."⁴¹ M.A. Bull, president of the N.Z.P.P.T.A., also questioned the wisdom of the 'one school-one board' system. He asked whether New Zealand had not "come to a size when an overall policy of control should be implemented", and whether the rate of growth of post-primary education did not "demand a common pattern for the sake of efficiency".⁴² In the late 50's, the P.P.T.A. began a protracted campaign to obtain teacher representation on school boards,⁴³ though, in the early stages, the executive was not in favour of teachers sitting on the boards of their own schools.⁴⁴ At the time, some aspects of the autonomy of boards, such as the extent of their powers, with particular reference to the appointment of principals, troubled even those who supported the concept of single school boards. A.E. Campbell believed that the existing board system could well be modified "... by altering the present arrangements for the appointment of principals in such a way as to give the Department a little more influence than it now has".⁴⁵ He considered that the presence of a departmental officer, in an advisory capacity, at interviews and when a selection was being made would "... check any tendency to brush aside professional considerations".⁴⁶

The constitutional right of the Governor-General to appoint two members of almost all boards sometimes had unfortunate consequences. Since, in practice, the Governor-General's appointments were normally made on the recommendation of the local Member of Parliament, there was always the danger that political factors would be allowed to outweigh more relevant issues when recommendations were being

considered. This is what happened at the time of the triennial board elections in 1958, when, under a Labour Government, a number of board members earlier appointed by the Governor-General were displaced by new appointees. One of those supplanted in this manner was Sir John Allum, at the time chairman of the Rangitoto College Board of Governors. Sir John, who had been Mayor Auckland from 1941 to 1953, and had a record of "prodigious service to Auckland" embracing "an astonishing diversity [of interests]",⁴⁷ could hardly have been an unsatisfactory board member. Following his rejection, a telegram despatched to Wellington by the school staff struck at the heart of the matter: "We cannot feel that your action is prompted by a consideration of the best interests of Rangitoto College."⁴⁸ Another Auckland board member who was similarly displaced in 1958 was Alban Blomely, then chairman of the Avondale College Board of Managers, of which he had been a member since the establishment of the College some thirteen years earlier.⁴⁹ The National Government had good reason for introducing legislation, soon after it regained power in December, 1960, "providing for the discontinuance of representation of the Governor-General on post-primary school boards".⁵⁰

Another potentially divisive feature of the way many boards conducted their affairs was their tendency to distance the school principal from their deliberations and decisions. As it was not usual, in the 40's and 50's, for principals to attend board meetings, the boards were often deprived of the professional advice and first-hand knowledge of the day-to-day running of the school which the principal could have provided. For their part, the principals, in the absence of any official contact with the board, were frequently unaware of board thinking on issues of importance to the school.

Under these circumstances, it is not surprising that misunderstandings sometimes arose, especially where boundaries of authority were concerned, leading to strained relations between board and principal. Such an impasse occurred at Waitaki Boys' High School in 1949, when the board decided not to accept the principal's recommendation regarding a replacement for the retiring first assistant. The principal immediately resigned, on the grounds that "... no headmaster can effectively perform the task assigned to him and leave his mark on a school unless he is allowed to build his own staff around him".⁵¹ This resignation, which "caused a considerable stir throughout the whole of New Zealand",⁵² was undoubtedly precipitated by the limited contact between the board and the principal, as a result of which there were "many grey areas in the control of School and hostel".⁵³ As the principal put it in his autobiography:

If at times it seemed to me that the authority I needed to cope with my responsibilities was being unduly restricted, I have no doubt that board members felt I was encroaching on their rightful domain.⁵⁴

The wonder is not that such tensions led to an angry and violent struggle at Waitaki Boys' High School, but that there were not similar outbursts elsewhere.⁵⁵ Ten years later, in a large city school, a well-organised pressure group showed that it was possible to gain control of a post-primary school board for its own ends. Such subversion was facilitated by the general apathy of parents when it came to nominating and supporting parents' representatives for election to the board. So few parents even bothered to vote at board elections that it was easy for a determined group to have its own nominees elected. In this way, a politically-motivated group secured the election of almost a full 'ticket' of its own adherents at the

triennial board elections at Avondale College (Auckland) in August, 1958. The foundation principal of the College was to retire at the end of 1959, and the primary objective of the 'new' board was to secure the appointment as principal of a teacher at the College who subscribed to their system of beliefs and values. When the board showed its hand early in the third term by terminating the appointments of three very senior staff members,⁵⁶ a number of heads of departments⁵⁷ and assistant teachers resigned, and so many others threatened to leave that the College could not have opened in 1960. The deadlock was finally resolved when the University of Auckland liaison officer made a public statement that, if the resignations of so many key members of staff went ahead, he would have to consider advising the Universities Entrance Board to remove Avondale College from the list of schools entitled to accredit pupils for entrance to the university.⁵⁸ Soon afterwards, a mass meeting of parents passed a vote of no confidence in the board, whereupon most of the newly-elected board members stepped down. Although what could have been a major calamity for the College was averted, the rift still cost the College a number of teachers.⁵⁹ Throughout this upheaval, the Education Department (and even the Minister) were powerless to act. The whole episode was a salutary reminder that, in education, as in any other area of social service, local control is only as effective as the concern and support of local people make it. Fortunately, such instances of less than creditable board performance were rare, and did little to shake the general confidence of the public in the system of post-primary school control by local boards. It is significant that the Commission on Education in New Zealand, in its proposed scheme of administrative reorganisation, not only left the post-primary school boards in place, but also continued to invest them with "a substantial

measure of administrative autonomy".⁶⁰ The Commission declared that, in taking this step, it had been "chiefly moved by the success that has been achieved by the boards in dealing with the manifold problems of expansion and change of function that have faced them over the last twenty years".⁶¹ Once again, the boards, often designated in the past for emasculation, if not elimination, had been confirmed in office. To date, no further serious attempts have been made to threaten their existence.

THE TEACHING PROFESSION

A notable feature of the period was the rise to prominence of the post-primary teaching profession. In the political arena, teachers attracted a good deal of attention as they made use of their steadily growing status as a negotiating body to press, amongst other things, for improved conditions of service. In the professional sphere, they became more and more closely involved in curriculum matters, combining with the inspectors and other departmental officers and educationists to draw up new syllabuses, and to devise teaching methods which would stimulate pupil interest, as well as promote "the development of a concept of self-motivated learning".⁶²

Number; shortages

The substantial increase in pupil numbers which occurred between 1945 and 1959 required an equally large expansion of the teaching force. Table 32 sets out the number of teachers employed in the various types of post-primary school at that time. The table also indicates the annual net increase in teacher numbers and the cumulative total of those increases.

The stated annual increase in total teacher numbers does not reveal that many replacements were required each year for teachers who died, retired, or left the profession for some other reason. For example, in 1957, 346 teachers took up their first appointment, even though the net gain for that year was only 183.⁶³ Also, the total number of teachers employed, at least in the second half of the 50's,

TABLE 32

NUMBER OF TEACHERS (EXCLUDING PRINCIPALS) EMPLOYED
IN ALL TYPES OF POST-PRIMARY SCHOOL, 1945-1959

	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Secondary schools	750	739	868	830	843	892	934	993	1082	1375	1559	1674	1913	2091	2381
Combined schools	147	149	162	159	159	163	166	179	186	200	222	222	224	233	231
Technical schools	552	618	706	727	694	757	797	875	966	951	952	1017	936	934	988
Sec. depts of district high schools	364	346	373	389	417	396	410	450	466	455	493	468	492	468	436
Sec. dept of Correspondence School	78	85	89	96	92	98	92	83	77	82	77	77	76	78	84
Totals	1891	1937	2198	2201	2205	2306	2399	2580	2777	3063	3303	3458	3641	3804	4120
Annual increase	-	46	261	3	4	101	93	181	197	286	240	155	183	163	316
Cumulative increase	-	-	307	310	314	415	508	689	886	1172	1412	1567	1750	1913	2229

Source: E.1 Reports (Most totals are as at
December, but some are as at September,
and others are as at November.)

was a good 10 per cent below the number of scheduled positions.⁶⁴ It is to the Department's credit that it did not attempt to disguise this shortage, even though it could hardly avoid being held largely responsible for it. In 1960, Edwards claimed that there was "little evidence that any plans were made for the vastly increased demand for post-primary teachers with a very much wider spread of qualifications than was formerly needed".⁶⁵ In addition, he drew a parallel with what had happened in secondary schools in England, quoting the Crowther Report⁶⁶ to support his contention that the shortage of post-primary teachers in New Zealand could be put down to a lack of long-term planning on the part of Government and the Department: "The present shortage is due less to lack of recruits than to failure in anticipation on the part of public policy."⁶⁷ Six years earlier, Forder had made a similar claim in respect of mathematics teachers in his Annual Report presented to the Auckland University College Council: "The shortage of teachers of mathematics has been, if not created, at least made worse by the lack of foresight of the framers and executants of educational policy"⁶⁸ The extent of the shortage has already been referred to in chapter 7. The Director made constant reference to it in his Reports in the 50's; in 1954, he even drew attention to a new turn of events which had occurred: "... the growing shortage of teachers has, for the first time, caused a restriction of subjects in some schools If it becomes worse, it is likely to create hardship in individual cases."⁶⁹ It was certainly Beeby's view that the shortage would become worse: "... we are obviously on the verge of a critical period for post-primary staffing, and must seize every opportunity of attracting qualified people into the service from all available sources."⁷⁰ The P.P.T.A. was also alert to the seriousness of the situation; the P.P.T.A.

Journals of the second half of the 50's gave prominence to what one editorial described as "... the major problem facing post-primary schools".⁷¹ The president, in 1957, warned that "... staff shortages ... have become sufficiently general to create widespread alarm",⁷² while, at executive level, discussion on "... the serious position of recruitment in the post-primary service" often dominated meetings.⁷³ In September, 1957, the Association called public meetings throughout the country so that members could "... acquaint their representatives in Parliament and the public at large with the very serious crisis that is facing our post-primary schools".⁷⁴ A notice in the *Education Gazette* of 15 January, 1960, suggesting ways in which the Correspondence School could help "during the current shortage of post-primary teachers", aptly illustrated the seriousness of the crisis:

- (1) Correspondence School assignments may be obtained for the use of masters [sic] who are inexperienced and untrained, and require some guidance. These assignments should not be followed slavishly, even by inexperienced teachers. Assistance of this type is not available at 6A level.
- (2) In cases where unqualified teachers are compelled to take subjects with which they are not familiar, the teacher concerned may enrol with the Correspondence School, and work through the Correspondence School courses as he teaches his class.⁷⁵ The Correspondence School will endeavour to provide help and guidance to the teacher with his class work. (This type of enrolment requires the approval of the District Senior Inspector of Post-primary Schools.)

Little wonder that Edwards considered that "... dilution to danger point has already taken place".⁷⁶ As has been shown in chapter 7, the Department tackled the problem of teacher shortages with a good deal of resolution, though, all too often, whatever it tried to do conveyed the impression of being 'too little, too late'. The numbers of Division C students coming out of the Teachers' Training Colleges

each year remained modest, and not one of the special training programmes was producing enough teachers to keep up with the demand in its particular field. In the late 40's, the Minister was appealing to teachers "... not to apply for special leave except in circumstances of the greatest importance";⁷⁷ by 1959, the Department was stating categorically that no more extended leave [for overseas travel] would be granted to those bonded in terms of post-primary studentships and bursaries, "... because of the present acute shortage of post-primary teachers".⁷⁸ In the 50's, an earlier suggestion that the Department and the schools might have to enter the open market to secure teachers was revived. In his Report for 1951, the Minister declared: "We must compete with commerce, industry and the professions for both our men and our women teachers, and the latter see clearly that other careers are open to them besides those of the classroom or the home."⁷⁹ Professor Forder agreed: "The only remedy is the natural one: to attract graduates to the teaching service by competing for them in the market. We produce them; the Department must engage them."⁸⁰ W. H. Cooper, headmaster of Auckland Grammar School, held similar views: "It may be that we must be prepared to compete in the open market for specialists in certain subjects."⁸¹ In a sense, the teaching profession was always competing in the open market for recruits, but, as the continuing shortage of teachers of science and mathematics demonstrated, it was to be a long time before post-primary teachers' salaries even began to compare favourably with those offered in industry and commerce.

Training

The Commission on Education in New Zealand declared, in 1962:

"The last twenty years has been a period of unprecedented expansion in the training of secondary teachers. It has also been a period of diversification in the courses of training for the secondary service."⁸² As far as pre-service training was concerned, most of the expansion which took place at this time was in the diversified areas referred to in the *Currie Report*. Details of these new courses have already been given in chapter 7. The one-year training programme for graduates continued at Auckland Teachers' Training College; in 1954, a similar programme was established at Christchurch Teachers' Training College "because of the great increase in the number of graduates applying for teacher training".⁸³ Initially, the Christchurch course catered only for graduates in English, history, geography, and languages;⁸⁴ however, it was soon providing for the full range of graduate trainees. Table 33 details the number of men and women who were receiving training in Division C as at December in each year from 1946 to 1959. The table shows that, apart from gains in 1952 and

TABLE 33

NUMBER OF MEN AND WOMEN RECEIVING TRAINING
IN DIVISION C, 1946-1959, AS AT DECEMBER

Year	Men	Women	Total
1946	28	18	46
1947	16	26	42
1948	36	24	60
1949	34	37	71
1950	47	37	84
1951	58	40	98
1952	63	71	134
1953	77	72	149
1954	90	76	166
1955	93	92	185
1956	117	125	242
1957	105	127	232
1958	101	132	233
1959	104	119	223

Source: E.2 Reports, 1947-53; E.1 Reports, 1954-1960

1956 of thirty-six and fifty-seven trainees respectively, the annual increase at no time exceeded twenty; it was actually in decline at the end of the decade, even though pupil numbers were continuing to rise. The age-old debate as to whether teacher training should be carried out within or separate from the universities was revived in the late 40's, with the Committee on the Training of Teachers set up by McCombs in November, 1948⁸⁵ coming down firmly on the side of post-primary teacher training taking place in a teachers' training college.⁸⁶ Intakes to Division C regularly included a preponderance of arts graduates; trainees qualified in homecraft, music, the sciences and mathematics, and technical subjects were relatively few in number. For example, the graduate group at Auckland Teachers' Training College in 1953 was made up as follows: graduates in arts - 100; in science - 19; in home science - 1; in music - 4; in physical education - 18; and in fine arts - 10. The Division also had twenty-two woodwork and eight metalwork trainees. Such disproportionate numbers meant that, on the one hand, the schools remained starved of qualified teachers in many subject areas, while, on the other, the majority of the arts graduates found, when they entered the schools, that many of the subjects they were called on to teach were not those in which they had specialised at the university.

A remarkable growth in the number and range of the in-service training courses organised for post-primary teachers took place in the period from 1946 to 1959. The Teachers' Refresher Course Committee mounted an ever-increasing number of programmes each January; by the mid-50's, the Committee was sponsoring regular courses in August, as well. In 1954, 615 teachers took part in week-long refresher courses.⁸⁷ Beeby hailed this "growth in the demand ... for in-service

training" as "one of the healthiest and most promising developments of the post-war period".⁸⁸ By this time, regional seminars had also become an accepted part of the in-service training programme. Ten such seminars were held in 1953, including courses for careers advisers, teachers of motor engineering, principals of technical schools, and senior secondary assistants of district high schools.⁸⁹ In addition, in-service training was offered at a local level through seminars and study groups. The involvement of the inspectors in this kind of in-service work has already been noted; the Director had good cause to declare, in his Report for 1956, that the inspectors were "... coming to look on in-service training as their most important positive function".⁹⁰ Two further developments in the period were the sponsoring of refresher courses for post-primary teachers by agencies other than departmental officers or the Teachers' Refresher Course Committee;⁹¹ and the inclusion in the regular refresher course programmes of more and more topics which were not subject-oriented, such as 'children of high intelligence', 'slow learners', and 'character and personality development'.⁹² In-service training opportunities had much to offer all teachers, whether they were experienced or inexperienced, qualified or unqualified. The courses exposed them to different ideas and methods, introduced them to new teaching materials, enabled them to talk to practising colleagues, obliged them to rethink their own aims and objectives, rekindled their enthusiasm, and, in many cases, built up their confidence. Most course members collected extra copies of the course notes, which they took back to their schools for their fellow teachers, so that the influence of the courses frequently extended well beyond the actual participants. Refresher courses also had the potential to breathe new life into ailing subjects, as Beeby recognised: "In some specific

fields - for example, ... the teaching of core mathematics in post-primary schools - further progress depends, above everything else, on more and better in-service training."⁹³ In view of all these factors, it was not surprising that, by the end of the 50's, the Department was considering acquiring its own in-service training institution.⁹⁴

Qualifications

At a time when teachers were in such short supply, principals could not afford to turn away possible appointees because their qualifications were irrelevant, inadequate, or even non-existent. The supplementary teachers' registers printed in the *Education Gazette* in the late 40's listed many non-graduate post-primary teachers.⁹⁵ Some lists also included a relatively high proportion of uncertificated teachers, although many of these could have been teachers whose classification was provisional, pending the satisfactory completion of their probationary year.⁹⁶ Teachers recruited from sources outside the usual training schemes would also account for a good many of those listed as uncertificated in the registers.⁹⁷ A scheme which gave ten⁹⁸ partially qualified teachers one year's leave on full pay to complete their degrees was introduced in 1958.⁹⁹ The scheme covered primary and secondary teachers; the awards tended, at least in the early years, to be fairly evenly divided between the two sectors, with district high school teachers being well represented among the successful applicants. Extra-mural study was the only other avenue open to those teaching outside the university centres who wished to improve their qualifications. The P.P.T.A. campaigned relentlessly in the second half of the 50's to

have university-imposed restrictions on extra-mural study removed.¹⁰⁰ The announcement, made towards the end of 1958, that Victoria University College was preparing to set up a satellite institution for extra-mural studies at Palmerston North was hailed by the *P.P.T.A. Journal* as "good news".¹⁰¹ This service, which was available to students throughout New Zealand, began in 1960. As Beeby predicted, it has proved of great value ever since to teachers unable to attend lectures in the main centres.¹⁰²

Types of appointment

A feature of advertisements for teaching staff appearing in the *Education Gazettes* during this period was the less demanding nature of the wording used. The old 'cadets and games essential' had given place by the late 40's to 'cadets and games an added recommendation'. Principals did not dare make positions sound too taxing. The opposite impression was what was desired, and sometimes achieved: "English and French to good, professional forms."¹⁰³ In this connection, euphemisms were indispensable and often ingenious: "Assistant teacher to take charge of the least advanced form 3 group."¹⁰⁴ Some principals, however, rejected this approach, and described positions - however exacting - in an honest and factual manner: "Mathematics to University Scholarships standard. Night classes: B.A. Stages I and II pure and applied mathematics; and mathematics and mechanics for professional engineering. Cadets and games required;"¹⁰⁵ "Cookery mistress required; to show ability to manage commercially and educationally a cafeteria which provides for about five hundred students daily;"¹⁰⁶ "Mothercraft; to undertake several part-time positions including nursery school [work] at three schools."¹⁰⁷ One

problem which had to be addressed in the 50's was the lack of protection available to post-primary teachers whose positions became redundant for one reason or another.¹⁰⁸ This situation was eventually covered by a clause in the Education (Assessment, Classification, and Appointment) Regulations 1957,¹⁰⁹ but not to the satisfaction of the P.P.T.A., which considered the clause to be far from adequate, and called for it to be redrafted.¹¹⁰

Conditions of service

Salaries

The issue of teachers' salaries loomed large throughout the period from 1946 to 1959. In 1946, the Government set up a Consultative Committee on Teachers' Salaries; on the recommendation of this Committee, it agreed to modify the current scales. The official view of the new scales was that they gave "substantial increases to all branches of the service",¹¹¹ and put "the profession as a whole in a much better financial position than previously".¹¹² The new scales were not, in fact, very generous. Men teachers at the top of grade I received an increase of £7 a year (1.4 per cent); those in grade III gained a 2.0 per cent increase; and only the men in grade V received more than a 5.0 per cent increase. Their salaries went up by £42 a year (6.0 per cent). The women fared slightly better, receiving increases of from 6.0 per cent to 10.7 per cent, but their salaries remained substantially inferior to those paid to men. A woman at the top of grade V still received somewhat less than a man in a corresponding position in grade III.¹¹³ At the same time, the allowances payable to first assistants, senior assistant mistresses, and heads of departments were increased from £30 a year to £60 a year. From the early 50's onwards, new salary scales for post-primary

teachers were authorised almost annually : in 1953 (including "important new provisions designed to ensure the adequate staffing of country schools");¹¹⁴ 1954;¹¹⁵ 1955 (at which stage, women were still being paid less than men);¹¹⁶ 1956;¹¹⁷ 1957 (consolidating previous orders and determinations);¹¹⁸ 1958 (providing "rewards for qualifications", and effective from 1 February);¹¹⁹ 1958 (effective from 1 October);¹²⁰ and 1959.¹²¹ This spurt of activity in the matter of teachers' salaries undoubtedly had a good deal to do with the appearance in 1952 of the unified Post-primary Teachers' Association (P.P.T.A.). The role of the Association in this matter will be further discussed later in this chapter. Order 95 of the Government Services Tribunal abolished, as from 1 December, 1953, the salary differentials payable to holders of special posts and to heads of departments. In their place, Positions of Responsibility (hereafter referred to as P.R.'s) of Class A, B, or C were created; separate salary scales for teachers holding such P.R.'s were included in the schedule. First assistants and senior assistant mistresses (who had formerly accounted for most of those in the 'special post' category) would henceforth hold P.R.'s of one or other of the three classes.^{122, 123} The Department intended that the P.R.'s be used to recompense heads of departments and other senior teachers for the extra duties they performed. However, they were quite often used by principals desperate to recruit staff as an inducement to attract applicants, particularly in subject areas of marked teacher scarcity, such as physics. In spite of their increased salaries, teachers remained reluctant to apply for the more senior positions. Women were particularly hesitant, which suggested that the salaries offered were but one aspect of a complex question. Beeby pointed out, in his Report for 1955, that "... even for principalships in girls' schools,

the field of applicants is usually very small",¹²⁴ a clear indication, in his view, that the solution to this particular problem "... does not lie just in a rise in salaries".¹²⁵ Two further points remain to be made in connection with teachers' salaries and allowances. First, in 1955, Parliament passed the Superannuation Amendment Bill, which "greatly improved the retirement provisions of the principal Act".¹²⁶ Second, as from 1 April, 1959, the Department assumed responsibility for the preparation of teachers' pay lists for all post-primary boards.¹²⁷ This made it possible for teachers to be paid fortnightly instead of monthly, a change which they had been seeking for years.

Grading

In his Report for 1955, the Director indicated that there were "... grounds to fear that the grading of teachers is beginning to assume too great an importance in the post-primary service". He advised that he intended,

... in the coming year, to take up again with the P.P.T.A. the suggestion that we reduce the number of grades into which teachers are classified, so that grading will become of significance to a teacher only at two or three key points in his career.¹²⁸

However, after a referendum on grading conducted by the P.P.T.A. early in 1957 showed that the majority of teachers were substantially satisfied with the existing system,¹²⁹ the Education (Assessment, Classification, and Appointment) Regulations 1957 confirmed the classification procedures for post-primary teachers which were then in force. This clause was of particular significance:

In determining the grade of any assistant teacher ..., the Director shall have regard only to: (a) his ability in the art of

teaching; (b) his academic, technical, practical, or other relevant qualifications; (c) his length of service in the teaching profession.¹³⁰

As a result, it became illegal for teachers' grading to be in any way affected by the extent (or lack) of their involvement in the school's extra-curricular activities. While many teachers welcomed this provision, it undoubtedly marked the beginning of a progressive decline in the number of teachers willing to undertake extra-curricular assignments, especially Saturday sport.

Country service

In an effort, at a time of acute teacher shortage, "... to ensure to country schools the proportion and quality of teachers that is their due",¹³¹ the Government brought in regulations in 1948¹³² which prevented post-primary teachers appointed for the first time after 1 February, 1949 from proceeding beyond a certain point on the salary scale until they had completed three years' service in designated schools in country areas. The first list of schools approved for country service included all the district high schools in New Zealand, except those at Howick, New Brighton, and Mosgiel, and twenty-two post-primary schools, of which eight were technical schools.¹³³ From time to time, schools were added to or deleted from the approved list by notice printed in the *Education Gazette*¹³⁴. From the outset, the country service regulations were used to attract staff to schools which had difficulty in getting teachers, even if those schools did not really come into the category of country schools. For example, in his Report for 1955, Beeby acknowledged that:

In Gisborne and Hastings, new schools for girls were to open in 1956, and, when applications for staff were called towards the end of 1955, the serious lack of applicants led us to make a

concession by permitting service at the two new schools to count as equivalent to country service. This brought a good response.¹³⁵

In 1958, the Minister set up a small Standing Committee on Country Service to review the list, and "... to consider requests from schools for a variation of the conditions of service that apply to them".¹³⁶ On the recommendation of this Committee, two amendments to the regulations were gazetted, to take effect from 1 February, 1959. First, two years' service in certain smaller and more isolated district high schools (including Maori district high schools) would satisfy the requirements of the country service regulations; second, the same would apply to teachers completing six years of service in a group of ten girls' schools in provincial centres "which are notoriously difficult to staff".¹³⁷ Opinions as to the effectiveness of the country service requirement in the 50's varied widely. The principal of a large city school considered that the requirement "... which has so much to commend it, is, nevertheless, in many respects wasteful of specialist abilities";¹³⁸ while a woman principal asserted that "... in a teacher shortage, the country service compulsion merely fills one vacancy and leaves another".¹³⁹ There was plenty of evidence to show that the regulations resulted in a substantial increase in the number of qualified teachers accepting country positions, and many a country school "with no staffing problems as a country service school fell into immediate difficulties when it was removed from the list".¹⁴⁰ On the other hand, town schools suffered as so many of their teachers with from five to ten years' experience left to do their country service. Although the regulations certainly went some way towards ensuring a more even spread of qualified teachers between rural and urban schools, they did not strike at the

root of the real problem - the continuing, overall shortage of teachers.

Housing

The Advisory Committee on Teacher Recruitment set up by Algie late in 1955 noted in its Report, issued in April, 1957, that "... difficulties over housing cause the greatest source of frustration among teachers".¹⁴¹ Principals were well aware that their chances of attracting applicants were considerably enhanced if housing were available in their area. In their *Gazette* advertisements, principals undertook to give successful applicants "every assistance with finding accommodation". At that time, the Government was doing very little about providing housing for post-primary teachers. The president of the P.P.T.A. claimed, in 1959, that there were only ninety-three teacher houses available in the whole country for 4,300 post-primary teachers.¹⁴² Following the release of the Report of the Advisory Committee on Teacher Recruitment, the P.P.T.A. progressively increased its pressure on the Government to accept a much greater measure of responsibility for resolving the teacher accommodation problem.¹⁴³ Towards the end of 1959, the Association sent a deputation to the Prime Minister to convey to him the concern of post-primary teachers about the housing question.¹⁴⁴ Not long afterwards, the Government announced that it would build three hundred houses for post-primary teachers over a five-year period at post-primary and district high schools on the country service list.¹⁴⁵ The Director was confident that this scheme would "assist considerably in staffing schools in smaller towns and more remote areas".¹⁴⁶ At the same time, notices in the *Education Gazette* began to direct the attention of teachers towards various forms of housing assistance available to

them, such as pool housing, and rent subsidies for those on transfer into districts where school houses were not provided.¹⁴⁷

The New Zealand Post-primary Teachers' Association

The amalgamation of the New Zealand Secondary Schools' Association (S.S.A.) and the New Zealand Technical School Teachers' Association (T.S.T.A.) to form the New Zealand Post-primary Teachers' Association (P.P.T.A.) in November, 1952 marked the beginning of a new era in the affairs of New Zealand's post-primary teachers.¹⁴⁸ They could now speak with a united voice, and, by the end of the 50's, the new Association was making that voice heard in the corridors of power to very good effect. Two examples will serve to illustrate this point, one with reference to teachers' salaries, and the other concerning teacher housing. From the earliest days of its existence, the Association mounted a vigorous campaign on the salaries front, using the *P.P.T.A. Journal*¹⁴⁹ to spearhead its attack. Late in 1955, the *P.P.T.A. Journal* printed a number of letters to the editor which revealed considerable teacher discontent with the qualifications allowance;¹⁵⁰ in 1956, the Association was pressing the Government to grant post-primary teachers' six months' leave on full pay after twenty years' service;¹⁵¹ while in July, 1957, the editor of the *P.P.T.A. Journal*, claiming that salaries were still a sore point, declared: "We must adopt a measure that met with instant success in the Police Force."¹⁵² At the same time, the Association insisted repeatedly that the salaries offered "... were a major factor in determining the number and quality of applicants for the teaching service, and the qualifications they were willing to work for".¹⁵³ The Government accepted this argument; early in 1958, Cabinet approved a new salary

scale which took greater account of teachers' qualifications.¹⁵⁴ The Association's stance on the teacher housing question was equally uncompromising, though, this time, the main thrust of their activities took place in the period 1958-59. In May, 1958, the *P.P.T.A. Journal* ran a substantial report on the issue of teacher accommodation;¹⁵⁵ two months later, the editorial was entitled 'Housing for Post-primary Teachers'.¹⁵⁶ In February, 1959, the president, in his Message in the *P.P.T.A. Journal*, made a strong plea to the Government for more houses for post-primary teachers, claiming that the number of teacher houses then available "... compares very unfavourably with the housing provision in many other state services".¹⁵⁷ In July, 1959, the *P.P.T.A. Journal* printed the first of a series of revealing articles on housing difficulties experienced by members in the course of their teaching service;¹⁵⁸ a short time later, the Association's delegates took their case to the Prime Minister. By the end of the year, the Government had decided on the substantial extension to its housing policy referred to earlier.

From the beginning, the P.P.T.A. had two distinct fields of activity; it gave attention to professional issues, while, at the same time, filling a 'trade-union' role in defence of the interests of its members. Following amalgamation, the Association published a monthly 'Newsletter' devoted to "solely trade-union matters",¹⁵⁹ but this practice was abandoned when the *P.P.T.A. Journal* was given a new format in April, 1955. In the 50's, the P.P.T.A. was not a particularly militant organisation. As late as 1955, suggestions from some branches that the Association should adopt more direct methods of expressing its dissatisfaction with the outcome of issues

like salary negotiations brought a rebuke from the Thames High School branch. In a letter to the editor, the branch stated: "We are firmly convinced that the constitutional method of approach is much more effective in the end."¹⁶⁰ The tone of the *P.P.T.A. Journal* editorials until the mid-50's was also only mildly critical of the system and the authorities behind it.¹⁶¹ However, from that point onwards, as has been shown already in the matter of salaries and teacher housing, the Association became noticeably more aggressive in its attitude and utterances. By 1960, the mood of at least some branches was openly belligerent. The Wellington College branch, in calling on the executive to support schools proposing to send home classes for which there were no teachers available, declared:

It should be made clear to the Department and to employing bodies that there is a line beyond which teachers will not go, and if it is apparent that other methods will not succeed ... the Association will lend full support to member branches who are forced to withhold professional services in order to safeguard their status and fair conditions of service.¹⁶²

Such a statement demonstrated that the P.P.T.A. had finally entered the arena of confrontation politics. The Association, however, was not neglecting its responsibilities in professional matters. At each of its annual conferences in the late 50's, time was set aside for meetings of sectional groups covering curriculum and related issues; the deliberations and recommendations of these groups were reported at length in the *P.P.T.A. Journal*.¹⁶³ By the end of the decade, the P.P.T.A. had set up twenty-six standing committees, only three of which were directly concerned with the operation of the Association. Of the remaining twenty-three committees, a number were responsible for specific curriculum and administrative areas, others had to do

with pupil welfare, and the balance were charged with various issues of concern to teachers.¹⁶⁴ In these ways, the Association gave ample evidence of the breadth of its interests and concerns.

Teachers' subject associations; extra-curricular activities

A number of teachers' subject associations were established between 1946 and 1959. By the early 50's, there were Science Teachers' Associations in all four of the main centres. The Canterbury Science Teachers' Association was running its own summer schools as early as January, 1947,¹⁶⁵ and the same Association, in conjunction with the Otago and Southland Science and Mathematics Teachers' Association, was producing a regular *Bulletin* by 1950.¹⁶⁶ This publication eventually developed into a new national journal for science teachers - *New Zealand School Science*¹⁶⁷ - which the southern Associations produced until the responsibility passed to the Auckland Science Teachers' Association in 1958. The Auckland Association of Language Teachers was inaugurated in 1952; a similar group based on Dunedin was in operation by the end of the decade. A New Zealand School Music Association, covering teachers in primary and secondary state and private schools, was set up early in 1960. All of these associations held regular meetings; provided teachers with advice, encouragement, and, sometimes, teaching materials; sponsored activities for pupils in their respective areas; and monitored public examination prescriptions and papers in their subjects. Their submissions to the Department of Education and to the Universities Entrance Board in connection with examinations were welcomed and, not infrequently, acted on.¹⁶⁸

Although some teachers became less enthusiastic about extra-curricular activities after 1957 (see page), most schools contrived to keep these activities going very much as before. As principals experienced increasing difficulty in enlisting the help of teachers with Saturday sport, parents were recruited as supervisors, and even coaches, of school sports teams. In-school pursuits, especially those connected with drama and music, continued to flourish, thanks largely to the dedication and skill of the teachers who directed and supported them. The almost bewildering range of out-of-class activities, including clerical and administrative tasks, commonly shouldered by post-primary teachers in the 50's, and the extent to which they could take up a teacher's time, were aptly illustrated by the writer of a letter to the editor of the *P.P.T.A. Journal*:

Athletic sports, inter-secs, swimming sports, more inter-secs, other summer sports, winter sports, cross country, annual fixtures with distant schools, concerts, class photographs, team photographs, House meetings, House competitions, military drill, barracks, weighing-in for winter sport, orchestra, dances, choir practice, Saturday inter-school games, after-school and before-school coaching, road patrols, traffic lectures and films, Crusaders, vocational guidance talks and interviews, school clubs, drill competitions, term exams, public exams, P.T.A. meetings, P.P.T.A. meetings, school magazine, speech contests, literary competitions, dental appointments, life-saving, uniform inspection, bus supervision, Training College students, free milk - and now free textbooks ... - and the measure of our professional skill today may even lie in our ability to sandwich in a little of what used to be known as 'teaching'.¹⁶⁹

Teacher exchanges; travelling scholarships

Soon after the war, arrangements were made to resume the exchange programme between New Zealand teachers and teachers from other parts of the Commonwealth. By the late 40's, ten teachers (some of them post-primary, and most of them women) were going on exchange to the

United Kingdom each year; and occasional notices were appearing in the *Education Gazette* advertising exchange positions in Australia, Canada, and South Africa, as well.¹⁷⁰ In 1950, an annual exchange of five teachers with the United States under the Fulbright Scheme involving both the primary and post-primary sectors was initiated.¹⁷¹ A regular exchange of teachers with Canada and Australia was revived in 1955 - 1956;¹⁷² by the end of the decade, two Canadian teachers and six Australian teachers were exchanging positions each year with teachers from New Zealand.

Travelling scholarships for which post-primary teachers could apply in the 50's included the London Institute of Education Fellowships,¹⁷³ of which two were awarded annually, and the British Council Travelling Scholarships, which enabled one or two teachers each year to investigate some aspect of school or teaching practice in the United Kingdom. Both of these awards offered adequate financial support for successful applicants. Teachers of French could benefit from two separate awards: one offered two to four bursaries a year to university students or post-primary teachers for study in France;¹⁷⁴ the other provided annually for up to five assistantships in French secondary schools.¹⁷⁵ From time to time, 'once only' opportunities were also offered to New Zealand post-primary teachers to travel abroad. These included a National Travelling Scholarship in Art (1950); a tour of Greece for two teachers, sponsored by the Gilbert Murray Trust (1957); and a Teaching Fellowship in Indonesian, sponsored by the students of Auckland Teachers' College (1959).

Principals

Although most principals were under considerable stress in the period from 1946 to 1959,¹⁷⁶ teachers were still keen to become principals. There were nearly always large numbers of applicants for vacant headships in coeducational schools and boys' schools.¹⁷⁷ As already noted, however, it was quite a different matter with the girls' schools. In October, 1958, the president of the P.P.T.A., referring in his Message to the paucity of women applying for principalships in girls' schools, noted that "... during the last four years, such vacancies have attracted only from one to four applicants".¹⁷⁸ Although men could, and did, apply for headships in girls' schools, the P.P.T.A. considered that appointing a man to such a position should be a last resort. In November, 1958, the executive resolved:

That the head of a girls' school should be a woman, and only after failure to attract a suitable applicant by advertisement and publicity, and notice that Grade IV applicants would be considered, should the position be thrown open to application by men.¹⁷⁹

A questionnaire relating to the shortage of women interested in becoming principals was sent out by the P.P.T.A. to all women teachers in grades IV and V towards the end of 1958. The replies received disclosed that:

... some of the causes of the present shortage are to be found in lack of training for administrative work, insufficient salary inducement for much greater responsibilities, methods of appointment of principals, staffing and building difficulties, problems of discipline within the school, home responsibilities of women teachers, and the personal loneliness which often accompanies appointment to a 'pinnacle position' in a new town.¹⁸⁰

Filling the principal's role could undoubtedly be a lonely assignment; sometimes principals reached the point where they had to seek help, in some instances from outside the school. In a large urban secondary school towards the end of 1957, the principal, concerned about the frequency with which pupils were reporting cases of thieving in the school, called in the police to investigate the matter. Although the editor of the *P.P.T.A. Journal* supported the principal's action, the incident sparked off a public outcry, and questions were asked about it in Parliament.¹⁸¹ Even in the 50's, principals often found themselves weighed down with trivial administrative tasks which could have been performed just as well by a reasonably competent clerk. One of the respondents to the P.P.T.A. questionnaire referred to earlier indicated that she was

... not in the least tempted to exchange the stimulating ... life of a classroom teacher for that of a chief administrator whose time is consumed in dealing with departmental returns, telephone calls, press interviews, building repairs, parents' complaints, caretaking problems, and the like.¹⁸²

The considerable increase in the number of post-primary schools to be serviced led to a corresponding expansion of Head Office staff; the 'paper war' intensified as the decade advanced. When G.J. McNaught retired from the headship of New Plymouth Boys' High School at the end of 1957, he stated:

The great complaint I have had over the last few years is the extraordinary amount of office work required of a headmaster. The 'paper' that comes to the office and requires the personal attention of the principal has year by year increased steadily during my fifteen years as head Schools are [now] much more than teaching institutions, and the principal's office is the clearing house for a host of ancillary services.¹⁸³

Nor were principals particularly well paid, in spite of their

considerable responsibilities. In October, 1952, men principals of the largest post-primary schools received £1,400 a year; women principals were paid £1,300.¹⁸⁴ It was not until the end of 1960 that the salary of the principal of a Grade V school reached the figure of £2000 a year.¹⁸⁵

As a group, first assistants and senior assistant mistresses were achieving some recognition by the end of the 50's. They held their own sectional meeting at the P.P.T.A.'s annual conference, and reported back to the full conference. In 1959, their main concerns were the fact that they were not on separate salary scales; the almost universal absence of job descriptions outlining their responsibilities; and the lack of opportunities for them to take part in in-service training programmes in administration.¹⁸⁶

Conclusion

In spite of the shortage of teachers, which dominated the educational scene in the late 40's and throughout the 50's, the post-primary teaching profession continued to evolve in response to the new demands being made on it. - The definite shift of emphasis from the syllabus to the teacher in the post-Thomas years was accompanied by a growing public recognition of the key role played by teachers in the learning process. Referring to the "perennial difficulty of the adjustment of the secondary school environment to the changing adolescent", the Currie Commission recorded that, of all the submissions it received offering solutions to this difficulty and to related problems, "none were more cogently presented and supported by such impressive facts than those that urged the overriding importance

of the quality of the teachers in the schools".¹⁸⁷ There was also an increasing awareness that the schools could no longer be adequately served by teachers whose main capital was academic attainment. The new curriculum demanded a new type of teacher, one in whom "... academic qualifications had to be coupled with a new brand of sympathy [and] patience, and a willingness to experiment with new methods outside the range of traditional secondary school teaching".¹⁸⁸ Further, the greater attention now being given to aspects of the pupils' social education compelled teachers to accept that their work, if it were to be effective, had to take into account other powerful educative agencies in the lives of their pupils, notably the home. Even in the 50's, there were people who would have liked to put the whole responsibility for educating children onto the shoulders of teachers; they were ready to lay all the blame at the door of the school if its pupils did not turn out well. Wiser counsels fully realised, however, that the influence of even the very best teachers could extend only so far. As Beeby put it: "The teacher can strongly reinforce the influence of a good home, but he has only limited powers of counteracting the influences of a bad one."¹⁸⁹ Finally, the 50's saw the emergence of post-primary teachers as a political force, not yet particularly strident in their demands or intransigent in their attitudes, but soon to become so.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Description and number of schools

From 1905 (when the first technical day school was established), the official term used to describe these schools was 'technical school' or, sometimes, 'technical day school'. The Education Act 1914 gave the technical (day) schools definite status; they became 'technical high schools'.¹ Some of these schools had soon built up substantial rolls in both their day and evening classes. When this happened, the term 'technical high school' became confined to the day-school part of the institution, while the whole enterprise, day and evening classes, was called a 'technical college'.² In 1945, there were twenty-three technical high schools in existence;³ of these, nineteen had been established in or prior to 1925. The four later additions to the list were Otahuhu Technical High School (1932), Horowhenua Technical High School (1940), Avondale Technical High School (1945), and Papanui Technical High School (1945). All of the post-primary schools opened after 1945 were multilateral schools, even though a number of them, for reasons already explained, were constituted under the regulations governing technical schools.

Length of post-primary schooling

In the immediate post-war years, the tendency noted earlier for the technical schools, particularly those in the larger centres, to be looked on as the most suitable schools for early leavers persisted,

TABLE 34

LENGTH OF POST-PRIMARY SCHOOLING OF PUPILS ATTENDING TECHNICAL SCHOOLS
AND ALL TYPES OF POST-PRIMARY SCHOOL, 1946 - 1959

Technical Schools (percentages)

	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Leaving in first year	22.1	20.6	19.6	19.0	19.4	16.9	17.1	15.9	15.8	14.9	14.7	12.8	11.2	10.8
Leaving in second year	42.8	42.5	42.0	41.3	42.2	43.1	44.0	43.6	45.0	44.9	42.5	43.3	40.0	39.7
Leaving in third year	24.4	24.8	25.8	25.8	25.4	25.8	25.9	26.3	26.7	26.9	28.5	29.5	30.2	31.2
Leaving in *fourth year	10.7	12.1	12.6	13.9	13.0	14.2	13.0	14.2	12.5	13.3	14.3	14.4	18.6	18.3

* includes subsequent years

All Post-primary Schools (percentages)

	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Leaving in first year	17.1	16.7	15.9	15.8	15.2	14.1	13.9	13.2	12.7	12.1	11.7	10.5	9.1	8.8
Leaving in second year	35.0	35.0	35.2	35.1	35.4	36.1	36.8	36.4	37.2	36.8	35.9	34.1	32.1	32.3
Leaving in third year	25.6	24.8	24.0	25.0	25.8	26.0	25.5	26.7	27.1	28.1	29.0	29.7	28.8	30.5
Leaving in *fourth year	22.3	23.5	24.9	24.1	23.6	23.8	23.8	23.7	23.0	23.0	23.4	25.7	30.0	28.4

* includes subsequent years

Source: E.1 Reports

with the result that the rolls of many of these schools increased (in some cases, substantially), though the average length of the school life of the pupils remained quite short. Table 34 gives details of the length of post-primary schooling of pupils attending technical schools from 1946 to 1959. The figures for all schools are also given by way of comparison. The percentages for technical schools proper would certainly be somewhat less favourable than those set out in the table, since, in any given year, there would be a number of newer multilateral schools included in the technical school returns because they were constituted as technical schools.⁴ In spite of this contamination of the returns, the table shows that, although the proportion of pupils leaving in their first year did decline dramatically as the 50's advanced, in 1959 the technical schools were still losing more than 50 per cent of their intake by the end of the second year. On the other hand, the numbers of those completing at least three years of post-primary schooling rose by nearly 8 per cent, which compared very favourably with the returns for all schools.

Courses of instruction

Beeby held that "... the technical high schools were developed to give a general secondary education with a practical bias",⁵ and this undoubtedly remained their chief function in the 50's. However, because of local demand in areas where there was no secondary school, some technical schools developed strong professional courses in this period. Chief among these schools were Otahuhu College and Avondale College. In 1949, Avondale College had 172 pupils taking two foreign languages, but a decline set in from 1955 onwards; by 1959, the professional course numbers were down to forty-two. Otahuhu College,

however, maintained such large enrolments in its professional programme, that, in 1953, it had more pupils taking two languages than Auckland Grammar School.⁶ By the end of the decade, Otahuhu College still had 263 pupils enrolled in its professional course. Two of the newer schools constituted as technical schools, Te Awamutu College and Tauranga College, quickly built up sizable professional course numbers, while an older technical school, Pukekohe High School, had nearly eighty pupils taking two foreign languages in 1958. As was to be expected, the technical schools continued to have strong industrial and commercial departments in the 50's, though this was not the case with art. Wellington Technical College, with an average enrolment in its art department of about sixty, and Dunedin (later, King Edward) Technical College, with an annual tally of about forty pupils taking art, were the only technical schools to make a reasonable showing in this curriculum area. Southland Technical College and Queen Elizabeth Technical College (Palmerston North) were both developing modest art programmes by the end of the decade, but, for the most part, art was at a low ebb in the technical schools between 1946 and 1959. Agriculture, however, fared a good deal better. Throughout the 50's, Feilding Agricultural High School consistently enrolled about one-third of its pupils in its agriculture programme.⁷ All were boys. However, Otahuhu College, which also had a strong agricultural side throughout the period, had nine girls taking agriculture, out of a total enrolment of 104 in this course, as early as 1948; in the following year, there were thirteen such pupils. For some years after that, girls continued to be represented in the agricultural programme at Otahuhu College. Other technical schools with reasonably large enrolments in their agricultural courses in the 50's were Hamilton Technical College, Hawera Technical High School, Stratford Technical

High School (though their numbers had dropped to forty-nine by the end of the decade), Invercargill (later, Southland) Technical College (second only to Feilding in numbers by 1959), and (from 1955 onwards) Wanganui Technical College, Ashburton Technical High School and Timaru Technical High School.

In the main centres, where pupils could choose the type of post-primary schooling they wished to have, those who went to a technical school were normally not examination oriented, and neither were the aims of the schools. In 1948, Marcus Riske, headmaster of the technical high school division of Wellington Technical College, stated that hardly any of the day-time pupils attending Wellington Technical College sat School Certificate or University Entrance. For example, of the 1945 technical high school intake of 595 form 3 pupils, only 63 (just over 10 per cent) sat School Certificate in 1947. Riske went on to explain that the technical high school, which offered a five-year course in five areas - art, building, commerce, engineering, and home science - was primarily interested in preparing for industry and citizenship.⁸ Nearly ten years later, E.W. Mills, principal of Hutt Valley Memorial Technical College, commented along similar lines, at the same time implying that city technical high schools were in a better position than some other schools to resist what many considered to be the immoderate demands of School Certificate:

Many teachers appear to look upon School Certificate as a shining goal for all pupils, and regard it as a minor tragedy when a prospective passer [sic] of the examination leaves without completing the course. It would be very easy to allow School Certificate to dominate a school, and one has continually to be on guard to see that this does not happen. The average length of stay of our pupils is still not two years, so that this examination is not the aim of the majority for whom we try to cater. Fewer than one-eighth of the boys who enrol each year actually sit School Certificate.⁹

Mason spoke of the technical schools as offering "... a suitable form of post-primary education for children with practical interests",¹⁰ but the content of that education and the objectives of the schools could vary considerably from school to school. Those in the main centres and in smaller cities and towns where there were also state secondary schools¹¹ enjoyed a greater degree of flexibility in their programmes. They could also give more emphasis to practically-based courses than those which were in towns where there were no state secondary schools.¹²

Daylight training for apprentices

The most significant development in the field of technical education between 1946 and 1959 was the introduction and, as time went on, the expansion of daylight training for apprentices.¹³ The Apprentices' Amendment Act 1946 and the consolidating Apprentices' Act 1948 made provision for the compulsory day-time release of apprentices to attend technical classes. The scheme began in 1948.¹⁴ Though most of the instruction was provided in technical high schools, some secondary and combined schools also ran apprentice training classes, both in the day time and in the evening.¹⁵ Apprentices who were out of reach of the classes provided by the post-primary schools were catered for by the newly-established Technical Correspondence School (later, Technical Correspondence Institute).¹⁶ The setting up of a National Trades Certification Board in 1949 to conduct examinations and award certificates in the various trades helped to give shape and purpose to the apprentice training programmes, as well as acting as an incentive to the apprentices who were following them.¹⁷ The apprentice training schemes developed very rapidly; by 1952, daylight

classes for apprentices were being provided in twenty-three post-primary schools from Whangarei to Invercargill, and evening classes in forty-six schools from Kaitaia to Invercargill. At least nine major trades were being covered in the daylight classes, and seven in the evening classes.¹⁸ In 1956, Beeby reported that "... the schools are well on the way towards providing a training commensurate with the needs of apprentices ... [and] the pattern of apprentice training ... is unlikely to alter drastically in the near future".¹⁹ Two other aspects of the apprenticeship system had a considerable effect on the post-primary schools of the time. First, the various orders governing apprenticeships laid down prerequisite educational requirements for entry to the different trades; in almost all cases, a minimum of two years' post-primary education was stipulated. This requirement reduced considerably the number of pupils leaving school before the end of their second year, since many of the would-be early leavers were also keen to take up apprenticeships. Second, most apprenticeship orders also provided for the shortening of the term of apprenticeship for those who held specified educational qualifications. The arrangements varied from trade to trade, but, in general, those taking up apprenticeships had their terms of apprenticeship shortened by six months (i.e., one thousand hours)²⁰ if they had passed School Certificate, or, in some cases, had obtained a minimum of 50 per cent in two School Certificate subjects chosen from a prescribed list; two awards simply required a minimum of three years' post-primary education. In the case of one trade, the credit for possessing School Certificate was set at two thousand hours. These provisions made it worthwhile for those intending to take up apprenticeships to return to school for a third year and sit the School Certificate examination. Since the orders regarding the

shortening of the term of apprenticeships often prescribed at least two of the subjects which had to be included in the qualifying School Certificate, the requirements also had the effect of giving purpose and direction to the third-year programmes of the pupils concerned.

Development of the senior technical colleges

Collett maintained that the provision for the compulsory attendance of apprentices at day-release classes and evening classes was "... a measure which had a most profound and far-reaching effect on the technical high schools".²¹ This was particularly true as far as the technical colleges in the four main centres were concerned. In the year the apprentice training scheme was introduced, two of the metropolitan technical colleges already had day-school rolls of over one thousand pupils;²² the other two also had very large enrolments of post-primary pupils. Since all of these schools were hard pressed for accommodation,²³ "the heavy additional burden of daylight training of apprentices"²⁴ imposed a very considerable strain on the principal and teaching staff, as well as on resources and equipment. It was becoming increasingly apparent that a much sharper delimitation of function was essential. Beeby certainly appreciated this fact:

A conglomerate type of institution catering for twelve-year olds and adults, and teaching everything from spelling to professional engineering, has served the country well, but we can scarcely expect it to meet the more complex needs of the future.²⁵

If there were to be a new order in the senior technical colleges, the first task would be to establish priorities, and decide on the type and scope of the re-organisation that would be needed to enable the

schools to concentrate their resources on those priorities. The Chief Inspector indicated the direction that the change was likely to take as early as 1950, when he referred to the daylight training of apprentices and the training of technicians as "... new and supremely important activities". He pointed out that, to make room for them in the larger technical colleges, it would be necessary, eventually, to reduce the junior (technical high) school numbers.²⁶ He also spoke of "... the ultimate objective of a limited number of senior technical schools gradually assuming the character of technological institutions", though he acknowledged that this goal was "still a few years away".^{27, 28} By 1956, Beeby was saying that, if the [larger] technical colleges were to develop more advanced programmes, they would have to shed all of their high school pupils.²⁹

Although the way ahead had been laid down, even if none too explicitly, making progress along that way proved to be an arduous and protracted assignment. The Government was already stretched to the limit in its efforts to meet the demands for school buildings in both the primary and post-primary sectors. In the other area crucial to expansion - staffing - there were not nearly enough teachers even to satisfy the requirements of the existing schools. There was also the need to find the money for the planned developments. None of these three problems was completely resolved during the 50's. McKenzie *et al.*'s comment, "... scarcity of resources prevented any rapid changes in policy from being made ...",³⁰ held good for most of the ensuing ten years. During this time, there was much planning, but very little action. In his Report for 1955, Beeby took as his special topic 'Technical Education'. He examined at some length the case for "... setting up a ... type of national college from which a technological

institute might arise if the need for it ever became apparent".³¹ After dismissing the notion of "distributing national courses between the existing technical schools in the main centres", since "the metropolitan schools cannot afford to have their energies diverted from their main task", the Director concluded that "a central and independent national technical institution is called for". He added: "... the situation would best be met by an existing technical school that could drop its local commitments just as fast as national demands on its facilities expanded."³² The 'existing technical school' Beeby had in mind was the Hutt Valley Memorial Technical College. He was confident that high school courses currently taught there could be taken over by other schools in the Hutt Valley and in Wellington City,³³ thus allowing for an expansion of senior technical work. The Director emphasised that:

If it were decided to make the Hutt Valley Memorial Technical College a national technical institute, there need be no irrevocable or dramatic changes made immediately. It would be possible to 'test the market' for new technicians' courses, and old functions would be dropped only as a solid demand for new ones became established.³⁴

These arguments appealed to the Government, which decided, during 1957, to convert the Hutt Valley Memorial Technical College into a national technical institute. From the end of 1957, all courses for girls at the College were discontinued, except for one group of commercial girls who intended to sit School Certificate in 1958.³⁵ A notice in the *Education Gazette* of 1 July 1958 indicated that the Hutt Valley Memorial Technical College, Petone would be known thenceforth as the Central Technical College; from 1959, the technical high school division of the College would be confined to boys. In 1959, the Central Technical College was divided into two parts:

One part ... is a technical high school for boys, and this is to be moved before long to a new building to be erected in Petone where it will become a coeducational, multicourse post-primary school. A separate principal for this high school section has since been appointed.³⁶

The other part was the new national polytechnic. Similarly, Seddon Memorial Technical College, Auckland was gradually converted into a regional technical institute. After years of 'discussions', the Government gave a final undertaking in 1956 that Seddon (along with Hutt Valley Memorial Technical College) would eventually "be remodelled as polytechnics as a first move towards developing a system of senior technical institutions primarily adapted to the training of technicians and tradesmen".³⁷ The Seddon Board of Managers took the initiative by asking the Department to approve the preparation of plans for a new five or six-storey block to house one thousand technical high school pupils. This block was to be built on the existing site, thus allowing the buildings already there to be remodelled as a polytechnic under a separate principal.³⁸ Within a year, the Government had agreed to this request, and Seddon Memorial Technical College was divided into two separate institutions, a technical high school and a senior technical college, each under its own principal, but both under the same board of managers.³⁹ Beeby expressed the opinion that

... the decision to split Seddon Memorial Technical College may come to rank with the creation of the first technical high school in 1905 as a major turning point in New Zealand's system of technical education. Other metropolitan technical colleges will probably follow suit over a period of years.⁴⁰

He also admitted that it might have been better to establish the technical high school on a new site, but explained that the high school buildings would still be needed to cater for the peak evening

rolls of the polytechnic. In any case, no alternative inner-city site for the technical high school was available.⁴¹ The move to divide Seddon Memorial Technical College could hardly have been delayed much longer. According to the principal, H.M. Scott, only thirty-two of the College's 1956 complement of sixty-seven full-time teachers were engaged in the technical high school, which was, by then, accounting for only 41 per cent of the work done in the College.⁴² Although a senior technical college was not set up in Christchurch until 1965, Christchurch Technical College had paved the way for this eventuality as early as 1952, when it withdrew from association with the Christchurch Post-primary Schools' Board of Governors. The Education Amendment Act 1952 restored full control of the College to its own board of managers, prompting the Minister to comment: "The [Christchurch] Technical School [sic] will pursue its own course in the development of higher technical education."⁴³ Further details of this move, as well as of the establishing of a senior technical college in Wellington in 1962, will be given in chapter 15.

Further developments

While the negotiations for the division of Seddon Memorial Technical College and of Hutt Valley Memorial Technical College were going on, four other events occurred which were to have a significant effect on technical education in the long term. First, the Public Service Commission agreed to re-establish in the Department, with effect from 1 February, 1956, the position of Superintendent of Technical Education. Dr B.C. Lee was appointed to fill it. Much of Dr Lee's work was to centre on the development of senior technical education, though another of his main tasks was "... to focus the

demands of industry upon the schools and help the schools to meet them".⁴⁴ Second, following a recommendation from the Standing Committee on Technical Education, the Government decided, in 1957, to allow the heads of the largest technical high schools six weekly teaching half-days for administration purposes.⁴⁵ This concession was an acknowledgment by the Department that it was essential "to reduce the spread of the [technical college] principals' energies and attention".⁴⁶ The move was at least a start in the direction of relieving the principals of the largest technical colleges of much of the responsibility for the day-to-day running of their technical high school divisions. Third, in June, 1957, a conference was held at Wallis House (Wellington) "when representatives of the Departments of Education and Labour, schools, and industry drew up a blueprint of technical education for the 1960's".⁴⁷ At this conference, formal approval was given to convert Hutt Valley Memorial Technical College into a central technical institute.⁴⁸ Fourth, as an outcome of a two-day national conference on technical education convened by the Minister, and held in April, 1958, a widely representative National Advisory Council for Technical Education was set up.⁴⁹ Beeby welcomed what he saw as a timely move: "With the establishment of the Council, we are in a very much better position than ever before to cope with the rapidly growing demands of industry on our school system."⁵⁰

The breaking down of the secondary-technical dichotomy

Outside the four main centres, the dividing line between secondary schools and technical schools had long been rather blurred. In the period between 1946 and 1959, there were a number of developments which hastened the eventual elimination of the remaining

divisions between these two sectors of the post-primary system. The movement had already been given a considerable fillip by the 1945 syllabus reforms,⁵¹ as well as by the introduction, in 1944, of common staff salary scales and a unified system of teacher grading.⁵² These changes had the effect of including secondary and technical teachers in a single service, at least from the administrative point of view. Then, in 1946, several measures were taken which brought the secondary and technical sectors even closer together. Reference has already been made to the combining of the offices of Superintendent of Technical Education and Chief Inspector of Secondary Schools to create the new post of Chief Inspector of Post-primary Schools, with overall responsibility for both branches. At the same time, the secondary and technical inspectorates were amalgamated, so that what were formerly two quite separate units would henceforward operate as one team in both types of school. Also, in 1946, the government grant made to secondary schools for general purposes and for administration was put on the same basis as that made to technical schools. Consequently, secondary schools received more money to "conduct a wider range of courses involving more practical subjects",⁵³ that is, the kind of programmes which had previously been offered only by technical schools. In the early 50's, another event which profoundly influenced the coming together of the secondary and technical branches was the decision of the teachers in the two sectors to combine their national Associations into a single organisation. This move was undoubtedly a very powerful unifying factor; in the ultimate, probably the most powerful of all.

The quickening of the movement towards breaking down the distinctions between secondary and technical schools in the immediate

post-war years was consistent with pre-war Labour Party policy.⁵⁴ T.H. McCombs, who succeeded Mason as Minister of Education in October, 1947, was, nevertheless, in two minds on the issue. While he "endorsed the traditional preference of the New Zealand Labour Party for the common post-primary school, ... he acknowledged that there was also a place for special types of schools".⁵⁵ McCombs's successor, R.M. Algie, although of a different political hue, also appeared to have wanted the best of both worlds. In 1950, he expressed his conviction of the value of technical high schools for certain pupils, such as a boy "who can turn out a handworked product which makes him glow with pride when he sees it".⁵⁶ However, in his Report for 1951, Algie stated, just as unequivocally:

... such divisions [between secondary schools and technical schools] are not appropriate to our democratic society, and I am glad to see a type of school in which all children work and play in the same atmosphere without any thought that their differing abilities have social significance.⁵⁷

The Ministers' ambivalence was understandable. There were differences between the two types of school, differences which were too subtle to be amenable to removal by legislation. The fact that all the technical high schools were coeducational; that their programmes tended to be "organised on broad and liberal lines",⁵⁸ and covered a wide range of studies; that their curricula were for so long unfettered by examination requirements, thus enabling them to be leaders in "pioneering new courses and new styles of teaching";⁵⁹ that, for the most part, they made no use of corporal punishment; and that they were subject to "the leavening influence of that portion of the staff who [became] teachers after a career in industry or commerce",⁶⁰ gave those schools a distinctive spirit and tradition,

which influenced the attitude of the pupils, as well as frequently engendering "strong loyalties towards them among city populations".⁶¹ On the other hand, the secondary schools were becoming more adept at meeting the needs of the slower learners; were themselves offering an ever-widening range of practical subjects; and were gradually losing their traditional reputation as institutions concerned almost exclusively with training the intellect.

In time, the differences between secondary and technical schools became less and less significant. As early as 1948, the Chief Inspector claimed that "... the term 'multilateral' can now be genuinely applied, at the School Certificate stage, especially, to the majority of New Zealand post-primary schools";⁶² by the following year, he was suggesting that it was hard to justify the practice of classifying secondary and technical schools separately: "It differentiates rather between methods of establishment than between curricula."⁶³ He predicted that it would only be a matter of time before "all the post-primary schools that are called upon to serve the needs of all the pupils in their community will be indistinguishable".⁶⁴ Not much more than a decade later, the Currie Commission stated outright that "... the distinction between the secondary schools and the technical schools ... has been virtually wiped out ... [and] the post-primary system, with some local variations, is now organically one and indivisible".⁶⁵

Conclusion

The demise of the technical high school will be considered in chapter 15. However, worth noting at this point is the general

agreement that the technical schools had a most beneficial effect on post-primary education overall in the period from 1905 to 1960. Typical of the opinions to this effect expressed by people who had a thorough knowledge and a deep understanding of the technical school system were those of Nicol, who believed that these schools "[did] the community a service by supplying an impulse towards broadening and modernising secondary school curricula";⁶⁶ and Potter, who went further, claiming that "... the concept of the [New Zealand] multilateral school ... is a modification of the liberal education the technical colleges battled to promote".⁶⁷ At the same time, Potter acknowledged:

There is one marked difference. Despite their liberal content, technical college courses had a strong vocational flavour. The emphasis now is on broad, general education with specialisation in vocational courses left until secondary schooling is complete.⁶⁸

THE POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION OF THE MAORI^{6 9}

Following the introduction of the new curriculum in the middle 40's, Maori pupils, whether they were attending a state school or one of the denominational boarding schools, were offered the chance to make real headway towards achieving genuine equality of educational opportunity. New schools were opened to cater for them; government assistance by way of scholarships was extended quite substantially; and new agencies entered the field to offer them support and encouragement.

Characteristic features of the period

The percentage of Maori primary school leavers proceeding to post-primary schooling jumped from 62 in 1948 to 89 in 1958, with particularly large increases recorded in the second half of the 50's.⁷⁰ At the same time, with the proportion of Maori pupils staying on at post-primary schools beyond the age of fifteen steadily increasing, the total numbers of Maori pupils attending post-primary schools grew progressively larger. Ball's figure of 337 in 1939 had risen to 2,165 by 1948;⁷¹ five years later, it stood at 4,541;⁷² by 1959, it exceeded 5,500.⁷³ Statistics also showed that, by the late 50's, Maori pupils were beginning their post-primary schooling at an age which was almost the same as that for European children.⁷⁴ Further, the academic achievements of Maori pupils continued to improve. In 1953, for example, eighteen out of forty-three Maori district high school candidates for School Certificate passed the examination,⁷⁵ a pass rate of 42 per cent. This represented a

creditable performance for these schools, and was a pointer to the quality of the work they were doing.

New schools

Two new schools which were to serve the needs of Maori pupils, in particular, were opened in the period. In 1947, the long-awaited post-primary school at Kaikohe was established, under the control of the Auckland Education Board. The advertisement for the foundation principal was explicit:

The principal should be fitted by training and temperament to develop successfully agricultural and technical education, as well as to manage a farm of economic size. Experience and understanding of Maori educational needs is [sic] essential.⁷⁶

Initially known as Kaikohe Agricultural and Technical High School, the school, within a year, adopted the name Northland College. By 1955, the College had a roll of 528, its farm was well developed, and its hostel catered for just on a hundred boys. An *Education Gazette* advertisement for a new principal for Northland College, in 1955, required applicants to "... state their experience in ... the post-primary education of Maori pupils",⁷⁷ who still made up a high proportion of the school's population. A new chapter in the post-primary education of the Maori was opened in 1959, when the Manutahi Maori District High School was translated to a full post-primary school. Manutahi had shown the most consistent growth of all the Maori district high schools, its opening (1946) roll of thirty-seven having risen, by 1951, to eighty-one, a figure which was almost double the average roll number of the Maori district high schools for that year. Six years later, Manutahi had 208 pupils; in 1959, it began its

new life as Ngata Memorial College. At the wish of the parents, the College was administered for its first three years by a committee of management under the Hawke's Bay Education Board.⁷⁸ Although Ngata Memorial College was to remain a relatively small school (fifteen years after it opened, its roll was still below three hundred), it meant a great deal to the Maori people of the East Coast. It was an institution where the Maori adolescent could receive a full post-primary education without having to move "away from his own environment and his own people".⁷⁹

Maori denominational boarding schools

From 1946 to 1959, the Maori denominational boarding schools continued to cater for a substantial proportion of government scholarship holders.⁸⁰ There were eight denominational schools in 1946 (three schools for boys, and five for girls). St Stephen's School was still closed after being commandeered during the war years as a military hospital. It reopened in 1947. New denominational schools were established in 1946 (St Peter's, Northcote - for boys), in 1948 (Hato Paora, Feilding - for boys), and in 1950 (Te Whaiti Farm - for boys), so that, by the beginning of the 50's, there were eleven denominational schools, catering for some eight hundred pupils.⁸¹ The combined roll figures of these schools remained remarkably static for a number of years, though numbers were falling away by the end of the decade. A few of the schools, notably Te Aute and St Joseph's, had moderately large rolls, but, as table 35 shows, the average size of the schools was quite small. In the second half of the 50's, they were much the same size as the Maori district high schools. Although these schools continued to be plagued by financial problems, they did

TABLE 35

ROLLS OF MAORI DENOMINATIONAL BOARDING SCHOOLS, 1946-1959, AS AT DECEMBER

		1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Hukarere (Napier)	g.	94	99	90	109	117	124	118	119	126	116	113	106	89	61
Queen Victoria (Auck.)	g.	78	78	78	79	88	79	75	69	78	79	73	77	60	78
St Joseph's (Napier)	g.	71	90	104	106	107	115	131	131	135	130	130	108	104	110
St Stephen's (Auck.)	b.	closed	26	38	75	97	110	100	59	46	71	90	106	118	79
Te Aute (Pukehou)	b.	115	127	125	140	157	145	139	140	133	122	114	109	93	70
Te Waipounamu (Chch.)	g.	38	35	37	39	39	34	34	31	34	34	31	34	30	31
Turakina (Marton)	g.	54	56	51	55	50	47	52	54	56	50	52	55	53	56
Wesley (Paerata)	b.	37	36	34	38	36	21	29	34	26	21	18	18	23	20
St Peter's (Northcote)	b.	33	46	59	55	54	58	61	60	60	70	74	71	65	60
Hato Paora (Feilding)	b.	-	-	26	33	39	66	73	66	81	112	111	138	114	105
Te Whaiti Farm	b.	-	-	-	-	16	14	19	23	13	13	18	12	6	12
Totals		520	593	642	729	800	813	831	786	788	818	824	834	755	682
Average roll		65	66	64	73	73	74	75	71	72	74	75	76	69	62

Source: E.1 Reports

broaden their curricula quite considerably in the 50's. However, the range of subjects they could offer was narrower than they would have liked, because of their limited enrolments.

Maori district high schools

By 1946, only four Maori district high schools had been established. Three more were opened in 1947, at Te Kaha (Bay of Plenty), Ruatoki (Taneatua), and Rangitahi (Murupara); another was established at Tokomaru Bay in 1949; and yet another at Motatau (Northland) in 1951. Three years later, a Maori district high school was opened on Matakana Island (Tauranga), and a further three schools were established in 1955, at Raupunga (Hawke's Bay), Punaruku (Hikurangi), and Tokaanu (Turangi). This brought the number of Maori district high schools to thirteen, a total that was maintained until 1957, when, as part of the move to transfer Maori schools to education board control, Rangitahi and Tokomaru Bay Maori District High Schools became ordinary district high schools under the control of the South Auckland Education Board and the Hawke's Bay Education Board respectively. After Manutahi Maori District High School became Ngata Memorial College, in 1959, ten Maori district high schools remained.

Throughout the period, official commentaries on the Maori district high schools (except in so far as staffing was concerned) were generally confident and optimistic. For example, in his Report for 1946, the Senior Inspector of Native Schools declared that the Native district high schools would "increase rapidly in size in the next two or three years".⁸² While there was an increase in average roll numbers in 1947 and 1948, decreases were registered in each of

the following two years. Indeed, average roll figures were extremely modest up to 1952 (table 36). From 1953, rolls rose quite sharply, reaching a peak in 1956. However, the average roll number declined again in 1959, when Manutahi, by far the largest of all the Maori district high schools, achieved full post-primary status. One factor which certainly inhibited the growth of the Maori district high schools was the serious lack of suitable buildings and equipment. The Senior Inspector acknowledged, in 1949, that "... nearly every Maori district high school secondary department is overcrowded, and laboratory, library, and craft facilities are poor".⁸³ On the credit side, the antagonism towards the Maori district high schools which so many Maori parents and elders had displayed in the 40's had been largely overcome by the early 50's. There was now ample evidence that Maori parents everywhere were taking more and more interest in the post-primary education of their children.⁸⁴

The staffing of the Maori district high schools was a constant and seemingly insoluble problem. In his Report for 1951, the Senior Inspector of Maori Schools stated:

The most serious difficulty arose in staffing the post-primary departments of the Maori district high schools, and in securing the services of teachers of woodwork and cookery The plain fact is that there are not enough qualified post-primary assistants for the number of positions available.⁸⁵

In the following year, the position was, if anything, worse: "... continued advertising for assistant teachers in the post-primary departments of the Maori district high schools failed to elicit any appreciable response."⁸⁶ In 1954, the Director, referring to the Maori district high schools, lamented:

TABLE 36

ROLLS OF MAORI DISTRICT HIGH SCHOOLS, 1946-1959, AS AT 1 MARCH

Est.	School	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
1941	Manutahi ¹ (E.Coast)	37	63	85	56	62	81	81	108	129	163	194	208	198	-
1941	Te Araroa ³ (E.Coast)	51	57	58	60	53	52	38	63	84	86	80	72	64	84
1941	Tikitiki (E. Coast)	12	19	21	43	32	31	35	51	78	108	119	116	98	101
1944	Te Kao (Northland)	16	16	24	21	20	22	29	32	37	54	51	51	62	66
1947	Te Kaha (Bay of Plenty)	-	24	28	27	26	44	47	87	101	83	78	86	78	83
1947	Ruatoki (Taneatua)	-	32	30	26	27	36	31	27	35	36	60	50	57	54
1947	Rangitahi ² (Murupara)	-	22	35	29	29	35	34	31	62	76	89	-	-	-
1949	Tokomaru Bay	-	-	-	40	41	51	47	55	65	72	71	-	-	-
1951	Motatau (Northland)	-	-	-	-	-	31	51	62	61	65	77	88	82	77
1954	Matakana Is. (Tauranga)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26	30	34	32	26	31
1955	Raupunga (Hawke's Bay)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	35	52	44	41
1955	Punaruku (Hikurangi)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	32	42	40	39	42
1955	Tokaanu (Turangi)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26	33	41	57	50
Total rolls		116	233	281	302	290	383	393	516	678	849	963	836	805	629
Average roll		29	33	40	38	36	43	44	57	68	65	74	76	73	63

Source: E.2 Reports

¹ Became Ngata Memorial College from 1959² Became Rangitahi College from 1960³ Known as Rerekohu from 1956

... there was continued difficulty in securing sufficient qualified teachers for post-primary work, and vacancies have had to be filled by teachers whose qualifications would not normally be considered adequate for post-primary teaching.⁸⁷

This ominous admission is indicative of the seriousness of the staffing situation in these schools. The intractable nature of the problem was amply demonstrated when Beeby used exactly the same words five years later to describe the type of teacher who was being appointed then to the Maori district high schools.⁸⁸ One of the most serious drawbacks to recruitment was the isolation, both professional and personal, which was the lot of teachers moving into the more remote districts. Another major disincentive to teaching in the Maori district high schools was the widespread shortage of suitable accommodation, especially for single women.⁸⁹ A further deterrent to accepting a teaching position in a more remote area was hinted at by Beeby in his Report for 1954, when he referred to what seemed to be a hardening attitude towards extra-mural students on the part of some university departments. As a result, teachers working to complete their degrees were reluctant to move out of the main centres.⁹⁰

The curricula of the Maori district high schools expanded quite considerably following the implementation of the *Thomas Report*, though the range of subjects which could be offered depended on teacher availability and competence. When teachers were not obtainable, or when those employed were unable to instruct pupils in the subjects they wished to study, the services of the Correspondence School were used. By the end of the 50's, more than 600 post-primary pupils, many of them enrolled at a Maori district high school, were receiving instruction through the Correspondence School in subjects not taught in their own schools. In his 1957 Report, the Director described the

curriculum offerings of Maori district high schools. Generally, they consisted of the post-primary core and a few subjects developed from it, or in addition to it. Maori (language) was nearly always taught. Pupils seeking School Certificate usually presented English and a selection from Maori, geography, general science, biology, woodwork, homecraft, clothing, and horticulture. History was sometimes taught, and occasionally mathematics, and drawing and design.⁹¹ By 1960, Beeby was singling out biology for special mention, noting that "[it] is well and enthusiastically taught in most of the schools".⁹²

Assistance to Maori pupils

The long-established government scholarship scheme continued throughout the period, with one significant change in 1951. Until then, junior scholarships, worth £55 a year for boys and £50 a year for girls,⁹³ were awarded annually to about a hundred pupils attending Maori schools, and to a further fifteen attending public primary schools. At the end of the two-year period, roughly half of the original scholarship holders received continuation, agriculture, or nursing scholarships, which entitled them to a further two years of post-primary education. These 'senior' scholarships had the same value as the junior scholarships. In addition, scholarship pupils were entitled to free transport from home to school and back once a year.⁹⁴ In 1951, a new scholarships scheme was adopted. The former junior, continuation, agriculture, and nursing scholarships were replaced by one type of scholarship tenable for four years. At the same time, the value of the scholarships was raised by £10 a year.⁹⁵ Within a year, a further increase had been approved, so that, by 1952,

boys holding scholarships were receiving £75 a year, while girls were paid £70 a year.⁹⁶ New rules, which came into effect in 1953, gave those offered scholarships more freedom of choice in the matter of which post-primary school they could attend.⁹⁷ Further changes to the system were introduced in 1956, when eleven awards were made to talented form 2 pupils to enable them to go straight on to full post-primary schools (instead of having to spend two years first at their local district high school). Also, for the first time, as part of a planned drive to encourage Maori pupils to extend their post-primary education,⁹⁸ seven extension scholarships were awarded to outstanding pupils so that they could spend a fifth year at a post-primary school. Simultaneously, the Maori Purposes Fund Board offered to make grants to Maori pupils to encourage them to spend a year in the upper sixth form.⁹⁹ By 1957, scholarships were being awarded under two headings:

- (a) Boarding scholarships open for competition among Maoris who are required to board away from home in order to continue their education beyond the primary level; and
- (b) Boarding scholarships open for competition among Maoris who, although able to attend a district high school while living at home, cannot attend a registered post-primary school without boarding away from home.¹⁰⁰

In 1958, sixty-eight scholarships were awarded to Maori pupils, including fourteen to exceptionally able children to enable them to benefit from going directly to a full post-primary school.¹⁰¹

Early leavers

By no means all young Maoris (or their parents) were convinced that post-primary education was either necessary or desirable. Beeby, in his Report for 1955, expressed his disquiet that there were still "... a large number of promising [Maori] pupils who leave post-primary schools before they have completed even two years, and drift into seasonal and unskilled occupations".¹⁰² The Director was not alone in his concern. As early as 1946, the Vocational Guidance Service reported that "... a special effort has been made to extend vocational guidance facilities for Maori boys and girls, and plans have been laid for further development in 1947".¹⁰³ By 1951, the main thrust of the Vocational Guidance Service work was directed towards encouraging as many Maori boys as possible to become apprenticed to various trades.¹⁰⁴ The opening of hostels at both Auckland and Wellington to provide accommodation for Maori apprentices helped the Service greatly in its campaign. Within a year, the total number of Maori youths apprenticed to a range of trades throughout New Zealand had risen to two hundred.¹⁰⁵ However, although this figure may seem impressive, it still represented only a tiny proportion of Maori post-primary school leavers. Of the 1,014 Maori boys who left post-primary schools in 1957, only 133 proposed to enter the skilled trades, less than half of the expected European proportion.¹⁰⁶ At this time, it was estimated that only 3 per cent of all apprentices were Maoris.¹⁰⁷ Beeby's point was well made, since those Maoris leaving school before completing even two years had insufficient schooling to enable them to take up most types of apprenticeships.

Committees; promoting Maori language and culture

The Maori sector was not exempt from the proliferation of committees of all kinds, which was a feature of the 50's. In November, 1955, a committee of thirteen members was set up, under the chairmanship of D.G. Ball,¹⁰⁸ "to make recommendations to the Minister on any matter connected with Maori education".¹⁰⁹ Two aspects of this initiative on the part of the Minister were particularly significant. First, "... this was the first occasion on which Maoris had been members of an official national committee set up specifically to discuss the education of Maori children";¹¹⁰ and second, there were seven Maoris on the committee, which meant that they were in the majority.¹¹¹ The Report of this committee recommended that an Officer for Maori Education be appointed, and "that a strong campaign be undertaken by all organisations and persons interested in the Maori to strengthen the interest and concern of Maori parents in the educational welfare of their children".¹¹² The Government moved quickly to implement the committee's recommendations. Not only was the Senior Inspector of Maori Schools appointed to the new post of Officer for Maori Education, but it was made clear that his professional advice was to be available to the post-primary as well as to the primary inspectors.¹¹³ An even more important outcome of the work of the Ball Committee was the setting up, in 1956, of a National Advisory Committee on Maori Education, a noteworthy event, in that it "meant the end of unilateral decision making".¹¹⁴ The Advisory Committee placed particular emphasis on recognising the special needs of Maori pupils in state post-primary schools;¹¹⁵ giving a boost to the promotion of Maori culture in all types of schools; and gradually transferring the administration of Maori primary (including district high) schools to the local education boards.¹¹⁶

If the contribution of the schools towards encouraging the understanding and appreciation of Maori culture were to be a significant one, much would depend on the teachers; so, early in 1957, arrangements were made for the appointment of a lecturer in Maori studies within the education department of Auckland Teachers' Training College.¹¹⁷ Another major step forward in stimulating interest in, and appreciation of, Maori language and culture was the decision of the Minister to set up an Advisory Committee on the Teaching of the Maori Language.¹¹⁸ Hitherto, qualified teachers of Maori had been relatively rare, and the textbooks available for teaching the Maori language did not reflect modern ideas on language teaching.¹¹⁹ The new Advisory Committee, therefore, was to look into the question of providing suitable textbooks for teaching Maori in post-primary schools up to form 6 level, with particular reference to their content and form.¹²⁰ Accepting this mandate enthusiastically, the Committee decided, as a start, to publish each year two 32-page *Bulletins*¹²¹ devoted to the promotion of Maori language and culture. The first *Bulletin* of the series,¹²² a collection of stories about the life of a Maori boy, appeared in March, 1960.¹²³ Further reference to these *Bulletins*, and to other publications sponsored by the Advisory Committee,¹²⁴ will be made in subsequent chapters.

GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

Although the Government was almost totally preoccupied with building schools and finding and training teachers from 1946 to 1959, it also took action in other areas.

Legislation

By far the most significant pieces of legislation affecting education which were passed between 1946 and 1959 were the Land Act 1948 and the Education Lands Act 1949. The Land Act 1948 repealed those sections of the Education Reserves Act 1928 which dealt with the revenue derived from secondary education reserves. In future, this revenue would be paid into a new Land Settlement Account.¹²⁵ The 1949 Act designated as Crown Land those reserves from which this revenue was received.¹²⁶ The effect of this legislation was that, from 1950 onwards, the full cost of post-primary education was met from the public revenue (in this case monies appropriated annually by Parliament under Vote Education). This included expenditure on items like caretaking and cleaning, and the maintenance of school buildings, which boards had previously been required to meet from their grants for incidental expenses. Also introduced in this period was the Education Amendment Act 1959, which authorised post-primary school boards to operate teachers' salaries accounts, thus facilitating the introduction of the scheme to pay post-primary teachers fortnightly.¹²⁷ The most important of the Statutory Regulations introduced at this time were the new Free Place Regulations, which came into force on 1 February, 1946, replacing the 1937 regulations. The new regulations gave the Director the power to extend a pupil's

free place, in special circumstances, beyond the end of the year in which the pupil turned nineteen; confirmed the right of the board of governors of any school to transfer any pupil or to refuse to enrol any child as a pupil at the school; and provided for the cancellation by the Director of the free place of any pupil over the age of fifteen whose attendance, conduct, or diligence was reported by the principal or an inspector to be unsatisfactory.¹²⁸ Other items of legislation, which dealt with the control of post-primary schools, and provided for changes to the regulations affecting the constitutions of boards of governors, have been covered in chapter 9.

Increased financial provisions

Grants to schools

In 1946, the existing grant for libraries was increased, and new grants for music, social studies, and science, were introduced. A feature of these grants was that they were payable to all schools, including district high schools. The grant for libraries was raised by increasing the capitation payment to 2/- per pupil.¹²⁹ The new music grant gave schools with a roll of 150 or more £50 a year. Schools with fewer than 150 pupils received £25 a year. A similar basis was used for determining the new grant for social studies, the amounts payable being £15 and £10 a year, respectively. A new grant for science, payable only to district high schools, gave the secondary departments £10 per school per year, plus a capitation payment of 5/- per pupil.¹³⁰ These amounts may not seem large, but they meant a lot to schools which were struggling, often with very meagre resources, to implement the spirit of the new curriculum.

Grants to pupils

Reference has already been made to the bursaries, studentships, and physical education bursaries available to pupils proceeding to the university prior to becoming post-primary teachers. In 1946, the value of university national scholarships was raised from £60 to £90 a year, while ordinary boarding bursaries went up from £30 to £50 a year, exclusive of fees. In addition, Higher School Certificate holders studying full time at university were to get a bursary allowance of £20 a year. Their fees would also be paid up to a limit of £20.¹³¹ Over the next ten years, the value of all of these awards increased steadily. For comparative purposes, complete details of all forms of financial assistance available in 1956 to pupils proceeding to the university are set out in appendix I.

For some years prior to 1946, pupils going on to university to study agriculture, architecture, engineering, home science, and (from 1944) science had been eligible for the award of special bursaries. In 1946, it was decided that, in future, an examination would be held each year to assist in determining who would receive these bursaries.¹³² There were two hundred candidates for the special bursaries examination in 1946. This examination continued until 1955, after which the new Higher School Certificate bursaries scheme took its place.

Pupils still at school continued, in increasing numbers, to benefit from the secondary bursaries instituted to enable the more promising to undertake at larger (usually city) schools University Entrance courses not available at their local schools. In 1947, the Government introduced a similar bursary to give the same opportunities

to technical pupils wishing to undertake specialised work in their areas of study. Awards were made to pupils after they had completed two years of post-primary education to allow them to follow senior technical courses in agriculture, art, building construction, engineering, or homecraft at approved post-primary schools.¹³³ There were 477 secondary and technical bursaries current in 1947; by 1956, the number had risen to 670; in 1959, it stood at 757.¹³⁴ In addition, by 1954, over 5,500 pupils were in receipt of boarding allowances. From the beginning of term 3, 1955, the rate of boarding allowance was raised from 3/- to 4/- a day in cases where two or more children from the same family had to board away from home to attend school.¹³⁵

Grants for teachers' refresher courses

The Government encouraged the expansion of teachers' in-service training programmes by regularly increasing its grant under this heading. In the 1946-47 financial year, the grant was lifted to £3,000; in the following year, £6,000 was allocated. Thereafter, regular annual grants were made to support the work of the Teachers' Refresher Course Committee. From 1948 onwards, the Department also paid the travelling expenses of teachers attending courses.¹³⁶

Schemes involving additional financial commitments

Increases in school staffing schedules

The Education (Post-primary Teachers) Regulations 1945 had provided for an increase in school staffing schedules, but the shortage of teachers delayed the implementation of the new ratios until 1946.¹³⁷ The revised schedules increased the post-primary

teaching force by approximately 120, with fifty extra teachers going to the secondary schools, and seventy to the technical schools.¹³⁸ Other government initiatives affecting teachers which involved additional financial commitments, such as increases in teachers' salaries and allowances, and the extension of the teacher housing policy, have been considered in chapter 9.

Free textbook scheme

As from the beginning of the 1959 school year, the Government introduced a scheme to supply all post-primary pupils with free textbooks. Under this plan, the schools purchased the books and issued them on loan to the pupils. The Government undertook to reimburse schools for the cost of the books according to a formula which (after the initial year) allowed each school an annual sum for replacements, as well as a further sum for buying new books to issue to 'extra' pupils.¹³⁹ Each school's purchases for 1959 were authorised on the basis of the books actually used in 1958, though one title could be substituted for another.¹⁴⁰ The Associated Booksellers of New Zealand allowed special discounts to schools for books bought under the free textbook scheme.¹⁴¹ When the scheme was first mooted, in 1958, some schools had considerable misgivings about it, on two counts. First, fears were expressed "lest the Labour Party's promise of free textbooks would lead to regimentation of schools and lists of approved books",¹⁴² "... one Department, one Voice, one Book", as a correspondent to the *P.P.T.A. Journal* put it.¹⁴³ However, the Minister¹⁴⁴ gave an assurance that 'approved lists' were not contemplated.¹⁴⁵ Second, there was concern about the amount of administrative and clerical work which could be involved if the schools had to handle the scheme themselves.¹⁴⁶ In April, 1958,

the president of the P.P.T.A. reported that the weight of Association opinion favoured the option of making cash grants for textbooks to parents.¹⁴⁷ However, the Government indicated that to act in this way would be out of keeping with the Party's election pledge.¹⁴⁸

Appointment of library assistants

In 1959, the Government approved of an experimental scheme, involving eight trial schools, in terms of which library assistants were employed "to do much of the routine work that has normally been done by teachers".¹⁴⁹ The annual allowance of hours for these assistants, based on the school roll, entitled a school with a roll of between 601 and 900 to engage a library assistant for twenty-five hours per week for forty weeks of the year.¹⁵⁰ In 1960, this scheme was extended to all post-primary schools. At the same time, the former staffing allowance for library work was abolished. The Government claimed that, since the new arrangement would free teacher-librarians for classroom teaching, it represented "... an appreciable contribution to the easing of staffing difficulties",¹⁵¹ but this assertion cannot be substantiated. In an article printed in *Education* in September, 1959, it was estimated that the replacement of all teacher-librarians by library assistants would result in a net gain to the service of about twenty-four teachers.¹⁵² As the teacher shortage was running at something over 10 per cent of total entitlement at the end of the 50's, and twenty-four teachers amounted to only 0.5 per cent of the entitlement, the contribution made by the library assistant scheme to the relief of the staffing problem was very small indeed. This is not to say that the scheme did not have other advantages. It was taken up enthusiastically by the schools, and is

still in operation (with much the same time allowances) today.

Details of capital expenditure on post-primary buildings, sites, and equipment have already been given. (See table 28.) Table 37 sets out the total amount spent by the Government on education each year from 1946 to 1959. It also details that portion of the total which went to the post-primary sector.

Administrative actions

Reference has already been made to the Government's action in combining the offices of the former Superintendent of Technical Education and the Chief Inspector of Secondary Schools in 1946. This may be seen as a deliberate manoeuvre by the Government to hasten the unification of the secondary and technical branches of the system, although the possibility that, at some time in the future, it could be necessary "to appoint an officer of the Department to administer [a] new type of technical service"¹⁵³ was not ruled out.

The establishing of a branch office of the Department in Auckland from 1 April, 1948, marked the beginning of a series of moves undertaken by the Government to decentralise the administration of education in New Zealand. A Regional Superintendent of Education was appointed to take charge of the Auckland area, and a team of four post-primary inspectors was assigned to work out of Auckland from early 1948.¹⁵⁴ Administrative decentralisation was carried a step further when it was decided that, as from 1 March, 1950, a South Island group of inspectors would be domiciled in Christchurch.¹⁵⁵

TABLE 37

TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION, 1946 - 1959,
AND EXPENDITURE ON POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION

	Total Expenditure ²	Expenditure on Post- primary Education ³
Expenditure for 1946 ¹	£ 8.772 m.	£1.649 m.
" " 1947	9.951	1.688
" " 1948	11.023	1.737
" " 1949	13.745	2.076
" " 1950	15.030	2.277
" " 1951	17.648	2.645
" " 1952	21.338	2.992
" " 1953	24.047	3.366
" " 1954	25.409	3.876
" " 1955	28.519	4.431
" " 1956	31.636	4.814
" " 1957	34.036	5.390
" " 1958	35.928	5.787
" " 1959	39.168	6.372

¹ For year ending 31 March, 1947

² Includes building costs

³ Excludes building costs

Source: E.1 Reports

Finally came the decision, incorporated in the Education Amendment Act 1952, to establish, with effect from 1 November, 1952, a new education district, to be known as South Auckland, with its headquarters at Hamilton.¹⁵⁶ This move paved the way for the setting up at Hamilton in 1957 of the fourth post-primary district, with its own team of inspectors responsible directly to the Superintendent of Education in Auckland.¹⁵⁷

An important aspect of the Government's decentralisation exercise was the effect it had on the relationship between the inspectors and the schools and teachers. No longer were the inspectors required to cover so wide an area that it was next to impossible for them to identify themselves closely with the schools of any particular locality. Now, the way was open for them to become much more intimately involved in the life and work of the schools in their district, so that they could be advisers and counsellors as well as grading officers.¹⁵⁸ Above all, the inspectors could now take the lead in promoting the professional growth of the teachers in their territory by organising, directing, and encouraging various types of in-service training programmes. In August, 1947, the Department held a conference of all inspectors (primary and post-primary), the first since 1938; in the same year, seven new appointments were made to the post-primary inspectorate to enable the teams to cope with an increased workload.¹⁵⁹ Of even greater long-term significance was the decision already referred to that, from 1946, the post-primary inspectors would work as one group covering all post-primary schools.

Vocational guidance services

A very considerable expansion of the vocational guidance and careers information services in the schools took place in the period from 1946 to 1959. The Government introduced a new scheme, effective from the beginning of 1947, which provided for the appointment of careers advisers in all post-primary schools (including the secondary departments of district high schools) with two hundred or more pupils, on condition that the teacher recommended for appointment attend and satisfactorily complete a special one-week residential induction

course.¹⁶⁰ As careers advisers received a time allowance and a small salary increment, the schools experienced no difficulty in filling the new positions.¹⁶¹ In 1947, ninety-two careers advisers were appointed in sixty-eight of the larger post-primary schools;¹⁶² by 1960, over two hundred careers advisers were at work in post-primary schools all over the country.¹⁶³ Early in this period, the Department published two booklets, 'Careers for Girls' and 'Careers for Boys', which were distributed to the post-primary schools by the Vocational Guidance Service.¹⁶⁴ The booklets ran through many editions, and pupils found them extremely useful. Towards the end of 1948, the Department, in conjunction with the Vocational Guidance Service, published another booklet, 'Next Year', which was aimed at form 2 pupils and their parents. It gave information about courses at the post-primary schools, bursaries, and conditions of entry to a range of occupations.¹⁶⁵ A revised edition of 'Next Year' was issued late in 1953, and the publication was still being distributed in 1960. In 1953, the Vocational Guidance Service put out the first set of its comprehensive occupation information sheets.¹⁶⁶ These pamphlets, which were updated and added to regularly, formed the basis of the careers advisers' information service to pupils on particular occupations. By 1959, information sheets covering some 170 careers were available in every post-primary school in New Zealand.¹⁶⁷ The careers advisers did a great deal in the thirteen years from their inception to help pupils, particularly those about to enter form 5. They guided them in building up programmes of study, which, because they were relevant to the occupations the pupils wished to follow when they left school, made their school life much more meaningful and satisfying. Beeby considered that the Government's initiative in introducing careers advisers into post-primary schools had proved to

be soundly based: "The Vocational Guidance Service is now firmly established and widely valued."¹⁶⁸ His opinion was shared by others outside the Department. P. E. Vernon,¹⁶⁹ who spent some time in New Zealand in 1953, considered that "New Zealand was probably the first country in the world to introduce a scheme to cover each pupil's career from thirteen to twenty-one". He went on to say: "New Zealand has developed a system which fills a valuable place in the community, is acceptable to teachers, parents, and employers, is effective and flexible for most purposes, and economical to work."¹⁷⁰ By the end of the decade, there was a much greater public awareness of the desirability of accurate and in-depth careers information being widely available. One indication of this development was the special careers supplements which were starting to appear in the daily papers.¹⁷¹ In his Report for 1959, Beeby made reference to an extension of the careers adviser concept which was to herald the acceptance by the post-primary schools of a responsibility not previously considered to be an integral part of their function - providing for the pastoral care of their pupils. The Director indicated that, from the beginning of 1960, a teacher would be appointed to act as guidance counsellor in a large boys' school,¹⁷² on an experimental basis and for a limited period, in the first instance. The appointee would be a combined careers adviser, visiting teacher, and vocational guidance officer. As such, he would be able to offer a much more complete educational guidance service than had hitherto been possible.¹⁷³

The release, in 1954, of the Report of the Special Committee on Moral Delinquency in Children and Adolescents, chaired by Dr O.C. Mazengarb, caused widespread concern. The House of Representatives set up its own special Committee, under the chairmanship of Algie, to

study the Report, and this Committee brought down a number of recommendations aimed at curbing juvenile delinquency, which were put into effect late in 1955.¹⁷⁴ In 1956, further actions taken included the appointment of twenty-five additional officers to the field staff of the Child Welfare Division, and the opening of further district offices.¹⁷⁵ Beeby accepted the need for such developments: "This strengthening of the Division will make it easier to maintain that close and continued cooperation with the schools that is essential to the preventive programme of both services."¹⁷⁶ In 1959, the Government announced its intention to appoint, on an experimental basis, two post-primary visiting teachers in the Wellington area "... to assist with the guidance of pupils who are ill-adjusted to school".¹⁷⁷ According to the new Director, A.E. Campbell,¹⁷⁸ the scheme

emphasises the importance of the visiting teacher being a person who is at home in the post-primary school, used to dealing with the particular age group, and familiar enough with the various aspects of the curriculum to be able to advise parents and children.¹⁷⁹

This move was a further indication of the Government's resolve to provide as comprehensive a range of post-primary guidance services as possible.

Colombo Plan and UNESCO commitments

Early in 1948, Dr Beeby was offered the post of Assistant Director-General of UNESCO. He was granted leave by the Government, and served in this capacity for eighteen months from April, 1948. No doubt, Beeby's connection with UNESCO was responsible, at least to

some extent, for the Government's decision to encourage the education service, including post-primary teachers, to make "a substantial contribution" to the technical assistance programmes of UNESCO and the Colombo Plan. This was done "by the secondment of teachers and inspectors for advisory work in a number of under-developed countries".¹⁸⁰ From 1952, New Zealand post-primary teachers filled positions, under the Colombo Plan Technical Cooperation Scheme, in Malaya, Sarawak, North Borneo, Vietnam, and Indonesia.¹⁸¹ Teachers of English were in particular demand, and New Zealand teachers assisted with the training of indigenous teachers of English, particularly in Indonesia.^{182, 183} From 1957, the Technical Cooperation Scheme was extended, enabling students from the countries involved in the Colombo Plan to enrol in New Zealand post-primary schools. Wellington Technical College was one school which accepted quite large numbers of Colombo Plan students. In 1957, ten Malayan students were enrolled there in the Commercial Teachers' Training Course. The centennial history of the College recorded that the Malays "... took an active part in College life, helping to train sports teams, etc.". ¹⁸⁴ In 1958, another contingent of Colombo Plan students arrived at the College from Sarawak, North Borneo, Indonesia, and Vietnam. The College was able to engage three part-time teachers to instruct these students, most of whom were taking a special pre-university course in English and mathematics.¹⁸⁵

Commission on Education in New Zealand

Possibly the most significant of all the initiatives taken by the Government in the field of education in the 50's was the decision to set up the Commission on Education in New Zealand, chaired by Sir

George Currie.¹⁸⁶ The establishing of a Commission to enquire into a wide range of educational matters had been a Labour Party election promise in 1957. The broad terms of reference of the Commission, finally made public towards the end of 1959, were "to consider the publicly-controlled system of primary, post-primary, and technical education in relation to the present and future needs of the country".¹⁸⁷ In addition, the Commission was asked to consider the question of State aid to private schools.¹⁸⁸ An analysis of those deliberations and recommendations of the Commission which related to post-primary education will form a major theme of chapter 12.

THE SCHOOLSNew post-primary schools

Reference has already been made to the large number of post-primary schools opened between 1946 and 1959. About 40 per cent were located in the country, mainly in rural towns; 40 per cent were in suburbs of the major cities; while 20 per cent were in provincial towns and cities. Thirteen of the new schools were established in the Auckland area. Of the Wellington region's quota of seven, Onslow College (opened in 1956) was the first new post-primary school to be provided in Wellington itself since 1928.¹ The setting up of another of the new Wellington schools, Waiwhetu Girls' High School (opened in 1958), was held by some to be a triumph for the anti-coeducation lobby.² Five new schools were opened in Christchurch, and two in Dunedin. One of the Dunedin schools, Queen's High School (opened in 1955), would not have been built at all if a proposal put forward by the Department in 1951 had been adopted. Instead of building a girls' school on a site adjacent to King's High School, the Department favoured enlarging King's and turning it into a coeducational school. However, this scheme was so strongly opposed by the King's Board, staff, and Old Boys' Association that it was abandoned.³

Many of the new schools had relatively small opening rolls, though this was not the case with the translated secondary departments of the district high schools. In the late 40's and early 50's, the Department required a minimum roll of about three hundred before it

would grant a secondary department full post-primary status.⁴ Then, for a short time, this policy was relaxed, allowing some secondary departments to be translated when their rolls reached two hundred. By 1955, the minimum roll for translation had risen again to about 250. The P.P.T.A. considered that this figure was much too high; it pressed for translations when a secondary department's roll reached 121.⁵ The Association also objected to some conversions being delayed for what it claimed were reasons of expediency, such as the impending retirement of the district high school principal.⁶ Of the completely new schools, fifteen (nearly half of the total) opened with rolls of below 150; three did not even have a hundred foundation pupils.⁷ However, their location - they were all city schools, except Tokoroa High School - ensured that they would grow rapidly. In the city areas, in particular, it was often necessary to help new schools to achieve reasonable opening roll figures by introducing zoning.⁸ By the mid-50's, a number of 'enrolment schemes' (the official term for zoning) were in force. Zoning was often criticised in the 50's, especially by parents who disliked coeducational schools. However, as the chairman of the Wellington Colleges' Board pointed out at that time: "There is no alternative which will obviate over-crowding on the one hand, and empty classrooms on the other."⁹

Another contentious issue associated with new schools was the timing of the advertisement inviting applications for the position of principal. The P.P.T.A. wanted all of the formalities connected with the principal's appointment to be completed before the end of the first term of the year preceding the opening of the new school,¹⁰ so that staff could be appointed in term two. That would enable those schools losing teachers to the new schools to advertise their

vacancies in the 1 October *Education Gazette*.¹¹ Under pressure from the P.P.T.A., the Department finally relented. It agreed, early in 1957, to call public meetings in the respective areas in April to determine who was to control the new school. The principal's position could then be advertised in time for an appointment to be made early in term two.^{12,13}

In a number of locations, the Department, anticipating that a post-primary school would be needed eventually, had acquired a suitable site. Elsewhere, it sometimes had to purchase land which required a great deal of costly ground development before it could be built on. At Penrose High School, Auckland, pre-building site preparations cost £42,750 (a very large sum of money in the early 50's),¹⁴ while at Selwyn College, Auckland, there was also considerable capital outlay on preliminary ground work.¹⁵ The need to first prepare suitable building platforms substantially increased the cost of a number of the schools which were erected in the 50's.

District high schools

Although thirty-four district high schools became large enough between 1946 and 1959 to be accorded full post-primary status, the opening of new secondary departments meant that there were still 106 district high schools in 1959, compared with 104 in 1945. Over the period, the total number varied, rising in 1955 to a peak of 114, but declining steadily in the late 50's. In any given year, there were generally at least ten schools with very large rolls,¹⁶ while an even larger number had comparatively few pupils.¹⁷

The major problem facing the district high schools at this time continued to be staffing. The Minister reported, in 1947, that: "Teachers are showing some reluctance to offer themselves for this very important branch of the service".¹⁸ This reluctance became even more pronounced in the 50's, when there were sometimes as many vacant teaching positions advertised in the secondary departments of the district high schools as there were in the post-primary schools proper, even though the latter were catering for five times as many pupils as the secondary departments.¹⁹ The 1958 staffing survey referred to earlier²⁰ disclosed that, although there were only ten unfilled teaching positions in the district high schools, a further one hundred of the 494 scheduled positions were filled by underqualified teachers (42), superannuitants (11), married women 'helping out' (18), other relievers (18), and part-time teachers (11). The shortage of qualified staff in the secondary departments at that time amounted to 22.3 per cent of their total staffing entitlement, compared with the national overall shortfall of 12.3 per cent.²¹ The country service regulations did increase the number of well-qualified teachers in country schools, including district high schools, though many of these teachers returned to the cities as soon as they had fulfilled their obligations. Consequently, staff turnover in the secondary departments was so high in the 50's that courses often collapsed when short-stay teachers left.²² Itinerant teachers in agriculture, commercial subjects, and arts and crafts provided some relief, but their contributions were usually spread very thinly.²³

In 1946, the secondary departments of the district high schools were put on the same footing as other post-primary schools in respect of staffing schedules, salaries, and the grading of teachers.²⁴ One

advantage of this move was that the secondary departments, especially those few which were accrediting schools, received much more frequent visits from the inspectors.²⁵ The 1946 Regulations also provided for 'special posts' in the secondary departments of the larger district high schools.²⁶ This led to an improvement in the conditions of some senior teachers, but did little to bring additional experienced teachers to the district high schools.²⁷ Some opposition was expressed at the time to grading the teachers in the secondary departments under post-primary regulations, while the headmaster continued to be graded by primary inspectors, who now had no access to the secondary departments. Edwards considered that: "To have a merely nominal headmaster whose professional future is not dependent in any way upon a large and important section of his school cannot be in the interests of efficiency".²⁸

The curriculum of the secondary departments remained heavily dependent on the quality and versatility of the available teachers. In general, the programmes offered tended to be limited in range, viable only as long as the teachers responsible for them remained at the school, and often badly taught. Worthwhile agricultural courses were rare, prompting Wood, in 1958, to claim that the district high schools "have been channels to the city, rather than real rural schools".²⁹ When the secondary departments could not offer instruction in a desired subject, pupils were enrolled with the Correspondence School. In spite of the increased grants they received for equipment from the mid-40's onwards,³⁰ the secondary departments, on the whole, were not well provided with teaching resources. A 1955 survey of district high school libraries showed that, in many cases, their book stocks were still totally inadequate.³¹

In 1952, Parkyn had noted that rural education still had its problems, especially at secondary level, "where the difficulty of providing a full and varied education is acute".³² As this difficulty persisted, the district high school concept came under increasing criticism, particularly from the P.P.T.A. In his presidential address in 1960, Edwards declared that he had

no desire to see the retention in our New Zealand educational system of a type of school which provides a cheaper and less efficient form of post-primary education for country children than is provided for the children in towns and cities ... in which, in a majority of cases, the nominal headteacher has had no post-primary experience; in which the provision of staffing is at almost all points less generous than in a full post-primary school; in which the provision of finance is shockingly low compared with that provided for a full post-primary school; in which equipment of all kinds is on far more frugal lines than in a full post-primary school; and which is controlled by a committee elected in most cases with the primary school mainly in mind.³³

Edwards claimed, further, that the secondary departments were retained because they had "become a vested interest, particularly of those large education boards which control considerable numbers of district high schools".³⁴ The P.P.T.A. strongly supported Parkyn's recommendation that the intermediate and secondary departments of adjacent district high schools should be consolidated, and separated from their primary departments.³⁵ The outcome of this controversy was the setting up of a new type of school - the form 1-6 school - the development of which will be discussed in chapter 14.³⁶

Correspondence School

The opening of so many new post-primary schools between 1946 and 1959, and the extension of school transport services, brought a

regular school within the reach of a large number of pupils who would previously have had to enrol with the Correspondence School. Consequently, the roll of the secondary department of the School in 1957 was little more than half of what it had been in 1946.³⁷ Nevertheless, the School continued to play a vital role in supplementing the teaching of those schools where, because of staffing problems, tuition in some subjects was not available. In 1957, it was giving instruction, mainly in foreign languages, science subjects, mathematics, commercial subjects, and clothing, to 510 pupils (60 per cent of them candidates for School Certificate or University Entrance) who were enrolled at other schools.³⁸ It was so successful with this kind of rescue operation that a contributor to the *P.P.T.A. Journal* claimed, in 1956, that, "... in these days of staff shortage, the Correspondence School has become the emergency school of the country".³⁹ In this period, the School expanded both its curriculum offerings and its methods of communicating with its pupils. It obtained an additional fifteen-minute radio session in 1953, enabling it to broadcast lessons every school day;⁴⁰ it introduced, in the mid-50's, residential schools, some lasting for as long as a month;⁴¹ it began experiments in the use of tape recordings as a direct link between teacher and pupil in 1959;⁴² while, in the same year, it added physics to its list of post-primary subjects.⁴³ The following testimony to the quality of the teaching given by the Correspondence School was provided by one of its pupils who was selected to represent New Zealand at the Third World Youth Forum, held in the United Kingdom in 1951: "Many of the people who have congratulated me seem to feel that I succeeded in spite of my Correspondence School education instead of because of it; so I often have to enlighten them."⁴⁴ More than a decade later, the work of the Correspondence School was still being highly praised:

From the evidence submitted and from other sources, the Commission is convinced that the service provided by the Correspondence School for country children and for children suffering different sorts of handicaps is of a very high standard indeed; in fact, the Correspondence School ranks as a world leader in such educational services.⁴⁵

Links with the primary sector

The long-standing failure of primary and post-primary teachers to interest themselves in each other's policies and practices persisted in this period. The Currie Commission referred to this "discontinuity" more than once in its *Report*,⁴⁶ describing the "zone where the two systems meet, where there should be liaison and understanding", as "too often an area of friction".⁴⁷ Nevertheless, the Commission acknowledged that there was also evidence of "increasing goodwill and local cooperation"⁴⁸ between the two sections of the service. Between 1946 and 1959, a number of developments designed to promote better 'liaison and understanding' took place. In 1946, special physical education officers (seconded from the field staff) were appointed in three regions to carry out liaison work between primary and post-primary schools, since, as the Chief Inspector of Primary Schools put it, "... it is particularly desirable that there should be no sharp break in methods between the two types of school".⁴⁹ In January, 1949, a successful refresher course in art and crafts for both primary and post-primary specialists was held at Feilding. One reported outcome was that "arising from the requests of the post-primary specialists, a start has been made in extending the primary scheme into the post-primary schools".⁵⁰ This breakthrough was given further impetus, in 1953, when a number of liaison officers in art and crafts were appointed specifically to promote the continuation in the post-primary schools of the primary art and crafts

scheme. The Director described this move as "markedly successful".⁵¹ In his Report for 1957, Beeby noted that groups of primary and post-primary inspectors were "making a close study of the problems involved in the transition from form 2 to form 3",⁵² while two Wallis House courses were planned for 1958, one to study the teaching of arithmetic, "with particular reference to the junction between the primary and post-primary syllabuses", and the other to "work similarly on the teaching of formal English".⁵³ In 1958, an inspector of post-primary schools was seconded to direct a large pilot scheme on the coordination of primary and post-primary science programmes.⁵⁴ All of these initiatives pointed to a general improvement in communication and contact between the primary and post-primary sectors. In 1959, Beeby summed up the position as follows: "No longer can it be said that primary and post-primary teachers live in different educational worlds."⁵⁵ However, although these advances were significant, they represented only the first steps in tackling what was a most complex problem; the Currie Commission correctly described the moves as "mainly local or occasional".⁵⁶ Progress on the national front had to await the development, in the 60's and 70's, of official syllabuses covering the form 1-4 area, in subjects like social studies and science.

Examinations

School Certificate

The first examination for the new School Certificate, held in 1946, caused candidates and teachers alike some anxiety. The prescriptions for the revised certificate reflected a change of emphasis as well as content, and there were no previous papers to give

those involved an idea of what to expect. However, the Chief Inspector of Secondary Schools, in his Report for 1946, indicated that "... there was little criticism of the papers set, or of their standard, and generally, teachers seemed to be well satisfied with the new examination ...".⁵⁷ From the beginning, the new School Certificate was readily accepted by the schools; between 1946 and 1959, the proportion of form 5 pupils sitting the examination rose from just on 65 per cent to 84 per cent.⁵⁸ Table 38 sets out the number of candidates for School Certificate in each year from 1946 to 1959, and gives details of those securing passes. Initially, some (especially girls') schools dissuaded their pupils from sitting for School Certificate in their third year.⁵⁹ However, by 1954, 90 per cent of the boys and 80 per cent of the girls making their first attempt at School Certificate were in their third year at a post-primary school.⁶⁰ There was little variation in the relative popularity of the optional subjects for School Certificate in this period. History, geography, mathematics, French, and general science (not necessarily in that order) occupied the first five places, followed by biology, chemistry, bookkeeping, and (by the late 50's) commercial practice.⁶¹ The trade subjects were slow to produce candidates; in 1951, there were nearly three thousand entries for French, but only 338 for woodwork, and 312 for engineering shopwork.⁶² However, by the end of the 50's, trade subjects had a much larger following. Commercial and home-life subjects, as well as drawing and design, all developed quite rapidly in the 50's, while physics, introduced in 1956, was among the ten most popular optional subjects by 1961.⁶³

TABLE 38

NUMBER OF CANDIDATES, NUMBER SECURING PASSES, AND PERCENTAGES
OF THOSE PASSING THE SCHOOL CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION,
1946 - 1959

	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Sat	8,300	8,706	8,592	8,846	9,155	9,762	10,611	12,008	13,308	14,961	17,335	19,149	19,179	21,170
Passed	4,450	4,698	5,095*	5,347	5,160	5,788	6,033	6,545	6,718	7,466	9,160	10,177	9,666	11,179
Percentage pass	53.6	54.0	59.3	60.4	56.4	59.3	56.9	54.5	50.5	49.9	52.8	53.1	50.4	52.8

* includes 317 'polio concession' passes

Source: E.1 and E.2 Reports, and *Currie Report*, table 15, p.326

The new School Certificate gained acceptance in the community as quickly as it had done in the schools. In 1951, the Chief Inspector of Secondary Schools reported that: "The School Certificate has indeed established itself as an objective worth striving for; it has an accepted value in the business and industrial world, and it is the natural goal of most post-primary courses".⁶⁴ Nevertheless, Beeby acknowledged that School Certificate was "not without its problems". Each year there were complaints that the papers were too difficult, and not adapted to the needs of the practical pupil; that the percentage of failures was too high; and that it was wrong that some children who worked really hard were still unable to gain the coveted certificate.⁶⁵ However, the Director considered that the examination had

... in fair measure, achieved its original double purpose of testing the fitness of the academic minority to go on to higher studies, and of providing the hallmark of a completed secondary education for a larger middle group going out directly into the world of business, industry, and the various public services.⁶⁶

This judgment was endorsed by Muriel May, principal of Southland Girls' High School from 1940 to 1956. In her autobiography, she had this to say about the new examination:

School Certificate became a test with its own status; no longer a poor relation of the academic University Entrance. It was now possible to plan a satisfying course of study for girls whose interests were strictly practical or commercial. Girls who would have been frustrated and potential nuisances under the old University Entrance syllabus were now happy and successful.⁶⁷

Many pupils who sat School Certificate were unconcerned about acquiring a good general education. For them, the certificate was

merely 'a piece of paper', which they needed if they were to 'get on' in the future. In the more academic schools, in particular, the proportion of such pupils could be quite high. As the headmaster of Wellington College in the 50's put it: "Most of them, as it proved, wanted the certificate most of all, and were less interested in what it represented."⁶⁸

The Department attached considerable importance to keeping the School Certificate prescriptions and the examination itself under regular review. A board of moderators was set up in 1946;⁶⁹ in 1951, the Minister established a School Certificate Revision Committee representative of teachers and the Department.⁷⁰ This Committee instituted an ongoing cycle of revision, subject by subject, appointing *ad hoc* committees of teachers and inspectors to deal with each review. Drafts of new prescriptions were circulated to the schools for comments; these were taken into account, and a final, revised prescription was published after it had been approved by the Minister.⁷¹ In this way, revised prescriptions became effective in 1954 for geography; in 1956 for clothing, history, and general science; in 1957 for homecraft; in 1958 for Latin, Maori, and drawing and design; and in 1960 for mathematics and music.⁷² In July, 1956, a group of teachers and departmental officers met at Wallis House for a week "to review the post-primary curriculum and the School Certificate examination, with special reference to the position of Latin as a school subject and to the effect of scaling".⁷³ Although this committee endorsed the common core, the School Certificate examination, and the scaling procedures then in use,⁷⁴ some sections of the public remained dissatisfied. There was a growing concern that, in some schools, the entire programme was geared to the demands

of School Certificate.⁷⁵ As a result, the needs of the below average pupils were not being met appropriately, nor were the well above average pupils being sufficiently extended. Beeby believed that it was time the examination "was looked at afresh to see what its side-effects have been, and what changes thirteen years of experience have warranted". Accordingly, he decided to set up a committee of senior inspectors "to make a first critical survey of the effects of the examination on all courses in all types of school".⁷⁶ The inspectors concluded that, while School Certificate was achieving its main purpose, it was also becoming the dominating element of post-primary courses. Further, it had very nearly driven core studies out of form 5.⁷⁷ At the same time, the P.P.T.A. was becoming apprehensive about some aspects of School Certificate. A remit passed at its 1958 annual conference asked for a special committee to be set up to review the operation and effects of the examination.⁷⁸ The Minister agreed to do this, establishing a representative Review Committee, chaired by A.E. Campbell, which began its investigations early in 1959. It held a number of meetings, and considered a wide range of submissions.⁷⁹ In its report, released in 1960, the Committee agreed that School Certificate had been "remarkably successful" in catering for the needs of the average form 5 pupil. However, it also considered that there were sound reasons for urging the Department "to provide greater incentives for pupils of higher academic ability, and to provide some tangible evidence of attainment to those who are not successful in ... qualifying for School Certificate".⁸⁰ The specific proposals the Committee made to the Minister⁸¹ had some effect on the development of School Certificate in the 60's, though the recommendation regarding the instituting of 'honours' papers eventually came to nothing.

Endorsed and Higher School Certificates

The Education (Post-primary Instruction) Regulations 1945 provided for the award of an Endorsed School Certificate (replacing the old Higher Leaving Certificate) to pupils who had completed a year's schooling in advance of School Certificate. A Higher School Certificate was also instituted for pupils who had had five years of post-primary instruction with at least two years' satisfactory work in advance of School Certificate, or one year in advance of University Entrance. Both Certificates required candidates to offer a minimum of three subjects, at least two of which had to be at an advanced level.⁸² Some schools were evidently slow to appreciate the standard of work which the Department expected of pupils seeking these new Certificates. A notice in the *Education Gazette* of 2 December, 1946, with reference to Endorsed School Certificate courses, warned that the minimum three subjects in themselves were not enough. The inspectors had commented that some schools, especially district high schools, were offering "meagre" courses, which could jeopardise the pupils' chances of obtaining the award. Such schools were urged to "develop a broad, cultural education". In 1948, schools were reminded that Higher School Certificate courses must be in advance of University Entrance, while reference was made to the Department's intention "to maintain the prestige of these awards as guarantees of educational attainment".⁸³ However, the work of the schools at form 6 level in the late 40's was, on the whole, well up to standard, judging from the high proportion of pupils who qualified for Endorsed and Higher School Certificates (table 39). It was noticeable that the number of Higher School Certificates awarded to technical school pupils rose sharply in the late 40's (from thirty-four in 1946 to 102 in 1949), an indication that many more pupils were staying on for a fifth year at those

schools.⁸⁴ Pupils who received Endorsed School Certificates were entitled to the Ordinary National Bursary.⁸⁵ As from 1960, those who obtained a credit pass in the University Scholarships examination after a four-year course of instruction qualified for the award of a Higher School Certificate.⁸⁶

TABLE 39

TOTAL NUMBER AND PERCENTAGES OF FORM 6 PUPILS
QUALIFYING FOR ENDORSED AND HIGHER SCHOOL CERTIFICATES,
1946 - 1949

	1	2	3	4	5
1946	2,435	503	2,938	3,870	76
1947	2,721	644	3,365	4,034	83
1948	2,739	752	3,491	4,250	82
1949	3,113	878	3,991	4,516	88

- 1 Number of form 6 pupils qualifying for Endorsed School Certificate
- 2 Number of form 6 pupils qualifying for Higher School Certificate
- 3 Total number of Certificates awarded
- 4 Total form 6 roll
- 5 Percentage of form 6 pupils receiving Certificates

Source: E.L.2 Reports, and *Currie Report*, table 15, p.326.

University Entrance and accrediting

Between 1944 and 1949, the regulations for University Entrance, whether by examination or accrediting, remained unaltered, though, as from the 1948 examination, some subject prescriptions were revised (history, geography, chemistry), two subjects were deleted from the schedule (home science, agriculture), and a new subject was introduced (physics). A major change in the requirements for qualifying for University Entrance by examination was made in 1950;⁸⁷ candidates were

obliged to pass in four subjects (and not more than four), all at University Entrance standard. One of these subjects had to be English. At the same time, six new subjects were introduced⁸⁸ (Maori, biology, music, bookkeeping, mechanics, technical drawing), though the last four of these were grouped together, and candidates could present only one of them. In 1952, the arrangements for obtaining University Entrance by accrediting were brought into line with the 1950 regulations by requiring all candidates to nominate specific optional subjects at University Entrance level.⁸⁹ The prescriptions for English and music were amended in 1956, while new prescriptions for Maori and geography were introduced in 1958.

From its introduction in 1944, the system of accrediting for entrance to the university attracted considerable criticism. The schools considered that the University's requirements for accrediting were too restrictive, while the universities believed that accrediting was responsible for the high rate of failure among their first-year students. Aware that disapproval of accrediting was widespread, the University set up a Senate Committee in 1949 to investigate the whole system.⁹⁰ This Committee, reporting back in 1951, stated categorically that "... there is no evidence to show that accrediting has lowered the standard of entrance into the university".⁹¹ It recommended that accrediting should continue without alteration for a further four years, and that the situation be reviewed in 1955. The Senate accepted this recommendation, but "only after considerable debate".⁹² The Chief Inspector plainly considered that the debate was far from over: "It is clear, however, that the present system is not likely to be the final solution of the problem."⁹³ In 1952, the Academic Board of the University circulated a questionnaire to the 119

accrediting schools which established that the majority of principals and teachers were dissatisfied with accrediting. It seemed possible, at that stage, that the system could be abandoned.⁹⁴ Following its 1953 annual conference, the P.P.T.A. issued its own questionnaire to all its branches. This poll disclosed a small majority in favour of an external University Entrance examination for all, possibly with reference to school records.⁹⁵ Instead of making an immediate decision, the Academic Board advised the Senate to institute an independent enquiry. Accepting this advice, the Senate, in 1954, invited the New Zealand Council for Educational Research to examine "the effects of the standard of the University's entrance qualification upon the performance of students taking Stage I subjects". The research, conducted over a period of four years by the Council's director, G.W. Parkyn, led to the conclusion that:

The failure of students in Stage I subjects is not, in general, the result of inadequate post-primary schooling, poor scholastic attainments prior to the time of entering the university, insufficient intellectual capacity, too low a standard of entrance, or lax and variable methods of accrediting.⁹⁶

Parkyn's analysis indicated, further, that, "if anything, the standard of accrediting is a little more severe than the standard of the external examination".⁹⁷ Before Parkyn's interim report was released, the P.P.T.A. had conducted yet another referendum on accrediting. In response to the question: Do you support retention of accrediting as it works at present? 1,476 members answered 'no', while 816 answered 'yes'. A second question established that 43.4 per cent of the respondents favoured an external examination for all at lower sixth-form level; a further 10.8 per cent opted for a similar examination at upper sixth-form level.⁹⁸ The Senate, however, decided that Parkyn's

findings were conclusive.⁹⁹ It had already resolved (in 1955) to continue with the existing system for a further five years; when the matter came up for review in 1960, it took no further action. Beeby was acutely aware of the "real danger should the Senate decide to re-establish its external examination as the only method of entering the university".¹⁰⁰ He foresaw that, if there were ever a shortage of positions for school leavers, "the University Entrance examination might drive out the School Certificate, and again establish itself as the dominating factor in all post-primary education", a state of affairs which he considered "in our modern system of multi-purpose schools, catering for the total population ... would be much more serious than it was in 1940".¹⁰¹ Beeby repeatedly stressed that, "... though [this] problem is constitutionally within the domain of the University, it has wide implications for the post-primary school system and for the community as a whole".¹⁰² As it was, by the mid-50's, a relatively high proportion of those qualifying for University Entrance were not going on to university, either as full-time or part-time students. The Ewings claimed that about 45 per cent of the pupils who gained University Entrance in the mid-50's fell into this category.¹⁰³ However, the Currie Commission's estimate (admittedly, made six or seven years later) was more conservative: "At a rough calculation the percentage ... may lie between thirty and thirty-five"¹⁰⁴

The release of details of a memorandum issued by Auckland University College announcing its intention to introduce its own entrance regulations caused considerable alarm at the P.P.T.A. annual conference in 1956, especially the requirement that, with effect from 1961, a minimum mark of 30 per cent in School Certificate in an

approved foreign language would be mandatory.¹⁰⁵ The prospect of the re-appearance of the bogey of a compulsory foreign language in post-primary school programmes was certainly not welcomed by the schools;¹⁰⁶ the principals' section of the P.P.T.A., in particular, expressed strong opposition to the proposal.¹⁰⁷ In the event, the consternation caused by the memorandum was short-lived. It was withdrawn before the end of the year, when Auckland University College learned that a legal opinion sought by the University of New Zealand had declared that the proposed regulations were completely *ultra vires*.¹⁰⁸ Between 1946 and 1959, the number of candidates for University Entrance rose from just over three thousand to more than seven thousand. Table 40 gives details of the numbers and percentages of those qualifying for University Entrance either by accrediting or by examination in that period. The average annual pass rate over the whole period was 64.8 per cent.

University Scholarships

In order "to ensure a broader basic education for all proceeding to the university",¹⁰⁹ the Senate, late in 1949, approved of a new statute for the University Scholarships examination to take effect from 1952. Candidates would be required to sit in five subjects, each of which would comprise two three-hour papers, and carry a maximum mark of two hundred. Subject changes made at the same time included a new prescription for history; the deletion of magnetism and electricity and of heat, sound, and light, and their replacement by a new subject, physics; the deletion of botany and of zoology, and their replacement by a new subject, biology; and the deletion of additional mathematics and of elementary mechanics, and their replacement by a

TABLE 40

NUMBER OF CANDIDATES QUALIFYING FOR UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE BY ACCREDITING
OR BY EXAMINATION, AND PERCENTAGES OF THOSE QUALIFYING, 1946 - 1959

	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Accredited	1,773	1,844	1,872	1,954	1,987	2,005	2,055	2,178	2,452	2,522	2,890	3,605	4,100	3,949
Sat	1,443	1,599	1,776	1,816	1,693	1,722	1,900	1,813	1,876	2,116	2,415	2,878	3,261	3,223
Passed	432	491	626	703	449	344	532	484	465	506	492	692	702	774
Percentage pass (accred. + examination)	68.6	67.8	68.5	70.5	66.2	63.0	65.4	57.5	54.0	65.3	63.7	66.3	65.2	65.8

Source: E.1, E.2, and E.7 Reports

new subject, additional mathematics, to be made up of algebra, analytical geometry, calculus, and elementary mechanics.¹¹⁰ Other Scholarships prescription changes were made regularly between 1946 and 1959, generally at the same time as prescriptions for the corresponding University Entrance subjects were amended. So, home science and agriculture were deleted as Scholarships subjects after 1948, while new prescriptions were introduced for English and history in 1956, and for geography in 1958. The University of New Zealand Amendment Act 1957 provided for the number of national scholarships¹¹¹ to be increased by five a year over the following three years, so that, by 1959, the total number of scholarships available was fifty (ten junior and forty national). This increase was appropriate, as more and more pupils were competing for scholarships each year. Table 41 sets out the number of those who sat the examination and were awarded either scholarships or passes with credit in each of the years from 1946 to 1959. The table also indicates the percentages of candidates passing the examination.

Methodology

The interest in mechanical aids to teaching shown in the early 40's by post-primary teachers continued unabated between 1946 and 1959. The use of film strips became increasingly common; new strips were regularly reviewed in the *Education Gazette*. By the early 50's, the National Film Library's stock of film strips, most of them purchased overseas, covered over five hundred separate titles.¹¹² The Film Library also made some strips itself on New Zealand topics, while, in the late 40's, a growing number of commercial firms began

TABLE 41

NUMBER OF CANDIDATES SITTING THE UNIVERSITY SCHOLARSHIPS EXAMINATION,
 NUMBER OF THOSE WINNING SCHOLARSHIPS AND PASSING WITH CREDIT,
 AND PERCENTAGES OF THOSE PASSING, 1946 - 1959

	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Sat	401	381	381	415	433	395	249	234	373	359	321	405	471	590
Awarded scholarships	38*	31	31	31	33	31	30	30	30	41*	36	39	45	50
Passed with credit	118	136	131	128	121	131	110	103	123	99	150	139	156	193
Percentage pass (incl. schols.)	38.9	43.8	42.5	38.3	35.6	41.0	56.2	56.8	41.0	39.0	57.9	43.9	42.7	41.2

* Probably misprints in the E.7 records.

Source: E.1, E.2, and E.7 Reports

producing film strips for school use.¹¹³ There were two main reasons for the considerable increase in the popularity of film strips in this period. First, more and more strips which were directly applicable to the needs of the syllabus were becoming available; and second, high-powered projectors which could be used with little or no darkening of the classroom came onto the market.¹¹⁴ By the middle 50's, the practice of schools buying their own film strips had become widespread. Sales of strips to schools (primary and post-primary) rose from fifteen thousand in 1955 to over thirty-one thousand in 1958. At the same time, the demand for strips on loan grew stronger; thirty thousand were issued in 1956, a 70 per cent increase on the previous year.¹¹⁵ By the end of the 50's, high-quality colour film strips could be obtained from Great Britain and the United States. Colour transparencies were also being produced in New Zealand, many of them by teachers using their own cameras.¹¹⁶ A new teaching aid, the overhead transparency projector, was introduced into New Zealand in the late 50's.¹¹⁷ Further reference to this machine will be made in chapter 15.

The many references in school histories to schools acquiring sound projectors between 1946 and 1959¹¹⁸ attested to the expanding use of sixteen-millimetre films as teaching aids during this period. The nearly three thousand films described in the 1953 catalogue of the National Film Library¹¹⁹ had increased to more than four thousand by 1958.¹²⁰ To service this growing demand, a branch of the National Film Library was opened in Auckland in 1955. More than a third of all the films issued to schools in that year were sent out from the Auckland office.¹²¹ A scheme for awarding projectionists' certificates to competent operators was instituted in 1956. Within a

year, over a thousand teachers had qualified for the certificate, while nearly three hundred of them had been accepted as projectionist examiners to train and examine others.¹²² By 1959, more than sixteen hundred teachers had earned projectionists' certificates.¹²³ Although the National Film Library was constantly adding to its stock of films, and had multiple copies of many of them, it was still hard pressed to satisfy all the requirements of the schools. Beeby noted, in his Report for 1959, that more copies of films, especially on science topics, were required "to meet the needs of Auckland's growing school population".¹²⁴

The National Film Library did not concern itself only with films and film strips. In 1955, it established a gramophone record library, with a gift of nearly one thousand records from the British Council making up the nucleus of its collection. The aim of the record library was twofold: to encourage teachers to use recordings to enrich their drama, poetry, and foreign language lessons, in particular; and to promote the building up of record collections by individual schools.¹²⁵ By 1958, the Library had added another thousand records to its original stock;¹²⁶ soon after, schools were reported to be making good use of this new service.¹²⁷ A further development took place in 1959, when the National Film Library set up a small sample library of sheet music. The object of this move was to "acquaint post-primary teachers of music with the wide range of school music available from overseas".¹²⁸ After inspecting the samples, teachers could place orders with their local music dealers for any of the sheet music which suited their purposes.

Reference has already been made to the Department's *Post-primary*

Bulletins. Through these and its other productions,¹²⁹ the School Publications Branch continued, in this period, to make "... a lively and most valuable contribution to the work of ... post-primary schools".¹³⁰ Other useful publications which were widely used in the post-primary schools at the time included the *Students' Digest*, the *Journal of Agriculture*,¹³¹ and (for teachers) the *Commercial Teachers' Magazine*.¹³² The first of what was to be a long line of School Certificate revision books appeared in the 50's. Written (or compiled) by New Zealand teachers, these publications varied from mere collections of past examination papers to texts providing teaching material on every aspect of the syllabus. Properly used, they could be valuable supplements to the standard texts, and many of them enjoyed immense popularity.¹³³

Towards the end of the 50's, a number of services were provided which were of great assistance to the schools in specific subject areas. In 1957, a New Zealand teacher prepared a series of biology wall charts, with accompanying sets of teaching notes, suggestions for laboratory and field work, and test outlines.¹³⁴ At the same time, senior geography classes benefited from a new geological wall map of New Zealand prepared by the New Zealand Geological Survey Unit of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research.¹³⁵ In 1958, the School Library Service made sets of French books, each containing ten to twenty copies of a given text, available on loan to post-primary schools.¹³⁶ In the following year, this service was extended to cover sets of plays for English classes.¹³⁷ The United States Information Service offered all schools multiple copies of *Selected Notes on American Geography* in 1959.¹³⁸ In the same year, the School Library Service prepared and distributed to schools a substantial booklet

entitled *Modern Fiction for Sixth Forms : A Select List*.¹³⁹ These publications and the other material often added a new dimension to classroom work in the areas concerned.

Pupils

At other than post-primary schools

Pupils undertaking form 3 work at a primary school dwindled to an insignificant number between 1946 and 1959 (table 26). In the years immediately following the raising of the school leaving age, some intermediate schools¹⁴⁰ catered for a small number of pupils at form 3 and form 4 levels, though, by 1955, the only intermediate school with more than ten pupils doing post-primary work was Kowhai. The Department had established an official post-primary section at Kowhai in 1950. An *Education Gazette* advertisement indicated that this section would cater for about 180 form 3 and form 4 pupils, with the courses offered being commercial and homelife for girls, and trade or industrial for boys.¹⁴¹ This experiment proved to be relatively short lived; by 1959, fewer than thirty pupils, all of them at form 3 level, were doing post-primary work at an intermediate school.

Length of post-primary schooling

The holding power of the technical schools in the period from 1946 to 1959 has been discussed in the first part of chapter 10. (See table 34.) Although the secondary and combined schools had a better record in this matter, at the mid-point of the period (1952), just on 35 per cent of secondary, and over 41 per cent of combined school pupils were still leaving school at or before the end of their second

year. Seven years later, the percentage of early leavers from secondary schools remained unchanged, while the combined school figure stood at just over 30 per cent, a marked improvement on the 1952 position. The district high schools, which had been losing more than 60 per cent of their pupils by the end of their second year in the early 50's,¹⁴² showed some improvement to a 54.4 per cent loss at the end of the decade. Table 42 sets out the average length of school life of pupils attending all types of post-primary school in each of the years from 1946 to 1959. It shows that, on average, secondary school pupils were actually staying longer at school in 1949 than they were in 1959, while pupils in the secondary departments of district high schools were still averaging less than two and a half years of schooling at the end of the 50's. The combined schools appear to have the best record over the period as far as holding power is concerned, but there were only seven such schools, not enough to constitute a valid sample. The most significant statistic revealed by the table is that, notwithstanding the enormous growth in the number of pupils enrolling at post-primary schools between 1946 and 1959, it took ten years for the average length of their school life to increase by one month. The 60's began with post-primary pupils still spending, on average, under three years at school.

The practice followed by many pupils of leaving school as soon as they turned fifteen, regardless of what stage of schooling they had reached, persisted from the time the school leaving age was raised until the mid-50's. These pupils were aided and abetted in their actions by the strong and indiscriminating demand for juvenile labour prevailing at the time. The principal of Southland Girls' High School had this to say on the issue in her Annual Report for 1945:

TABLE 42
 AVERAGE LENGTH OF SCHOOL LIFE OF PUPILS
 IN ALL TYPES OF POST-PRIMARY SCHOOL,
 1946 - 1959
 (years and months)

	Secondary	Combined	Technical	Sec. depts. district high schools	All post- primary
Left in: 1946	2-11	2-9.	2-3	2-2	2-6
1947	3-1	2-11	2-4	2-3	2-8
1948	3-2	3-0	2-4	2-3	2-8
1949	3-2	2-11	2-5	2-3	2-8
1950	3-2	2-11	2-4	2-4	2-8
1951	3-2	3-0	2-5	2-3	2-8
1952	3-2	3-0	2-5	2-3	2-8
1953	3-2	3-0	2-5	2-4	2-8
1954	3-0	3-0	2-5	2-4	2-8
1955	3-0	3-0	2-5	2-4	2-8
1956	3-0	3-0	2-6	2-4	2-9
1957	3-0	3-0	2-6	2-5	2-9
1958	3-1	3-2	2-9	2-6	2-11
1959	3-1	3-3	2-8	2-5	2-10

Source: E.1 Reports

(Calculated on basis of years of attendance)

This year, several [girls] have enrolled with the explicit intention of filling in time until they are fifteen, and a large number, about half of the second-year commercial classes, have been snapped up by employers who are glad to take them, although the School is not enthusiastic about their qualifications or their fitness for employment.¹⁴³

The centennial historian of Rangiora High School also referred to pupils at that school who left on their fifteenth birthdays "... to enter a job market where employers waited with open arms ...".¹⁴⁴ The early leaver phenomenon also had a social cost:

Girls often left school from the fourth form for positions where wages were unrealistically high,... and, in many cases, parents were too tempted by the material gains their youngsters were offered to recognise the serious and long-lasting penalties of incomplete schooling.¹⁴⁵

However, by 1955, the tide was turning; schools were reporting that more and more pupils were staying on for a third, fourth, and even fifth year of post-primary schooling. New Plymouth Boys' High School had to establish an additional lower sixth form in 1954.¹⁴⁶ Wellington Girls' College also experienced a noticeable increase in senior school numbers in the mid-50's,¹⁴⁷ while, by 1956, Auckland Grammar School had sufficient second-year sixth-form pupils to justify the setting up of a separate upper sixth form.¹⁴⁸

Attitudes

One aspect of the comparative ease with which fifteen-year-olds could obtain employment in the decade following the end of the war was the restiveness which so many of them displayed during the time leading up to their release from school: "Forced to wait until their fifteenth birthday ... they resented schooling, and, if not actively disruptive, were at least uncooperative."¹⁴⁹ The early leavers, with money to spend on such things as clothes and cars, also had an unsettling effect on their friends who were still at school. As the decade progressed, an increasing number of pupils were displaying the kind of anti-school attitudes which were evident at Timaru Girls' High School:

At this stage (late 1957), it is noticeable from reports that problems of behaviour were beginning to arise, signs of maladjustment in girls as evidenced by truancy, sulkiness, impertinence and destructiveness.¹⁵⁰

Nor were these 'signs of maladjustment' confined to city schools. The minutes of a meeting of the Thames High School Board held in July, 1960 contained the first documented reference to the possible expulsion of a pupil, for 'constant bad behaviour'.¹⁵¹ While Rangiora High School might not have had pupils at this time who were 'actively disruptive', many other schools were not as fortunately placed. By the late 50's, the actions and attitudes of pupils who showed an "increasing lack of discipline and interest"¹⁵² were beginning to have a bad effect on teacher morale, as well as making it more difficult for other pupils to learn. In her Annual Report for 1957, the principal of Otago Girls' High School expressed her growing concern "at the disrupting effect a few girls who lack any real incentive to study have on the rest of the class". She was convinced that, without such girls, "... the classroom would make less strenuous demands on the nervous energy of teachers, and the remaining pupils would be better taught in consequence. More teachers might even be recruited".¹⁵³ Certainly, at a time when teachers were in dangerously short supply, it did not make sense to allow recalcitrant pupils to drive people out of the profession. It was not without significance that, in the late 50's, the *P.P.T.A. Journal* repeatedly carried letters and articles from teachers calling for disruptive pupils to be dealt with summarily.

Social and community activities

However, the picture also had its positive side. Nowhere was this seen more strikingly than in the concern so many post-primary

pupils showed in the post-war years and the 50's for those who were less fortunately placed than themselves. As one school historian put it, "... although the war was over, the social work arising from it was not".¹⁵⁴ In the immediate post-war years, pupils at Christchurch Girls' High School assisted the 'Food for Britain' scheme, sending six hundred food parcels to the Wallasey High School near Liverpool.¹⁵⁵ In 1946, Otago Girls' High School sent fifty-four food parcels to its 'sister' school in Cheshire. This relationship continued until 1950, by which time help was no longer required. The School also sent parcels to Rewi Alley in China.¹⁵⁶ Wellington Technical College made a massive contribution to the 'Food for Britain' scheme, despatching in a single year (1949) eleven cases, each containing fifty pounds of food, to schools throughout England and Scotland. Pupils raised the money to buy this food by presenting plays and running socials.¹⁵⁷ Many smaller schools also had reason to be proud of their records in the area of social and community work. The Junior Red Cross Circle at Whakatane District High School adopted the Portsea Modern School at Portsmouth. They sent food parcels regularly to this School, as well as to the naval hospital at Devonport, England.¹⁵⁸ On the local scene, post-primary schools throughout New Zealand actively supported organisations like Corso, the Red Cross, and the Save the Children Fund in this period.¹⁵⁹

Internal government: prefects and school councils

The Thomas Committee was emphatic that "... pupils who in a few short years will find themselves faced with the choices of adult life need more scope than is commonly given for the exercise of initiative and responsibility".¹⁶⁰ To this end, it held that the internal government of post-primary schools should be organised along

democratic lines which made provision for "some measure of self-government".¹⁶¹ In 1946, there were probably only two schools in the whole country which fully embraced this ideal, Feilding Agricultural High School and Rangiora High School. Almost all of the other schools still retained some form of prefect system, an arrangement which stressed authoritarian rather than democratic values. Admittedly, the practice of giving pupils, especially seniors, some say in the appointment of prefects became more widespread during the 40's, and it was not uncommon for prefects to be allowed to elect their own head and deputy.¹⁶² Occasionally, prefects were taken into the confidence of their principals, and were encouraged to make some contribution to decision making in the school. Heron, speaking of E.N. Hogben, headmaster of Wellington College from 1943 to 1951, recorded that: "On the prefects, and on the head prefect, in particular, he lavished attention. Little of importance was undertaken without consultation with them".¹⁶³ For the most part, however, prefects were simply an extension of the school's authority structure; the office provided little opportunity for pupils to develop the kind of 'initiative and responsibility' which the Thomas Committee had envisaged. A more promising means of achieving this goal was the school council. As the 50's progressed, schools¹⁶⁴ began phasing out prefects in favour of councils which were representative of all pupils in the school.¹⁶⁵ School councils provided a vehicle for the expression of pupil opinion, as well as a structure for pupils to become actively involved in the organisation of school social events, such as dances and concerts. They could also contribute to the ongoing work associated with school institutions, like newspapers and the annual magazine. In some cases, councils were even given a measure of financial autonomy,¹⁶⁶ though, normally, since their role was advisory, their

actions were subject to the principal's approval. The system of self-government instituted at Feilding Agricultural High School in the early 20's by L.J. Wild, based on his "confidence ... in youth to accept and shoulder the responsibilities of organising and conducting its own affairs",¹⁶⁷ was still in place in the 50's, and continuing to fulfil its original function of giving pupils "education in the wider sphere of citizenship".¹⁶⁸ At Rangiora High School, however, the long-established school council and, especially, its almost completely autonomous judicial committee came under increasing criticism in the late 40's. When J.E. Strachan's successor, J.F. Moffat, arrived at the School in 1949, he immediately put the judicial committee into recess.¹⁶⁹ In the following year, Moffat introduced the prefect system into the School. By the end of 1951, the school council had ceased to exist. Strachan's pioneering work in self-government had run its course, and Rangiora High School "had rejoined the mainstream of New Zealand secondary school life".¹⁷⁰

Discipline

Notwithstanding the encouragement school councils gave to the expression of pupil opinion, teachers continued to dominate in most classrooms. Maintaining order was commonly held to be the teacher's first priority, and pupils who 'misbehaved' were brought back into line by means of reprimands, impositions, detentions, and the removal of privileges. For serious breaches of discipline (and, not infrequently, in some schools, for relatively minor offences) boys could expect to receive anything up to four, or even six, strokes of the cane. Officialdom did its best to maintain the fiction that caning was on the wane,¹⁷¹ but teachers and others associated with post-primary schools in the 50's could see little evidence that this

was the case.¹⁷² Paradoxically, the rigid rules prevailing in most schools were often considered to be necessary to the promotion of self-discipline: "If you had a tickle in your throat in assembly, you should choke rather than cough. If there was a noise behind you, you were under no circumstances to look round to see what it was. If you had to faint, do it quietly."¹⁷³ As far as teacher-pupil relationships were concerned, the 50's, generally speaking, were still a time of pupils being required to keep their distance, and do as they were told. A pupil who attended New Plymouth Girls' High School from 1953 to 1957 recalled: "R.A. (the headmistress) and her close friends did seem alienated from us. I felt we were treated like little children." It is hardly surprising that this pupil described her schooldays as "the repressive 50's".¹⁷⁴ One manifestation of the determination of the schools to uphold their authority over pupils was the considerable emphasis placed on correctness of dress. Detailed uniform regulations were strictly enforced, and parents and pupils alike found that trying to get school authorities to agree to even the most sensible changes was an almost impossible task. For girls, below-knee length gym frocks remained the rule in most schools throughout the 50's;¹⁷⁵ for boys, school caps were still part of the regulation dress almost everywhere at the end of the decade.¹⁷⁶ By the late 50's, school authorities were also becoming increasingly concerned about the unconventional hair styles adopted by a growing number of pupils of both sexes.¹⁷⁷ This issue became one of the major points of dispute of the 'pupils' rights' movements, which will be discussed in chapter 15.

Segregation of sexes; sex stereotyping

Most coeducational schools were still going to great lengths in

this period to keep boys and girls apart. In 1949, Rangiora High School was coeducational only in the upper fifth and sixth forms. Though the new principal, J.F. Moffat, at once changed this "hybrid form of coeducation", segregation of the sexes persisted out of the classroom, "with the playground area being divided into boys' and girls' sections by an invisible but strictly policed line".¹⁷⁸ Similar situations obtained at many other schools.¹⁷⁹ At Thames High School, even supervised activities, such as the house championship competitions, were conducted on a segregated basis until the 50's.¹⁸⁰ When Queen's High School opened in 1955, the principals of Queen's and the adjacent King's High School staggered the opening and closing times of the two schools to reduce boy-girl contacts.¹⁸¹ Most schools allowed dances, though these were generally closely supervised by teachers and (sometimes) parents.¹⁸² Socials, which were also quite common, tended to be organised along formal lines, though an occasional school did use such opportunities to encourage boys and girls to feel comfortable in each other's company.¹⁸³ Prize-givings at the two Nelson colleges were held jointly until 1953, with pupils from both schools competing for some prizes.¹⁸⁴ However, for the most part, post-primary schools of the 50's were places where boys and girls had little contact with each other, except in class.

In the majority of the schools, at this time, sex stereotyping was standard practice. Very few schools followed the example of Wellington Technical College, where, in the mid-40's, groups of second and third-year boys and girls attended lectures on infant welfare given by the local charge sister of the Plunket Society.¹⁸⁵ A much more common experience would have been that of pupils at New Plymouth Girls' High School, where, in the 50's, "... the sex-role stereotype

prevailed", and girls were "encouraged to look at the more passive work roles in society such as nurses, ... stewardesses, law clerks or secretaries, rather than doctors, airline pilots, lawyers or managers".¹⁸⁶

Sport

Between 1946 and 1959, school sport continued to occupy a prominent place in the lives of many post-primary pupils. A feature of the period was the introduction into the schools of a number of new sports, though some of the older schools were reluctant to approve of anything which might rival the traditional games, especially rugby. Soccer was included among the winter games at Wellington College from 1946 "after hammering at the School door for years".¹⁸⁷ However, the College's centennial historian was quick to point out that, "... as in the country at large, neither game (soccer nor hockey) enjoys the status of rugby".¹⁸⁸ Softball (earlier called baseball), played by both boys and girls, was taken up by a number of schools in 1946; it soon became very popular. By 1958, the old nine-a-side outdoor basketball, which had had an immense following in many of the girls' schools, in particular,¹⁸⁹ had been re-organised, under new international rules, as a seven-a-side game. The new code (later to be called netball), accepted as the official women's outdoor basketball game from 1959,¹⁹⁰ continued to be widely played in the schools. By the late 50's, an indoor version of basketball also had a large following of both sexes in a number of schools. All of the other traditional sports - rugby, hockey, tennis, cricket (now including girls' teams), as well as swimming and life-saving - received undiminished support, although boxing had been phased out of many schools by the end of the 50's. In this period, both athletics

and cross-country running retained their popularity, while water sports such as rowing and yachting became more generally accepted. A highlight of the sporting programmes of most schools in the 50's was the home and away games played annually with other schools. These often included an overnight stay, which added a social dimension to the trips. In the larger centres, inter-secondary school athletic meetings were held each year.¹⁹¹ At first, they were for boys only, but, by the 50's, girls were competing as well.¹⁹² Other annual inter-collegiate sporting fixtures in this period included cross-country running, rowing, and swimming. In 1959, a Wellington secondary schools' representative soccer team toured overseas,¹⁹³ an early instance of a practice which has now become commonplace.

Clubs

In all schools in this period, club activities remained an important part of school life. As already indicated, drama and social service clubs were particularly prominent, but schools also continued to cater for other long-established pupil interests. The variety of club activities in some schools was surprisingly extensive. The clubs at Wellington Technical College not only covered most of the standard activities (sketching, stamp collecting, photography, tramping), but also included underwater swimming, rock'n'roll, and boating.¹⁹⁴ In the 40's, Wellington College had a swords club, which was still flourishing twenty years later.¹⁹⁵ One hundred new thrift clubs were started in post-primary schools in 1958-59.¹⁹⁶ Sometimes two or more schools ran combined clubs.¹⁹⁷ A number of schools established United Nations clubs in this period "to promote knowledge of, and sympathy with, the peoples of other countries".¹⁹⁸ Significant, also, was the action of some schools in setting up Maori clubs in the 50's.¹⁹⁹

Magazines; school newspapers

Pupils were almost always heavily involved in the production of their school's annual magazine, aptly described by one writer as "a fascinating indicator of the nature and variety of school life".²⁰⁰ Magazines had two principal functions: to record the main events of the school year; and to publish pupils' original literary and artistic work. The aspects of school life covered in the magazine typically included academic accomplishments and sporting achievements; major happenings at the school during the year; school trips; form activities; and news about past pupils. Some schools also published (or cyclostyled) mini-newspapers, which usually came out at irregular intervals, supplementing the more formal annual magazine. They provided a forum for the expression of pupil opinion, as well as printing articles, poems, stories, drawings, and cartoons contributed by pupils. These papers often had special names, which, nevertheless, could be readily associated with a particular school.²⁰¹ One of the most successful was 'Lionlow' (Auckland Grammar School), which began as a twice-yearly publication in 1949. By 1954, it was appearing monthly (threepence per copy; sixpence to teachers). 'Lionlow' went out of existence in 1955, being unable to pay its way, seemingly the regular fate of such publications.²⁰² While they lasted, however, these papers added variety to school life, and satisfied some youthful ambitions, as well as providing an interesting and valuable record of pupil thinking of the time.

Cadets

During the war, cadet units, deprived of their weapons, were largely confined to activities like formal drill, map work, and signalling.²⁰³ Between 1946 and 1959, however, cadet work received

considerable government support, especially during the currency of the Compulsory Military Training scheme. There was a renewed enthusiasm for cadets as a much wider range of arms and equipment became available.²⁰⁴ Also, the return of teacher-officers from the war "ushered in a very innovative period [for cadets], and gave the training a decidedly 'new' look".²⁰⁵ Most cadet corps had an annual barracks week, which was sometimes spent away from the school under canvas. These camps were generally well received by the boys "as a project in which all could take part as a unit".²⁰⁶ Non-commissioned officer training camps, held at military training bases, were also popular. However, the cadets were not so enthusiastic about the "rough textured khaki uniforms"²⁰⁷ commonly issued to them at that time. Schools did their best to give their cadets a varied set of activities, with some of the larger units having medical, mortar, artillery, medium and light machine gun, and intelligence sections, in addition to the traditional infantry platoons.²⁰⁸ In the early 40's, an air training corps unit was established as a section of the cadet battalion at most schools. Places in the A.T.C. unit were eagerly sought after, as these boys were taught by specialist R.N.Z.A.F. instructors, were given tours of air bases, and even had occasional flights.²⁰⁹ Sea cadet units also flourished in a number of schools from their inception in 1952. Rifle shooting was a popular aspect of cadet work. Many schools had their own ranges, and inter-school competition for the Imperial Challenge Shield was keen. In 1955, Coromandel District High School had two platoons of girls learning to handle service rifles so that they could compete for the Shield.²¹⁰ The 50's were, in many ways, the heyday of school cadets.²¹¹ However, by the end of the decade, it was becoming clear that the units had reason to fear for their future. Their eventual demise will be discussed in chapter 15.

Overseas travel

An increasing number of post-primary pupils were able to travel overseas in this period. From 1957, annual exchanges were organised with French pupils living in New Caledonia. In the early years of this scheme, parties of about thirty New Zealand pupils taking French would spend three weeks during the summer vacation living with French families, and attending school, in New Caledonia. In July-August of the following year, thirty French pupils from New Caledonia would come to New Zealand under similar arrangements. The exchange of high school students with the United States under the American Field Service Scholarship scheme began in 1951. These scholarships enabled senior pupils from New Zealand²¹² to spend a year at school in the United States, during which time they lived with an American family. In return, New Zealand families and schools hosted American high school students for a similar period.²¹³ By the end of the 50's, Rotary-sponsored scholarships to travel to America were also being awarded to New Zealand post-primary school pupils.²¹⁴ As well, pupils from several schools²¹⁵ were selected to represent New Zealand at a conference of the Commonwealth Youth Movement held in Canada in 1954. The 50's also marked the beginning of school trips overseas. A school party from Waitaki Boys' High School toured Fiji in 1954,²¹⁶ while, in 1956, forty boys and two teachers from New Plymouth Boys' High School visited Melbourne for the Olympic Games.²¹⁷

Hostels

In this period, the demand for hostel accommodation far exceeded the places available. The submission of the Department of Education to the Currie Commission pointed out that, although the number of primary school leavers rose from forty-four thousand in 1948 to

eighty-two thousand in 1958, only one new post-primary school hostel²¹⁸ was opened in that ten-year period.²¹⁹ At the same time, the number of pupils accommodated in hostels increased by 771, so that overcrowding was inevitable.²²⁰ Finding and retaining suitable domestic staff was the other serious problem facing school hostels in the 50's. Heron reported that, at Wellington College, "... the kitchen situation, in spite of the attractions of good pay and good quarters, was always sensitive, precarious, and unpredictable".²²¹ In addition, teachers were becoming less and less willing, especially in girls' schools, to take on the added responsibility of hostel supervision. By the end of the 50's, some school hostels were being staffed entirely by matrons, though the final responsibility was still carried by the principal.²²² Complete hostel statistics for 1959 are set out in appendix J.

Transport

Gunby reminded his readers that, "... when Rangiora High School opened in 1884, there were only two ways of getting to school - on foot or by horse".²²³ By the 1950's, there were many other means of transport available. Pupils attending Wellington schools who lived at Eastbourne had a forty-minute ferry trip across the harbour each morning. They were invariably late for morning assembly.²²⁴ Other city and suburban dwellers travelled to school by tram or by bicycle. Elsewhere, the main means of transport were buses and trains. Partly because of the shortage of hostel accommodation, some schools had a very high proportion of bus travellers. Of the pupils attending Whakatane High School in the early 50's, 55 per cent came to school by bus.²²⁵ By the late 50's, Rangiora High School "... had one of the largest bus populations in New Zealand. Over 450 pupils, drawn from

an area of over four hundred square miles, travelled to school each day by bus".²²⁶ School buses at this time "were not usually the last word in modernity", though it is doubtful whether many of them were quite as bad as descriptions like 'the meat safe', 'the biscuit tin', 'the tub', 'the horse float', given to them by Rangiora pupils, implied.²²⁷ Because they were tied to bus timetables, bus pupils were generally unable to join sports teams, or take part in other extra-curricular activities. For this reason, they often considered that their status in the eyes of principals and teachers was low. As a pupil of New Plymouth Girls' High School in the 50's put it:

If there was a pecking order at School, it seemed to me that the boarders ... were high on that order, and that the bus girls were at the bottom We felt most teachers viewed us as an uncivilised lot, destined never to become ladies.²²⁸

Bus and train travellers in this period certainly had a good deal to contend with. Gunby was probably not exaggerating when he claimed that getting to school in the 40's and 50's, at least for country children, could be "both difficult and unpleasant", ... and that ... "it took stamina and patience, together with a strong desire for an education", to stick with it.²²⁹

General

Some aspects of pupils' attitudes to school at this time have already been discussed, but the disaffection of many pupils with schools and schooling in the 50's went deeper than mere reluctance to cooperate. Some were beginning to question the ethic on which post-primary schooling had always been based, that a long-term gain justified a short-term sacrifice. When almost illiterate and

innumerate fifteen-year-olds could leave school and get a job virtually at will, it was not unnatural to ask: Why bother to get an education?²³⁰ Active pupil militancy had not yet arrived (though the shock waves of the French National Union of Students' call to strike in May, 1957 had reached New Zealand by the late 50's);²³¹ the schools had, however, entered a period when casualness was a characteristic of growing numbers of their pupils. It was "... a time when 'aimless' and 'couldn't care less' were the commonest attitudes ascribed to the young".²³² In all schools, pupils remained under pressure "to be achievers, and to aim high",²³³ as well as to conform to the schools' long-established traditions and patterns of conduct; but, by the late 50's, societal changes were beginning to work against the ideals the schools were striving to uphold:

Nor is a climate of national prosperity and full employment in society conducive to the encouragement of steady values, and there were many temptations for young people to abandon conformity, and to follow the fast-changing fashions of behaviour which characterised the late 50's and early 60's.²³⁴

Even pupils just beginning their post-primary schooling were often not satisfied with the schools' traditional programmes. It was as if they were expecting to be entertained rather than taught. As one child fresh from an intermediate school said accusingly to Muriel May: "You haven't taken us anywhere this week; not even to a factory."²³⁵

School and community

Community links

All post-primary schools recognised the advantages of maintaining open lines of communication with their communities. Since they

appreciated, in particular, that any lack of consultation between parents and the school could only be to the detriment of school policies and programmes, they sent out newsletters, organised report evenings, invited parents to school functions, held open days, and took other measures to establish and maintain the closest possible links between home and school. Keeping in contact with the wider community was also a priority issue for most schools. Neither of these tasks was easy in the 50's, when schools were forced to devote most of their energies to internal problems, especially the staffing and accommodation crises.

Parents' and parent-teacher associations

The strongest link in the chain binding school and home together was undoubtedly the parents' associations, together with the ladies' auxiliaries and 'college mother' groups, which existed in almost all post-primary schools in this period. The objective of these associations was simply "to bring about fuller cooperation between home, school, and community".²³⁶ While most schools had a loyal core of parent supporters, membership of the parents' associations was often not particularly large,²³⁷ which made their considerable achievements on behalf of the schools all the more remarkable. Fund raising was always high on the list of parents' association activities. In the late 40's, efforts were concentrated, in many localities, on providing the school with a movie projector. At other times, the associations were raising money to swell school building funds, to improve school amenities, to supply sports equipment, to buy library books, and to subsidise the travelling costs of school teams. Some parents' associations also organised senior dances at their schools; others assumed responsibility for operating school canteens.

On one occasion, at Timaru Girls' High School, normal roles were reversed when the Parent-Teacher Association, assisted by the Department, partially fenced, levelled, sowed, and topdressed three and a half acres of land which had just been added to the school grounds.²³⁸ Such associations, "... by helping and not hindering, promoted in a hundred ways the progress of the school".²³⁹

Past pupils' associations

These groups, which were also a source of considerable strength to the schools, constituted another important link with the wider community. They held balls and reunion weekends, organised past versus present pupils' sports fixtures, and often made substantial financial contributions to their schools, especially in support of projects which were only partially funded by the Department. News of their activities was normally a regular feature of school magazines. The older schools, particularly those with boarding establishments, generally had very strong past pupils' associations, which wielded considerable influence in the operation of the school. In some cases, these associations were represented on the school's board of governors. Many of the past pupils' associations of such schools also had branches all over New Zealand, and, in some cases, overseas.²⁴⁰

Evening classes

Evening classes, which "had a long history in the technical school system",²⁴¹ were being offered in an increasing number of post-primary schools of all types by the mid-50's. Non-vocational (or hobby) classes were particularly popular. Howarth has pointed out that the wider provision of specialist rooms necessitated by the new curriculum contributed to the rapid expansion of evening classes in

this period. Quoting figures taken from a paper by Denis Garrett, Howarth noted that evening class enrolments went from twenty-four thousand in 1950 to forty-eight thousand in 1960.²⁴² In the mid-40's, Wellington Technical College had an evening class roll of nearly seventeen hundred; in 1949, it was running eleven evening classes each week in physical education alone, catering for over 250 students, many of them in the younger age group.²⁴³ Among the smaller schools, Thames High School had twenty-three evening classes in 1946, with a total enrolment of 215 students.²⁴⁴ Evening classes were a service provided to the community by the schools. They brought mutual benefits in the form of closer contacts, leading to increased opportunities for adults to experience and better understand the objectives the schools were trying to achieve through their teaching programmes.

Community centres

The Feilding Community Centre and its links with Feilding Agricultural High School have already been discussed in chapter 4. In the 50's, there were a small number of other community centres, including one attached to the Mangakino District High School, and another linked to the Hawera Technical High School. The directors of both of these centres were employed part-time in the respective schools. They spent the remainder of their time on community centre work.²⁴⁵ Where established community centres existed, school and community obviously enjoyed a special relationship, which could only serve to promote the welfare of both partners in the enterprise.

Conclusion

Between 1946 and 1959, the established post-primary schools of New Zealand underwent a complete change of character, from institutions catering for a selected and limited clientele to multipurpose schools providing for an entire age-range of pupils of widely varying abilities and interests. All of the new schools adopted the reformed pattern from the start. Some schools also found that the composition of their rolls was changing, as more Maoris, as well as "refugees from devastated Europe",²⁴⁶ entered state schools. In this period, the emphasis in most schools was on cooperative endeavour, promoted by such means as form and house competitions.²⁴⁷ Less attention was paid to the growth of the individual. "We could have been encouraged to develop our individual potential more, all of us, with more emphasis on our personal worth,"²⁴⁸ was the verdict of a pupil who attended one of the girls' schools in the late 50's. School assemblies, which constituted a "significant expression of [the] corporate life" of a school, were often regarded as "the most important occasion of [the] school day".²⁴⁹ Heron reported that, at Wellington College assemblies in the late 40's, "... the headmaster ... delivered from time to time addresses on the highest plane of idealism indistinguishable in content from sermons".²⁵⁰

The economic prosperity of the middle and late 50's brought with it a period of full employment, which, "for persons of high educational ideals ... [could] present the most incompatible attitudes". Schools strove to uphold the advantages of a broad, general education, while many employers (and parents) wanted a narrow, vocationally-oriented syllabus.²⁵¹ At the same time, principals,

instead of being active in educating parents and business leaders in curriculum priorities, were often obliged to concentrate on lobbying the Department for new buildings and updated facilities,²⁵² as well as wrestling with the "almost insuperable difficulties of shortage of staffing".²⁵³

Conclusion (Part Three)

In most respects, the period from 1946 to 1959 was not marked by any radical departures from established educational policy. Rather, it was a time of consolidation, and of adjustment to the new curriculum. Nevertheless, there were some who saw things quite differently. Miss L. Hurle, a senior inspector of post-primary schools, considered that the 50's ushered in a totally new concept of post-primary schooling:

We fear that post-primary education is developing in such a way that the concept of a secondary school as we know it is being destroyed, and we are coming to accept as education an impersonal type of training that has little to commend it except that numbers are accommodated.²⁵⁴

The problems facing the post-primary schools at the time certainly forced them to amend some of their traditional policies and practices. "We are trying to evolve a working compromise between our ideals of education ... and the practical difficulties of continually changing staff and inadequate buildings,"²⁵⁵ said one principal; but there was no evidence of changes in the schools as fundamental as Miss Hurle had claimed. Rather, judging from developments in the field of special education alone, the Department and the schools were moving towards a type of training where the abilities and personalities of all pupils

were taken into account. In 1953, the Department appointed an Officer for Special Education;²⁵⁶ in the late 50's, the work of the Adviser in Reading was extended to cover post-primary schools;²⁵⁷ hospital class teachers began giving some help to post-primary patients;²⁵⁸ in some of the largest centres of population, a post-primary school accepted special responsibility for partially-sighted children;²⁵⁹ while an increasing number of deaf pupils living at the School for the Deaf at Kelston (Auckland) were being enrolled at local post-primary schools, thus facilitating their eventual integration into the wider community.²⁶⁰ At the same time, the Department was pushing ahead with its plans to build a new residential school for the blind at Homai (near Manurewa, South Auckland).²⁶¹ The new Director was emphatic that: "Our aim in education ... is to help every child to realise his full potential whatever his abilities may be, and success with one group is no compensation for failure with another".²⁶²

Events of significance during the period included the closing of the schools between late November, 1947 and early March, 1948 because of a further outbreak of poliomyelitis. In February, 1948, post-primary pupils throughout the country were set correspondence assignments, though the efficiency of the schools in administering this scheme varied considerably. At one girls' school, "from the second week on, the struggle for [staff] survival began as piles of completed assignments were returned for marking while we were still working against time to get the next set typed and posted".²⁶³ Elsewhere, a more leisurely approach was adopted. In a large district high school, "... in theory, students received lessons by correspondence, but, in practice, little if any work was done;"²⁶⁴ in a boys' provincial school, the correspondence lessons "never really

functioned properly";²⁶⁵ while, at another boys' school, "... by the time the necessary organisation had been set up, and the first assignments printed and posted, permission was received for the School to re-open".²⁶⁶ The visit to Mount Albert Grammar School by the Duke of Edinburgh on December 14th, 1956 was much more than a red-letter day for Mount Albert. Representatives of forty-three Auckland post-primary schools played a full part in the proceedings.²⁶⁷ The presentation of a petition to Parliament towards the end of 1956 by W.S. Otto on behalf of the Holy Name Society of New Zealand attracted attention, once again, to the question of state aid to private schools. A referendum on the issue conducted by the P.P.T.A. in mid-1956 drew a response from 86 per cent of the membership; of those, 83 per cent were opposed to additional state aid going to private schools.²⁶⁸ Otto's petition was heard by the Education Committee of the House, which also took written and oral evidence from thirty witnesses, including the P.P.T.A. The Committee finally reported to the House that they had no recommendation to make.²⁶⁹ Cumming and Cumming claimed that the petition was "the cause of heated discussion" on the matter of state aid to private schools.²⁷⁰ Although no further major moves were made in the 50's by those seeking such aid, the controversy remained alive to the extent that it became "the major educational issue of the 1960 general election".²⁷¹

Early in 1960, Dr Beeby retired from the Department, after serving for twenty years as Director of Education. Praising his "... administrative ability, ... remarkable intellectual powers, and ... complete integrity in carrying out Government policy", the Minister acknowledged that Beeby had "... planned and guided some of the most far-reaching developments in our educational history".²⁷² McLaren

described Beeby as "... an astonishingly energetic, imaginative and sensitive administrator", and credited him with the reconstruction and modernisation of the national education system.²⁷³ Beeby's achievement in establishing "a new balance of powers and responsibilities between the Department and the education boards"²⁷⁴ attested to his administrative skill and his vision, while the following summing up of the question of changes in the post-primary schools demonstrated his perceptiveness: "Today's problems spring directly from yesterday's solutions, and can be solved, in turn, only if we appreciate the pressures that have moulded our post-primary schools over two decades."²⁷⁵ Immediately after relinquishing the post of Director of Education, Beeby left New Zealand on appointment as the country's Ambassador to France.

Summary (Part Three)

The aim of this section has been to give an account of the evolution of post-primary education between 1946 and 1959, a period of marked change in the schools following the implementation of the recommendations of the Thomas Committee. First, six major themes have been considered, namely, the expansion of the post-primary school system; the new curriculum in operation; the control of post-primary schools; the teaching profession; technical education; and the post-primary education of the Maori. Second, the initiatives taken by the Government in the period to improve and extend the educational services it provided have been outlined. These included legislative moves; extended financial provisions; schemes involving additional financial commitments, such as the free textbook scheme and the library assistants scheme; and administrative actions. Under this

heading, government initiatives in connection with vocational guidance services, the Colombo Plan, and the Commission on Education in New Zealand have been discussed. The final chapter deals with the schools, with special reference to the attitudes, aspirations, and activities of the post-primary pupils of the day.

The next part of the study will cover the decade of the 60's, beginning with a consideration of the *Report of the Commission on Education in New Zealand* as it applied to the post-primary sector. The 60's were characterised by continuing growth in pupil numbers; persistent teacher shortages; increased teacher militancy; the advent of 'pupils' rights' movements; the demise of the technical high school; forward moves in rural education; the establishing of the Curriculum Development Unit; and the appearance of the first complete consolidation of the law on education since 1914. They also ushered in the age of educational technology, as well as being a time when the policies and practices of the post-primary schools came under intense scrutiny from a number of quarters. In the next four chapters an examination will be made of these and other characteristics of the period seen in relation to the life and work of the post-primary schools of the day.

PART FOUR : 1960-1970

Introduction

The wave of post-war economic prosperity lasted until 1967,¹ when the economy, notwithstanding a marked growth in the country's industrial operations, entered a period of uncertainty brought about by an excessively high level of imports, and a sharp drop in wool prices.² By the late 60's, New Zealand was experiencing "noticeable unemployment and a net outflow of migrants, both considered extraordinary phenomena at the time".³ The recession, and the consequent tightening of the labour market, resulted in the return to school of many pupils who had planned to leave and begin work. In July, 1968, secondary school rolls were 7,500 higher than the middle estimate figures forecast in the Minister's White Paper on school and university enrolment projections for the period 1967 to 1980.⁴

Politically, the decade was one of relative stability, with the National Government regaining the treasury benches in December, 1960, and remaining in power for the ensuing twelve years. For the greater part of that time, Keith Holyoake was Prime Minister. The successive Ministers of Education were W.B. Tennent (December, 1960 to December, 1963), A.E. Kinsella (December, 1963 to December, 1969), and B.E. Talboys (December, 1969 to February, 1972).

Chapman's claim that "... the underlying changes in the golden 1960's were social rather than political, ..." ⁵ was borne out by events. The period saw a continued and substantial population drift to the urban areas, especially Auckland; a high increase of population mobility generally;⁶ soaring crime rates; the coming of age of the

post-war 'baby boom' generation;⁷ and Maori cultural resurgence and the women's liberation movement, which, together, "... were the enduring elements of a 'new wave of protest' that brought a new hue to the social fabric from the late 1960's".⁸ At the same time, patterns of family life were changing. Young people were demanding, and receiving, more freedom from adult-imposed restrictions. The commercial world was quick to take advantage of the new youth culture, providing adolescents (at a price) with everything they needed to 'do their own thing', and to be 'one of the crowd' and 'with it' persons.

Such rapid and extensive social changes had far-reaching implications for the schools. One school historian summed up their impact as follows:

... the quest for self-determination, the convulsions and distortions of rights and wrongs, the emergence of young people as an economic and political force, the partial or total collapse of the traditional and conservative, the outside world's pressures, dissatisfactions, and emerging radical ideas were reflected in [the] schools, ... which tried to adapt to a different environment and role, without sacrificing worthwhile traditions and all the past's security.⁹

In the 60's, in every post-primary school in New Zealand, but more particularly those in the towns and cities, more and more pupils embarked on various forms of adolescent protest in their quest for a greater degree of personal freedom. Teachers and parents had to learn to cope with this new set of social imperatives, a task which many of them found extremely difficult. One principal of a large post-primary school was probably voicing the sentiments of many when he admitted that "... those years were the most painful of my career".¹⁰

This process of "adaptation and evolution, which could be considered to mark the beginnings of large-scale reform"¹¹ in the post-primary schools of the 60's, will be discussed in some detail in this part of the study. Chapter 12 will consider the deliberations and the *Report* of the Commission on Education in New Zealand, as well as analysing the various initiatives undertaken by the Government to improve its existing educational services, and introduce some completely new ones. An examination of five themes of major significance in the 60's - staffing the schools, the teaching profession, rural education, the post-primary education of the Maori, and curriculum organisation and development - will comprise chapters 13 and 14. Finally, chapter 15 will be concerned with the aspirations and achievements of the schools of the day, with particular reference to their pupils and their wider communities.

THE COMMISSION ON EDUCATION IN NEW ZEALAND

In February, 1960, the Minister constituted the Commission on Education in New Zealand¹² to inquire into and report on a comprehensive range of educational issues. There followed almost "two and a half years of searching inquiry",¹³ culminating in the production of an 850-page *Report*,¹⁴ which embodied 346 recommendations. In the course of its work, the Commission received over four hundred written submissions, conducted many public hearings in centres all over New Zealand,¹⁵ and sent its secretary and research officer¹⁶ abroad¹⁷ to investigate certain key items on its agenda. The willingness of the Commission to travel extensively to hear and to collect evidence encouraged the presentation of a wide range of viewpoints, while the skill of the chairman in extracting the maximum contribution from witnesses heightened the effectiveness of their input.¹⁸ The Commission's conclusions, based on "carefully reasoned arguments",¹⁹ amply confirmed the Minister's earlier prediction that they would "help all of us to see the educational situation more clearly in relation to our future needs as a community, and to chart our course with more assurance".²⁰ For the Director, the publication of the *Report* of the Commission was "far and away the most important single event of the educational year".²¹

New Zealand was by no means alone in judging that the time had come "to institute a thorough review of the working of the school system".²² In the United Kingdom, the *Crowther Report*, dealing with the years of later adolescence, had just been published;²³ in the

United States, where "post-Sputnik education [was] a live political issue",²⁴ J.B. Conant had released, in 1959, his study *The American High School Today*;²⁵ while in Canada, in 1958-59, Manitoba, Alberta, and British Columbia were all "undergoing simultaneous scrutiny from royal commissions".²⁶ A number of the proposals of the Cameron Commission (Alberta)²⁷ were similar, in many respects, to recommendations made by the Currie Commission.

Although several discrete factors contributed to the setting up of the Commission, the over-arching reason for its origin was undoubtedly political. With a general election due to be held in November, 1960, it suited politicians of all parties to be able to hide behind the skirts of the Commission, and decline to become involved in debates on controversial educational issues on the grounds that the issues in question were *sub judice*. That there was considerable public dissatisfaction with some features of the school system was undeniable. Unrest over teaching methods and standards of work in the primary schools was widespread;²⁸ disquiet at the general failure of the secondary schools to provide adequately for the whole range of their pupils, and at the increasingly dominant role of the School Certificate examination, permeated the post-primary sector; while concern was also felt in many quarters about the rapid increase in the total cost of education, and the likelihood that this expenditure would continue to rise sharply.²⁹ The extreme shortage of teachers which had plagued the Education Department and the schools throughout the 50's was another source of potential embarrassment to the politicians in both rural and urban areas. It is significant that the under-supply of teachers in the post-primary schools reached a crisis point at the very time the Commission was beginning its work.

In addition, there were a number of other issues, consideration of which "appeared to all concerned an overdue task".³⁰ These included uneasiness about the moral state of New Zealand's young people, fanned by the *Mazengarb Report*, published in 1954,³¹ as well as the questions of the teaching of religion in state schools, and the provision of state aid to private schools. The Commission itself, in the introduction to its *Report*, also noted that, all over the world at that time, there was "a new urgency regarding education". This stemmed from public expectations that education would supply the "... new skills and techniques and [the] greater general competence ... known to be needed to meet the complex demands of modern communities" brought about by "rapid material change and, in particular, rapid advance in scientific knowledge of every kind".³² The "new challenge to the schools"³³ posed by these expectations was undoubtedly a factor in the decision to establish the Commission. Moreover, the education system as a whole had not been looked at comprehensively for at least thirty years.³⁴ In combination, all of these matters plainly pointed to the need for "a full and impartial enquiry into the publicly controlled school system of this country".³⁵

At the special request of the Minister, the Commission first applied itself to "the urgent problem of post-primary staffing and recruitment".³⁶ Within five months, it had submitted an interim report on this question, while reserving the right to bring down further recommendations on the issue in its final *Report*.³⁷ The interim report contained eighteen recommendations, which called, *inter alia*, for an intensification of the campaign to recruit post-primary teachers overseas, significant improvements to teachers' salary scales, positions of minor responsibility for teachers of slow

learners, shortened courses of training in 1961 and 1962 for some Division C students, special training courses in homecraft subjects for mature women, more ancillary staff in the schools, extended provisions for in-service training, and a continuation of the policy of consolidating district high schools.³⁸ Although the Government took prompt action on a number of these recommendations (eleven of the eighteen had been implemented either fully or in part within two years),³⁹ there was one recommendation which was not accepted - that university students in mathematics and the sciences, on completing their courses, be invited to teach in post-primary schools for one year at a salary of £1,000 for the year. Such a proposal would certainly have been anathema to the P.P.T.A., and was strangely at variance with the Commission's later assertions that "... only on the basis of a sufficient number of well trained teachers can high standards be maintained ...;⁴⁰ and "... now that virtually all children attend secondary school ... the arguments for professional training have come to have a special force".^{41,42}

Once it had submitted its interim report on post-primary staffing and recruitment, the Commission turned its attention to the other items of its terms of reference. After considering all the submissions it had received,⁴³ and completing its own enquiries, the Commission identified eight areas of particular concern. The implications for the post-primary sector of each of these areas will now be examined.⁴⁴

The foremost area of concern was the training of teachers, described by the Commission as "the most clamant problem of all those

placed before [it]".⁴⁵ Most of the thirty-six recommendations relating to this issue, especially that the responsibility for training teachers be transferred to university institutes of education, and that the period of teacher training be extended to three years, applied mainly to the primary sector. However, the Commission also gave close attention to the training of post-primary teachers. Although it considered that "a university course of teacher training would be the most suitable type for graduate students", it acknowledged that "the Division C course in one form or another is likely to remain".⁴⁶ It also wanted to see more use made of Division D to cater for students with incomplete degrees, in order to minimise the disruptive effect which such students were having on the work of Division C.⁴⁷ Among the Commission's recommendations relating to post-primary teacher training were the payment of an allowance to associate teachers,⁴⁸ the introduction of a special secondary teachers' certificate, and the use of Division D to train teachers specifically for work with third and fourth-form classes.

The second area of particular concern to the Commission covered the status, salaries, and conditions of service of the teaching profession, factors which, in many countries, were "receiving urgent national consideration with a view to their rapid improvement".⁴⁹ After reviewing (and supporting) the teaching profession's "special claim of its own to high professional status",⁵⁰ and stressing "the importance of remuneration as a support to [that] status",⁵¹ the Commission considered in detail the question of teachers' salaries. It advocated an overall revaluation of salaries, as well as recommending, in particular, that double salary increments be authorised for third and fourth-year teachers, "so that those who are

going to be most involved will benefit most".⁵² In a bid to upgrade teachers' academic and professional qualifications,⁵³ the Commission proposed that more teachers be given leave on pay to enable them to complete their degrees, and that some be permitted to study for masters' degrees. The inspection and grading of teachers was an issue which the commissioners considered to be "in need of ... far-reaching changes".⁵⁴ They were convinced that schools would be just as efficient if teachers were graded less frequently. Under such an arrangement, inspectors would have more time "for professional work of a more constructive nature".⁵⁵ The distinct possibility, at a time of serious teacher shortage, that potentially unsuitable people would secure permanent appointments from the outset prompted the Commission to recommend that all first appointments in post-primary schools should be two-year provisional ones.⁵⁶ Finally, the *Report* acknowledged that the growing workload of the most senior teachers in the largest post-primary schools justified the granting of additional staffing; the Commission recommended that, in schools with more than a thousand pupils, the position of first assistant should be extra to entitlement.⁵⁷

The Commission's third area of concern was the administration of education in New Zealand. Having noted that "the New Zealand experience shows ... that centralised control is not necessarily inconsistent with a large measure of local administration and the maintenance of local interest in education",⁵⁸ the commissioners considered, at some length, how administrative delegation to district and local level could be increased within the constraints necessarily imposed by a centralised system of financing. Their solution to this problem - a radical re-organisation of district educational

administration centred on newly-created District Education Councils, District Primary School Boards, and District Secondary School Boards - met with considerable resistance, especially from post-primary school boards, who saw the proposed District Secondary School Boards blocking their long-established right of direct access to the Department. The Commission made a number of other recommendations concerning administration which were more favourably received by the post-primary sector. These included the establishing of a Standing Committee on Administration (Post-primary),⁵⁹ the granting to post-primary school principals of the right to attend all meetings of their boards of governors, and the associating of post-primary schools in groups "for purposes of at least the mechanical tasks of administration", as had already happened in Christchurch and Wellington.⁶⁰ One weakness in the existing system to which the Commission gave prominence was the almost total lack of opportunities for newly-appointed inspectors, principals, and headteachers to undergo training in school administration. It recommended that the Department take steps to remedy this deficiency, possibly in association with one of the universities.

The Commission began its investigation of the problem of Maori education - its fourth area of concern - by acknowledging the significance of certain factors, such as the steady rate of increase of the Maori population,⁶¹ coupled with the youthfulness of a large proportion of that population;⁶² the continuing migration of Maoris to the cities;⁶³ the comparatively low level of Maori educational achievement at post-primary schools;⁶⁴ and the role of socio-economic conditions in holding back the Maori from enjoying equality of educational opportunity.⁶⁵ The Commission was also well aware that

"even good ability may be frustrated by parental apathy towards education".⁶⁶ In addressing the issue of Maori education, the Commission asked itself three key questions: To what extent is the education offered the Maori in New Zealand schools the most suitable for his needs?; What is the best way to enable the Maori to make good use of the education that is offered?; and How can essential aspects of his Maori background be incorporated in his schooling so that he can develop a sense of "belonging to a race of known and respected culture"?⁶⁷ If the schools were to respond effectively to these problems, they would need additional resources. The Commission proposed to ensure that these were made available by having all schools, primary and post-primary, with a high percentage of Maori pupils declared Maori Service schools. It was intended that such schools would qualify for some additional staffing, as well as being provided with the special services appropriate to their particular needs. These services would include assisting with the teaching of English to Maori pupils by providing libraries, a wide range of printed material, and additional reading advisers; facilitating the teaching of the Maori language, since "language is close to the heart of a culture";⁶⁸ and, most importantly, according priority to the provision of "an extended measure of guidance".⁶⁹ The Commission also recommended that the Government fund research into all aspects of Maori education, in order to promote a better understanding of the difficulties which beset Maori pupils, and to provide clearer insights into positive ways of dealing with those difficulties. In putting forward this recommendation, the Commission aligned itself with the P.P.T.A., which had been pressing for more research into Maori education for some years.⁷⁰ The Commission firmly believed that "in the Maori pupil lies the greatest reservoir of unused talent in the

population".⁷¹ All of its deliberations and recommendations relating to Maori education were motivated by an urge to release that talent for the benefit of the Maori people and the whole nation.

The fifth area of concern identified by the Commission, dealing with the assessment of pupils' progress and achievement, had to do almost entirely with the primary sector.⁷² However, the Commission's sixth area of concern - the organisation of the school system - focused substantially on post-primary education.⁷³ It also contained some of the Commission's most radical proposals affecting post-primary schooling. These can be grouped under three main headings : beginning secondary education in form 1; revising the School Certificate examination; and raising the school leaving age.

The Commission began this section of its investigation with a comprehensive review of the final years of primary schooling. It gave special attention to intermediate schools, which it described as "... probably the most controversial feature of the present school organisation".⁷⁴ The Commission realised that, whatever proposals it might make for altering the intermediate system, the fundamental problem of the serious lack of continuity between the primary and post-primary sectors would remain. Its answer to this totally unacceptable state of affairs was to recommend "that secondary education for all pupils in New Zealand schools begin in form 1".⁷⁵ In urban areas, this would mean re-organising the curricula of intermediate schools (to be renamed junior high schools), as well as making significant administrative changes, especially in staffing and teachers' grading. In country districts, the desired change would be effected by translating existing district high schools⁷⁶ and small

rural post-primary schools into form 1-6 schools. The Commission even considered that it would be possible to open form 1-6 schools in new housing areas in cities "where the pattern of secondary education has not already established itself".^{77,78} Central to the success of this re-organised school system was the provision of adequately qualified and trained teachers, especially at forms 1 and 2 levels. The Commission acknowledged that "it would be disastrous for most [intermediate] schools to embark on additional secondary subjects using only their present staffs".⁷⁹ Twenty of the twenty-eight recommendations dealing with the re-organisation of secondary schooling were devoted to the establishing and operation of form 1-6 schools.

In the early 60's, the School Certificate examination was subject to a good deal of criticism, on at least three counts. First, there was widespread concern over the use by the Department of statistical controls to produce a pre-determined percentage of passes; second, many people believed that the examination placed "much too low a ceiling"⁸⁰ on the efforts of the more able pupils; and third, it was generally accepted that attempting to cope with School Certificate programmes simply led to frustration on the part of a sizable proportion of post-primary pupils, who needed to be offered more realistic and satisfying courses of study leading to more readily attainable goals. At least one influential critic believed that School Certificate was "the major institutional barrier to reform"⁸¹ at post-primary level; he held, further, that "[school] examinations have invariably tended to influence out of all proportion to their value. So it was with the Proficiency Certificate and University Entrance; now it is with School Certificate".⁸² At the same time, the

Commission maintained that the School Certificate examination had provided a "means of measuring a level of general educational attainment that is within the reach of a considerable percentage of pupils, perhaps of the average New Zealand secondary pupil".⁸³ For this reason, the Commission favoured retaining the School Certificate examination, but recommended that it be amended so that it would more nearly meet the needs of the above average and below average pupils. The former were to be extended by the provision of honours options in the examination, while both groups would benefit from a proposal to permit candidates to enter for School Certificate in one or more subjects (up to a maximum of six). The Commission proposed that a Fifth Form General Certificate of Education be awarded to all candidates who reached the existing pass standard in any subject for which they had entered. Although candidates were required to offer English as a subject for the examination, a pass in English was not to be mandatory for the award of a Fifth Form General Certificate of Education.

After carefully reviewing the question of the current school leaving age, the Commission recommended that, "... in view of the necessary changes [it foresaw] in the growth of secondary and higher education",⁸⁴ the Education Act be amended to fix the minimum school leaving age at sixteen, but that the implementation of this provision be delayed until those who had entered primary school in 1962 reached the age of sixteen, i.e., until 1973.⁸⁵ In the meantime, the Commission proposed that pupils be required to remain at school until the end of the term in which they turned fifteen. Another recommendation aimed at making it slightly easier for genuine 'reluctant learners' who were over the age of fourteen and had

completed the work of form 2 to obtain an exemption from further schooling in cases where the authorities were satisfied that such pupils would not derive "reasonable benefit" from remaining at school.⁸⁶

The seventh area of special concern to the Commission, religious teaching in state schools, had little relevance to post-primary schools. The Commission, noting "the wide support among the submissions made to it for the maintenance of the *status quo* in secondary schools",⁸⁷ recommended that the freedom post-primary schools already enjoyed to offer religious instruction, and conduct religious observances, be maintained. A further recommendation urged post-primary schools to include objective discussion on comparative religion in their senior studies programmes.⁸⁸

The final area of particular concern was the question of state aid to private schools. This matter had been added to the Commission's terms of reference as a separate item, and it was clear that the Commission did not feel entirely comfortable in having to make recommendations on it: "It is the Commission's belief ... that whether aid is given to private schools or withheld from them is basically a matter for political decision, and not one that educational authorities can well decide."⁸⁹ Nevertheless, the Commission gave the subject very careful consideration, including making a study of overseas models, before recommending that no change be made to the existing policy. The Commission considered that the greatest danger to granting an increased measure of state aid to private schools was that "competing school systems might well be

established"⁹⁰ in New Zealand. As a result, education could become "a divisive rather than a unifying factor in our life",⁹¹ a possibility which the Commission found completely unacceptable.

In addition to the eight areas of major concern discussed above, the Commission also made recommendations on a number of other issues which affected the post-primary schools. Possibly the most significant of these had to do with curriculum planning. The Commission was anxious to "quicken the pace of curriculum change",⁹² but realised that the first requirement was "much more detailed and organised coordination [of curriculum planning] throughout the education system".⁹³ The proposal to begin secondary education at form 1 level gave added urgency to this conviction. Only if carefully articulated core syllabuses covering the form 1-4 area were designed and put in place could the "knitting together of the two major strands in education"⁹⁴ be accomplished. Accordingly, the Commission recommended "the establishment, within the Department of Education, of a section for curricular development". It would be the responsibility of these officers "to organise and carry out ... the preparation, coordination, and revision of curricula and syllabuses from the infant department to form 6".⁹⁵ -

Two groups of pupils figured prominently in the Commission's deliberations, the gifted and slow learners. With reference to the former, the Commission agreed with Parkyn⁹⁶ that able pupils were "all too often ... given a school programme well below what they [were] capable of".⁹⁷ The Commission believed that beginning secondary work in form 1, and making honours options available in School Certificate papers, would help to extend pupils of higher ability. It noted the

experiments being conducted overseas, which offered advanced work for bright pupils outside school hours, and recommended that the education of this group of pupils be the subject of further study and controlled experimentation. Concerning slow learners, the Commission stressed that such pupils needed, first, to be properly identified, and then encouraged to feel secure by being given satisfying tasks adjusted to their ability, and leading to adequate goals.⁹⁸ It held that by far the most important factors in improving the quality of the education of slow learners were the "in-service training of the teachers who are most in contact with such pupils",⁹⁹ and the "development of curricular aid".¹⁰⁰

In the area of methodology, the Commission spoke enthusiastically of television, which it believed held "the prospect of a major advance in the effectiveness of teaching in this country".¹⁰¹ It recommended that "the necessary experimental projects on the use of television in schools be given high priority".¹⁰² The Commission also investigated language laboratories, finding in them a potential corrective to "our relative weakness in the oral basis of language teaching",¹⁰³ an inevitable concomitant of the distance from New Zealand of the countries whose languages are taught here. It suggested the setting up of pilot schemes in selected post-primary schools to test the use of language laboratories under New Zealand conditions.¹⁰⁴

The Commission looked closely at the staffing and financing of post-primary school libraries. It considered that the current library assistant scheme was "a step in the right direction in the development of school ancillary services",¹⁰⁵ but it also wanted to see the position of teacher-librarian upgraded,¹⁰⁶ since it was convinced that

the ultimate control of a school library must be in the hands of teachers. Recognising the urgent need for school libraries to be better funded, the Commission recommended that the existing library setting-up grant for new schools of £350 be increased to £1,000 spread over three years. It also advocated a free issue to all new schools of basic reference works, such as encyclopaedias and dictionaries. Another recommendation was that the Department appoint a professional officer with responsibility for library development. For the School Library Service, which had "done more than anyone else to raise library standards in the schools",¹⁰⁷ the Commission had nothing but praise.

The Commission devoted a chapter of its *Report* to school buildings, making special reference to their use for community purposes. It regretted that there were still many post-primary schools without gymnasias, and recommended that such facilities "be regarded as a standard secondary building requirement that should ultimately be provided for all secondary schools",¹⁰⁸ city schools with inadequate grounds to be given first priority. It also considered that schools built to the Porirua plan should be provided with covered ways between blocks "as required by local conditions".¹⁰⁹ The Commission claimed that the variety of submissions it received on the question of the community use of school facilities bore witness to "the widespread public interest in the matter".¹¹⁰ Although the Commission clearly favoured making school amenities more freely available to the community, seeing in "such utilisation ... a healthy development leading to closer public participation in various ways in the process of education",¹¹¹ its concept of the school as a community centre seemed curiously limited. It would not claim more for it than

the ability to "exert a positive influence in counteraction to those negative forces attracting towards delinquency the restless, the unoccupied, and the aimless among the adolescent population".¹¹² The Commission also emphasised the need "to see that the main school purpose is never sacrificed to the secondary community purpose".¹¹³ Nevertheless, it did recommend that, under certain conditions, and "where both school and community are in agreement", the school be declared a community centre, with local authorities providing any extra amenities and equipment needed, as well as meeting running costs, and additional caretaker and cleaning expenses.¹¹⁴

On the much-debated issue of the use of corporal punishment in post-primary schools, the Commission was realistic enough to concede that "attempts at sudden abolition would probably fail" as "... schools cannot be more than a little in advance of their society".¹¹⁵ However, it did recommend that schools give earnest consideration to banning corporal punishment for fifth and sixth-form pupils. In the wider sphere of promoting a more democratic environment in the schools, the Commission endorsed the spirit of a recommendation of the Thomas Committee¹¹⁶ by calling for the creation of school councils, where pupils could voice their opinions, and through which they could share in decision making on at least some aspects of school government. In the matter of the pros and cons of coeducation for post-primary pupils, the Commission declined to be drawn. It was content to observe that "the importance of either segregation or association of the sexes during the school day at secondary schools can be overrated".¹¹⁷

The Commission was a good deal more forthcoming on the question of guidance and counselling services in post-primary schools. Although it was not prepared to support the appointment of full-time counsellors in all schools, it recognised the need to provide something more than "the impersonal diffusion of information on possible careers".¹¹⁸ Accordingly, it recommended that "guidance counselling be developed further in particular schools, and that counsellors be given special training and adequate time for this work".¹¹⁹ Finally, the Commission emphasised the paramount importance of research in education. It declared that, throughout its inquiry, it had been impressed "by the intimate relationship that exists between the vigour of research and the vitality of the school system".¹²⁰ At the same time, it noted a serious shortage of trained research workers, as well as a reluctance on the part of many classroom teachers to become involved in research projects. The Commission therefore recommended the reconstituting and strengthening of the research section of the Department of Education; a substantial increase in the government grant to the New Zealand Council for Educational Research; and the award of one-year research studentships to practising teachers qualified to undertake research studies.

In the Minister's view,¹²¹ the Commission's *Report* furnished "... a comprehensive set of proposals for the extension and further development of public education in this country".¹²² His predecessor had been equally enthusiastic: "The criticisms ... are constructive and forward-looking The *Report* has ... provided for everyone a framework of reference for the thousand and one problems of our system"¹²³ The Director, not surprisingly, was pleased that "the Commission positively endorsed ... the policies the Department has

been following in recent years",¹²⁴ even though "emphatic attention" had also been drawn to a number of shortcomings.¹²⁵ But how was the *Report* received by those outside the ranks of officialdom? Even before the *Report* appeared, some misgivings had been expressed, among teachers, at least, about its anticipated length and complexity. "How," asked one contributor to the *P.P.T.A. Journal*, "will the Commission set about its herculean task of reducing about five million words of evidence, plus the findings of members, into its final *Report*?"¹²⁶ Not all teachers, however, were so concerned: "The ultimate *Report* will be outstanding in its thoroughness."¹²⁷ Teacher comment on the *Report* was quite extensive, and generally favourable. Hawthorn considered that teachers in schools with a high proportion of Maoris on their rolls would be "heartened ... by a statement such as '... no group in the community has given the Commission greater cause for thought and discussion than the Maori people'"(p.15).¹²⁸ He concurred with the general thrust of the Commission's recommendations on the post-primary education of the Maori, stating that, in his experience, "... significant gains [could] be achieved through better reading methods, better liaison with homes, and more complete guidance".¹²⁹ Writing as a teacher-librarian, Gordon saw the *Report* as "a forward-looking statement which [would] provide a guide for the future development of school libraries".¹³⁰ He applauded the Commission's view of the library as "an essential teaching aid playing a very important part in the evolution of teaching practice ... in the schools", particularly as teachers "... gradually move away from the textbook-centred education to more diffuse methods of teaching using many books".¹³¹ He also felt that the Commission's recommendations on school libraries went a long way towards establishing the library as an integral part of the educational programmes of the schools. A

particularly thoughtful survey of the *Report* was offered by Meikle. She described it as "an evolutionary document (in its post-primary sections, the child of the *Thomas Report*)" which conveyed in a positive, though never declamatory, manner "the Commission's almost always liberal, occasionally radical ... point of view".¹³² Although her "primary feeling towards the *Report* [was] one of respect for its thoroughness, objectivity, thoughtfulness and enlightenment", Meikle nevertheless felt that it was "sometimes over-optimistic or mistaken".¹³³ She did not agree that the core curriculum had been as faithfully adhered to as the Commission had suggested; she took the Commission to task for its "too great satisfaction with School Certificate's record"; and she maintained that many of the commissioners' assumptions about future developments were "no more than re-statements of the enlightened 'shoulds' enunciated by the *Thomas Report* eighteen years ago, and not yet translated into practice in a good many schools".¹³⁴ Meikle also elaborated on what she considered to be three major omissions from the *Report*: the necessity of providing relief staff for all teachers attending in-service training courses; the problems associated with the large-scale employment of married women; and the lack of status accorded to senior assistant mistresses in post-primary schools.¹³⁵ With characteristic directness, Meikle suggested that these shortcomings came about because "... the members of the Commission have, in general, not had their noses rubbed in the facts of day-to-day school life in recent years ... - very able and conscientious men and women though they are".¹³⁶ Some writers were concerned lest the Commission's arguments should be accepted too uncritically. Typical of these was Evison, who noted that "... the solid pages of Commission Reports seem to have acquired something of the status of Holy Writ ...".¹³⁷

Unlike the *Thomas Report*, the *Currie Report* was the subject of few, if any, specific articles written by university teachers, though Stroobant commented on it briefly, describing it as "... the most extensive review we have had of New Zealand educational services ..."; and "... an outstanding guide for educational developments in this country".¹³⁸ The Commission's activities were, however, referred to, sometimes quite extensively, in the more general publications of some university educators. Dakin considered that the Commission had done much to advance the cause of teacher training, providing "the impetus that has been behind the vigorous drive for the improvement of the education and training of teachers over the last decade".¹³⁹ Cumming and Cumming were highly critical of a number of aspects of the *Report*. They condemned its length - "a monumental *Report* of approximately 850 pages, ... which ensured that only a few students would read it" - and its content: "The area covered by the Commission was too extensive, and the recommendations too numerous ... and beyond all financial resources to be of much practical value" They went on to claim that "... many of the subsequent developments in New Zealand education would have taken place in the normal course of events without any assistance from Currie's excessively fluent commissioners".¹⁴⁰ It is significant, however, that Cumming and Cumming gave no examples of the sort of 'developments' they were referring to. They also conveniently overlooked the fact that, numerous and (in some cases) expensive though the recommendations were, a substantial number of them were accepted by the Government and implemented, either fully or in part, well before the end of the 60's.¹⁴¹ McLaren's judgment was more reasonable. In his opinion, the Commission, notwithstanding its somewhat cautious attitude, "helped all interested parties appreciate more fully the issues at stake", and "... provided sound and practical

advice for teachers, laymen and educational administrators alike".¹⁴² McLaren did rebuke the Commission for failing to adopt a more positive approach to the special problems faced by schools in areas of particular need, such as those with a high proportion of low income families,¹⁴³ but, on the whole, he considered that the Commission had come to grips with its agenda quite effectively.

Other critics also contributed to the ongoing debate about the Commission's effectiveness. Perry found the recommendations for a unified district control of schools "well-meaning but clumsy". He believed that the proposals could not succeed because they "took little heed of lay participation in education".¹⁴⁴ Perry attributed this weakness to a lack, on the part of the commissioners, of "any adequate experience of the present administrative system".¹⁴⁵ Potter alleged that the Commission, by concentrating almost exclusively on education as a social service, had understated its economic importance. He held that future reviews of the system would have to correct this imbalance.¹⁴⁶ The Curriculum Review Group of the N.Z.P.P.T.A. was critical of the Commission's readiness to accept the undesirable effects of School Certificate (parental tension and anxiety, and pupil disappointment and frustration) in the interest of "raising the cultural level of the community".¹⁴⁷ In the opinion of the Review Group, the Commission appeared, also, to be unable to make up its mind on issues like scaling, and the dangers of external examinations. However, in spite of the interest shown in the Commission's *Report* by professional educators, Stroobant claimed that the lack of public evaluation of its contents was disquieting, since, in his view, "... any changes and reforms which might be contemplated

will not prosper without a fuller public understanding and endorsement...".¹⁴⁸

McLaren has pointed out that, in spite of popular opinion to the contrary, the reports of education committees and commissions in New Zealand do influence government and departmental policy.¹⁴⁹ In the case of the *Currie Report*, this was certainly so. Soon after the *Report* was published, the Minister himself, a cabinet committee chaired by the Minister, and a group of departmental officers began "studying the possibilities of action on its recommendations",¹⁵⁰ some of which were implemented almost at once. In 1972, Ewing conducted a study which established that "the recommendations in the *Currie Report* have been generating changes on a broad front throughout the ten years since 1962". According to Ewing, of the 328 recommendations in the Commission's main *Report*, 134 (41 per cent) had been fully implemented by 1972; a further sixty-three (19 per cent) had been implemented in modified form; and forty (12 per cent) had been partially implemented. In other words, action of some kind had been taken in respect of nearly three-quarters of all the recommendations. Of the balance, fifty-two (16 per cent) were either under action or being considered in 1972, while thirty-nine (12 per cent) had failed to gain government support.¹⁵¹ Many of the recommendations implemented by the Government were of major significance. These included the establishing of the National Advisory Council on the Training of Teachers; the lengthening of the course of training for primary teachers; the extension of opportunities for teacher in-service training; the introduction of improved salary scales for teachers; the acceptance of the principle of lower teacher-pupil ratios; the setting up of a Standing Committee

on Administration (Post-primary); the establishing of a special research unit, within the New Zealand Council for Educational Research, on Maori schooling; the introduction of single-subject passes in the School Certificate examination; the setting up, as part of the Department, of the Curriculum Development Unit and the Educational Research and Planning Unit; and the extension of guidance counselling services in post-primary schools. Against this impressive record, however, must be set the fact that a number of potentially far-reaching recommendations put forward by the Commission were not accepted by the Government. Amongst these were the restructuring of the administrative framework at district level;¹⁵² the proposal to begin secondary education at form 1;¹⁵³ the scheme to declare any school (including post-primary) with a high proportion of Maori pupils a Maori Service school;¹⁵⁴ the provision for raising the school leaving age to sixteen with effect from 1973;¹⁵⁵ and the transfer to university institutes of education of the responsibility for training teachers.¹⁵⁶ One further point needs to be made. Very few of the recommendations of the Currie Commission were incorporated in the Education Act 1964. This was because the Minister followed the normal New Zealand practice of using orders in council rather than legislation to introduce new regulations.

The impetus given by the Currie Commission to the improvement and expansion of existing services, as well as to the promotion of change in New Zealand education, was felt for a number of years after its *Report* was published. Many of the Commission's theories and recommendations had a marked influence on the educational thinking and planning which characterised the 1970's. The *Report* also gave "a valuable summary of the leading tendencies in New Zealand education in

the early 60's and their relevant background".¹⁵⁷ For this reason, it remains a most useful and informative reference work for the educational historian.¹⁵⁸

GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

Although the continuing shortage of teachers throughout the 60's made considerable demands on both the ingenuity and the resources of the Government, other educational needs which arose during that period were not neglected. Prompted, to some extent, by the deliberations and recommendations of the Currie Commission, the Government introduced a good deal of legislation to do with education, it pursued and completed its programme of decentralising the administration of education, and it extended its policy of consulting widely on educational issues by establishing a number of consultative bodies. It also undertook increased and additional financial commitments in several educational areas, expanded the vocational guidance and counselling services available in the secondary schools, continued to promote the educational arm of its external aid programme, and took some tentative steps into the realm of educational technology.

Legislation

Overshadowing all the other educational legislation of the 60's, the Education Act 1964 represented "the first complete consolidation of the law on education"¹⁵⁹ for fifty years. Since the primary intention of the Act was to clarify the law concerning education, and to enable "convenient reference"¹⁶⁰ to be made to its provisions, it contained little that was new, apart from some procedural measures; for example, the existing technical and combined schools were renamed secondary schools; boards of managers became boards of governors, and board regulations were transferred to the Secondary School Boards' Administration Regulations 1965; the term 'post-primary' was displaced

by 'secondary' in all contexts;¹⁶¹ and regulations governing teachers were re-enacted as the Education (Assessment, Classification, and Appointment) Regulations 1965.¹⁶² The reluctance of the Government to incorporate more of the Currie Commission's proposals in the new Education Act drew some criticism,¹⁶³ though the Director explained that "some of the more far-reaching recommendations of the Commission ... had not commanded a sufficient measure of agreement among the interested parties for legislation to be introduced".¹⁶⁴ However, the editor of the *Auckland Star* was not impressed. He held that the 1964 Act "... should give the lawmakers no cause to pause on the threshold of advance into new fields. The prospects opened up by the Currie Commission are still a long way from being fully realised".¹⁶⁵ When the Bill was first introduced into Parliament, the P.P.T.A. was incensed at some of its clauses, particularly those dealing with the disciplining of teachers. It made lengthy submissions to the Education Committee of the House, seeking substantial amendments to the Bill, and, in particular, urging the Government to withdraw the disciplinary provisions, which, in its view, placed "a reactionary emphasis on punitive and authoritarian action by Boards".¹⁶⁶ Some notice was taken of the teachers' objections to what the Association had dubbed "that insidious piece of legislation",¹⁶⁷ though it was not until the Secondary and Technical Institute Teachers' Disciplinary Regulations 1969¹⁶⁸ were approved that the discipline clauses affecting teachers first introduced in the Education Act 1964 were amended to the satisfaction of the P.P.T.A.¹⁶⁹ The Education Act 1964 finally came into force on 15 October, 1965.¹⁷⁰

Further legislative measures, some of them quite significant, were introduced in the 60's, largely by means of Amendment Acts. The

Universities Act 1961 provided for the setting up of a Universities Entrance Board "... to maintain a common educational standard for admission to the universities",¹⁷¹ thus spelling the end of moves such as that made in 1956 by Auckland University College, to lay down its own entrance regulations.¹⁷² The Education Amendment Act 1961 contained a number of clauses, the most important of which from the point of view of the post-primary schools were those dealing with the continued education of suspended pupils under fifteen years of age,¹⁷³ and the termination of the right of the Governor-General to make appointments to school boards.¹⁷⁴ In making provision for the establishing, control, and organisation of technical institutes, part I of the Education Amendment Act 1963 gave "statutory recognition to recent developments in senior technical education".¹⁷⁵ Part II of the same Act established the right of principals to attend all meetings of their school's governing body,¹⁷⁶ though they could still be required to withdraw when certain specified matters were being discussed.¹⁷⁷ The Education Amendment Act 1965 gave the Minister wider powers relating to the appointment and election of members of secondary school boards,¹⁷⁸ while the Education Amendment Act 1966 provided for the control of a secondary school to be transferred, in certain circumstances, from an education board to the governing body of another secondary school.¹⁷⁹ Teachers under suspension pending the hearing of a disciplinary charge made against them became entitled, in terms of the Education Amendment Act 1967, to be reinstated in their positions, and to receive full salary for the period of suspension, if the charges made against them were held to be not proved.¹⁸⁰ The Education Amendment Act 1968 empowered the Minister to determine and alter the constitution of secondary school boards of governors by notice in the *New Zealand Gazette*, instead of by order in council. A

further step in the Department's campaign to "... rehabilitate recalcitrant pupils without, at the same time, endangering the education and behaviour of other pupils"¹⁸¹ was embodied in the Education Amendment Act 1969.¹⁸² A clause in the Education Amendment Act 1970 extended to Polynesians of the South Pacific Islands who were New Zealand citizens or had lived in New Zealand for five years all provisions made in the principal Act for scholarships for Maori pupils and students.¹⁸³ Year by year throughout the decade, amendments, mainly changing the constitutions of governing bodies, were also made to the individual acts applying to a number of the older-established schools. Finally, the Government agreed, in 1970, to bring down regulations prescribing salaries and conditions of employment for the administrative staff of secondary school boards,¹⁸⁴ a group which, before that, had been almost entirely neglected.

Decentralisation of administration

Although a South Island group of inspectors had been domiciled in Christchurch since 1950, it was not until ten years later that the Government established a fully-staffed Southern Regional Office there, "... to enable expanding educational services to be more effectively administered ...".¹⁸⁵ The process of decentralisation, which had begun with the opening of the Northern Regional Office in 1948, was completed in June, 1963, when a Central Regional Office covering the districts of the Taranaki, Wanganui, Hawke's Bay, Wellington, and Nelson Education Boards was set up, with headquarters in Wellington. All three Regional Offices were "vested with a wide range of delegated powers", so that many fewer administrative and professional issues had

to be referred to Head Office.¹⁸⁶ The initial concern of some post-primary school boards that the severing of contact with Head Office would be to their disadvantage proved to be unfounded. Regional offices were more accessible, their staff soon developed a degree of local knowledge which a distant Head Office could never acquire, and the architectural, building, and equipment services, in particular, were generally able to respond more quickly to school requests than had been the case previously.

Curriculum Development Unit

As the Currie Commission had recommended, the Government set up a curriculum unit within the Department in 1963. That the Government attached considerable importance to this move can be seen in the appointment of "an officer of very senior status"¹⁸⁷ to head the new Unit, and the rapid expansion of the staff. Within a year, the Unit had ten officers, and could offer expertise and leadership in English, social studies, reading, mathematics, the sciences, foreign languages, school libraries, and audio-visual aids. All of the officers had responsibilities in both primary and post-primary curriculum areas.¹⁸⁸ A prime consideration in establishing the Unit had been the need to bridge "the long standing curriculum gap between primary and secondary schools",¹⁸⁹ which the Department recognised as "one of the crucial problems in education in New Zealand".¹⁹⁰ Accordingly, the Unit was charged with the planning and implementing of coordinated syllabuses covering forms 1-4, particularly in core subjects, such as science, social studies, and mathematics. Ewing believed that forging "vital educational links between the primary and secondary services" was more likely to come about "... internally, through curriculum development",

than through externally imposed administrative changes.¹⁹¹ The course of curriculum development in New Zealand secondary schools in the 60's, including the special attention given to the form 1-4 area, will be examined in some depth in chapter 14.

Consultative bodies

During the 60's, the Government, committed to a policy of consultation, set up a number of formal committees to advise it on issues in educational administration, policy making, and planning.

The Standing Committee on Administration (Post-primary), modelled on its primary counterpart, was established in 1963.¹⁹² The new Standing Committee, comprising representatives of the Secondary School Boards' Association, the Technical Education Association, and the Department, was to act "as a permanently constituted link between central and local authorities" in the administration of the schools.¹⁹³ In his Report for 1963, the Director noted that the Committee, in its first year of operation, was already giving attention to a wide range of topics, including post-primary school grants, supervision and control of school hostels, the 'two-year clause' governing teachers' appointments, truancy, the payment of teachers' salaries, and the maintenance of post-primary schools.¹⁹⁴

In 1968, the Government convened a National Development Conference to examine the nation's economic future. Recognising that education had a part to play in economic development, the Steering Committee of the Conference set up an Education, Training and Research Committee, whose discussions on education "tended to centre on the

economic benefits which would accrue from the extension of educational opportunities".¹⁹⁵ The Committee's Report, released in May, 1969, included sixty-two recommendations, many of which were concerned with such issues as Maori education, rural education, and, particularly, secondary school guidance and counselling services. On a number of matters, the Report simply endorsed the Currie Commission's recommendations. The P.P.T.A. considered that "the Committee has done some good work and provided many useful suggestions", though it was critical of the Committee's failure to recommend that the school leaving age be raised.¹⁹⁶

One direct result of the Education, Training and Research Committee's Report was the Government's decision, taken late in 1969, to establish an independent Advisory Council on Educational Planning of nine members. The Council's task was "to consider or advise on matters referred to it by the Minister of Education, the Director-General of Education, or the National Development Conference".¹⁹⁷ Offering advice on priorities in educational development¹⁹⁸ would be high on the Council's agenda. The Council played a prominent part in the 1973-74 Educational Development Conference, which had a marked impact on secondary education.

Increased and additional financial commitments

From time to time, in the 60's, the Government increased the grants it made to secondary school pupils in the form of boarding allowances, bursaries for sixth-form study, and technical bursaries. Boarding allowances were raised from £30 to £50 a year in 1962;¹⁹⁹ they were further increased in 1965;²⁰⁰ and, by 1969, they had reached

\$130 a year.²⁰¹ In 1962, the boarding allowance payable to pupils who had to live away from home to take a secondary school course containing two foreign languages was replaced by a "more broadly based" academic bursary covering a course leading to School Certificate which contained three of the following subjects: a foreign language, mathematics, general science, a second foreign language, and (from 1970) Maori.²⁰² Up to four hundred academic bursaries, tenable for a maximum of three years, were awarded annually. The value of the secondary school, technical, and academic bursaries was increased from £40 to £50 a year in 1962.²⁰³ Further increases followed in 1965 and 1969, to keep the bursary payments in line with the boarding allowances. These awards were much sought after; in 1968, over 4,200 pupils were receiving boarding allowances, while a further 1,600 held bursaries.^{204, 205}

In 1966, the Government agreed to fund the employment in secondary schools of ancillary staff to undertake certain non-professional tasks previously carried out by teachers. The scheme was a flexible one, allowing schools to decide for themselves how they would use their weekly allocation of ancillary staffing hours. Many schools used the allocation to employ teacher aides, laboratory assistants, and school nurses. However, the whole purpose of the arrangements was defeated in a number of schools, where the principals, untrained in administration, and with little idea how to institute systems to regulate the demands on office services, simply used the allowances to increase the office staff.²⁰⁶ At first, schools with between 400 and 899 pupils could engage ancillary staff for fifteen hours a week for forty weeks of the year, while schools with rolls of 900 or more received a weekly allocation of twenty-five

hours.²⁰⁷ In 1968, the scheme was extended to provide for schools with fewer than 400 pupils, and to increase the allocation of hours for very large schools.²⁰⁸ The weekly entitlement of hours was further increased from 1969, so that, by 1970, the allocations ranged on a graduated scale from thirty hours a week for the smallest schools (400 or fewer pupils) to 120 hours for the largest (1,500 - 1,600 pupils).²⁰⁹ Naturally, the schools were pleased with these provisions, though, until the matter was put right, the smaller schools resented their omission from the scheme.

Another government initiative which involved an additional financial commitment was the steady improvement effected in secondary school staffing schedules in the late 60's. During 1968, the Government approved of a teacher-pupil ratio of 1:22.5 for sixth forms.²¹⁰ By the end of that year, agreement had been reached between the Government and the P.P.T.A. on a progressive reduction in teacher-pupil ratios, the ultimate objective of which was to have a maximum of twenty pupils in sixth-form classes, and not more than thirty pupils in any other class.²¹¹ From 1969, a sixth-form teacher-pupil ratio of 1:20 was approved by the Government. At the same time, staffing schedules in secondary schools with 40 per cent or more of Maori or Pacific Island pupils on their rolls were liberalised,²¹² and first-year teachers had their teaching load reduced to four-fifths of the normal programme.²¹³ The improvement in the sixth-form teacher-pupil ratio increased the schools' staffing entitlement at that level by 150 teachers in 1969.²¹⁴ The Department was aware that adding to the number of established positions could aggravate the problem of teacher supply, particularly in rural areas, but it hoped that the consequent improvement in conditions of service would promote teacher morale.

The P.P.T.A. agreed that the ratios aimed for would assist with the "recruitment of the uncommitted", and the "retention of those now dispirited by heavy work loads and over-large classes ...".²¹⁵ Increased government expenditure on teachers' salaries and allowances will be outlined in the next chapter. Table 43 sets out the amount spent by the Government on education in each year from 1960 to 1970, shown as a total and as a percentage of overall government expenditure. In the period from 1965 to 1971, the secondary sector accounted for almost a quarter of total government spending on education.²¹⁶

TABLE 43

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION, 1960-1970,
SHOWN AS A TOTAL, AND AS A PERCENTAGE
OF OVERALL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE

Year ending 31 March	Total expenditure on education *	As a percentage of overall government expenditure
1961	£ 43.8 m.	9.5
1962	47.2	9.7
1963	51.8	10.7
1964	57.2	10.6
1965	65.0	11.1
1966	70.8	11.1
1967	79.2	11.9
1968	\$174.6	12.7
1969	188.0	12.8
1970	209.1	12.9
1971	267.6	14.3

*Recoveries not taken into account

Source: E.1, 1971, p.73

State aid to private schools

The issue of state aid to non-state schools, described by one writer as "... for more than a hundred years an educational and political flashpoint",²¹⁷ remained to the fore in the 60's, though the "Catholic pressure groups adopted gentler tactics" than in the 50's, and "no major campaigns were mounted".²¹⁸ Catholic and Protestant school authorities seeking aid strengthened their hand considerably when they combined forces in 1962 to form an Interdenominational Committee of Independent Schools. The National Government was prepared to ignore the Currie Commission's recommendations. In 1962, it granted minor tax concessions to parents with children attending non-state schools. In the following year, it made additional aid available to private schools, including per capita grants for classroom materials, equipment, and library books, as well as contributions towards day-to-day running costs. New and expanding private schools also received setting-up grants for furniture and basic equipment.²¹⁹ Major supplementary grants were made in 1966 and 1968.²²⁰ The approach of the 1969 election saw a quickening of interest in the state aid question, with the omens seeming to favour the petitioners. In May, 1969, the Minister of Finance, R.D. Muldoon, stated publicly that he considered private schools to be an "indispensable supplement to the state system of education" in that they "have the opportunity to provide that diversity of activity which can produce the independence of mind so vital to a healthy community".²²¹ Soon after the election, a special government committee was set up to study the whole question of state aid to private schools. Late in 1970, the Government announced that, effective from 1 February, 1970, grants would be made on a per capita

basis towards the cost of private school teachers' salaries - a major breakthrough for the independent schools' lobby. The grant for 1970 would amount to 20 per cent of state school teachers' salaries, and it would rise over a seven-year period to a maximum of 35 per cent of those salaries. Percentage rebates to the grant would be applied in the cases of those private schools which paid salaries higher than state school rates, or which had a better teacher-pupil ratio than equivalent state schools.²²² The new grants,²²³ estimated to cost the Government £2.5 m. in 1970, were in addition to the annual grants already made to the private schools towards running expenses, administration, equipment, and maintenance. The P.P.T.A., which had assiduously opposed the granting of any additional aid to private schools, roundly condemned the Government's action, describing it as totally unjustified, and "an educationally and socially backward step".²²⁴ For many private schools, some of which (Protestant as well as Catholic) were in a perilous position financially by the end of the 60's, the extra aid served, at best, as a temporary reprieve. It was certainly not, as the Minister of Education had intended it would be, "a final solution".²²⁵

Vocational guidance services

In the early 1960's, vocational guidance services in post-primary schools were still in their infancy, with only four teachers (two counsellors and two visiting teachers) engaged in this field. Admittedly, the number of careers advisers was increasing rapidly - there were more than 260 of them at work in the schools by 1963 - but their turnover rate was so high that the Department had difficulty providing sufficient training courses for the steady flow of new

appointees.²²⁶ Also, because their effectiveness was severely limited by the definition of their role (they were concerned almost entirely with supplying pupils with factual information about possible careers), Winterbourn maintained that they constituted "the weakest link" in the guidance services then in place.²²⁷ The Currie Commission saw the need for "more extensive counselling work" in certain types of large schools - multilateral schools in new areas, technical colleges, and schools with a high percentage of Maori pupils.²²⁸ There was also a growing awareness in the schools themselves of the need for a wider outlook in guidance matters. As one of the two serving guidance counsellors in 1963 put it: "Today, ... the emphasis is upon the young person, who is now regarded not only as a prospective entrant into the world of work, but as a 'whole person', culturally, socially, politically, emotionally"²²⁹ The Department shared this view, but it also appreciated that the recruitment and training of suitable people to serve as full-time guidance counsellors in the post-primary schools would be fraught with difficulty. Nevertheless, it continued, albeit cautiously, to approve of the appointment of guidance counsellors in selected schools, "mainly in areas where there [were] special problems beyond the scope of a school's normal staffing".²³⁰ By 1966, in which year twelve more guidance counsellor appointments were approved, there were twenty-three established positions at P.R. level, while a further six schools had appointed counsellors from their own P.R. entitlements.²³¹ A development of major significance occurred in 1968, when the Government announced that ten guidance counsellors would be appointed each year from 1969 to 1973. The appointees would receive a six-weeks' course of training before taking up their positions.²³² This announcement was accompanied by a policy statement, which indicated

that the decision "... marked the acceptance of a guidance and counselling service as a developing part of the New Zealand pattern of secondary education".²³³ A further indication that guidance had finally become "a distinct educational enterprise"²³⁴ was the convening of a national course at Lopdell House in July, 1968 to make "a very careful and thorough evaluation ... of the achievements and short-comings of guidance counselling in New Zealand secondary schools so far".²³⁵ By 1970, there were forty-five officially appointed guidance counsellors²³⁶ at work in the schools; the scene was set for the very considerable expansion of guidance and counselling services which took place in the 70's.²³⁷

Colombo Plan and UNESCO commitments

Throughout the 60's, the Government continued to support the Colombo Plan Technical Cooperation Scheme, the Mutual Aid Programme of the Commonwealth Education Scheme, and various UNESCO projects, as part of its programme of external aid. Under the Colombo Plan, New Zealand teachers, many of them from secondary schools, accepted assignments in schools and teachers' colleges in Indonesia, Sarawak, Thailand, Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, Sabah, Malaysia, the Congo, and the Philippines. In 1966, there were fifty New Zealand educationists working overseas under Colombo Plan and UNESCO auspices in such fields as teacher training, curriculum development, school inspection, technical education, and the teaching of English as a second language.²³⁸ In addition, large numbers of trainees from overseas countries²³⁹ were provided with tuition in New Zealand secondary schools and tertiary institutions.

Committee of Enquiry into the Uses of Television in Education

In October, 1970, the Government set up a committee of eight people to enquire into the potential uses of television in education. The terms of reference of the committee included the following: to consider the educational value of various audio-visual media, with special reference to television; to consider uses of television within the education system at all levels ...; to advise on the uses of open and closed circuit television in education; to recommend guidelines and priorities for the development of educational television; and to make recommendations on the planning, control, and financing of educational television services.²⁴⁰ The establishing of this committee was long overdue. The first television channel in New Zealand had been set up in 1960; the Currie Commission had called for high priority to be given to experimental work on the use of television in schools;²⁴¹ in 1962, the Department of Education and the New Zealand Broadcasting Corporation had appointed a joint committee 'to control the orderly development of educational television in schools', without any apparent result; one secondary school had established its own television circuit as early as 1965;²⁴² the New Zealand Educational Institute's curriculum committee on audio-visual aids had produced a booklet, *Education and Television*, in 1968;²⁴³ and the P.P.T.A.'s audio-visual panel had sent a questionnaire to forty schools in 1969, which had revealed that educational television had wide general appeal, with some of the larger schools showing particular interest in closed circuit television.²⁴⁴ The editor of the *Waikato Times* described the setting up of the committee as "an important step forward for our system of education", even though the absence of earlier "attempts to initiate educational programmes

[could] only be regarded as a scandalous waste of opportunity".²⁴⁵ The committee's report, which was made public in July, 1972, as well as other reports detailing the extensive use already being made of educational television in the United Kingdom,²⁴⁶ stimulated further interest in potential uses of the medium in New Zealand secondary schools. By the mid-70's, at least one pilot scheme was on the air.²⁴⁷

STAFFING THE SCHOOLSCauses and extent of the shortage of teachers

The 60's began on a note of pessimism as far as the staffing of the country's 150 post-primary schools and 96 secondary departments of district high schools was concerned. The White Paper of August, 1959, giving school roll number projections for the period 1959 to 1972, forecast that, over those years, there would be enormous increases in the number of teachers required. The 4,770 post-primary teachers needed in 1959 would soar to 8,060 by 1972, even if there were no improvements at all in the staffing ratios.¹ In 1959, the number of permanent, fully-qualified post-primary teachers in service was 576 below entitlement; Beeby had predicted that the shortage could reach 800 in 1960, and 1,000 by 1962.² The Department's submission to the Currie Commission made a similar prediction,³ concluding that "... the years 1960-63 represent the period of greatest difficulty, with 1961 the critical year".⁴ The number of positions unfilled in 1961 (122) was, in fact, the highest recorded in the decade.⁵ Even though the actual shortfall in 1960 and 1961 was about two hundred below the predicted figures, the early 60's were, nevertheless, a time when "the staffing problems of the schools appeared insoluble ...".⁶ The basic causes of the shortage of secondary teachers at this time were, first and foremost, the relentless rises in school rolls (from just on 100,000 in 1960 to over 158,000 by 1970), the failure of various recruitment programmes to do more than keep pace with the increased number of positions to be filled,⁷ and the steady drain of teachers to

industry and commerce, and to domestic duties, as well as to other branches of the education and related services.⁸

In 1960, the Currie Commission had spoken of "an undeniable crisis in post-primary staffing";⁹ except for a brief reprieve in 1964-65, the situation remained critical throughout the decade. For the most part, the Minister and the Department acknowledged that the shortage was real, though they tried to play down its extent; on occasion, their confidence that the difficulties were about to ease betrayed an inadequate analysis of the facts. In his Report for 1961, the Minister acknowledged public concern over "the major problem of shortages of qualified teaching staff",¹⁰ while the Director noted that there was little significant change in the staffing situation during 1961.¹¹ However, by the next year, on the strength of a 7 per cent drop in the number of unfilled positions (there were still 113 of them), and a boost in the overseas recruitment figures (table 44), the Minister was claiming that "we have surely weathered the worst of the storm",¹² and the Director considered that "... the outlook for post-primary staffing ... appears to be distinctly brighter".¹³ The occasional school did report that it was opening with a full staff in 1964 (for the first time in years),¹⁴ but this did not mean that the school had a full complement of trained and permanent teachers. In that year, there were nearly five hundred 'relief' teachers employed in New Zealand's post-primary schools, about half of them superannuitants who had forgone their retirement.¹⁵ There were also eighty-six teaching positions completely unfilled. The Director acknowledged that "... recruitment and training of well-qualified teachers for the rising secondary school rolls, and particularly for the growth in the senior forms, remain matters of urgent and serious

TABLE 44

SECONDARY SCHOOL STAFFING AND RECRUITMENT STATISTICS, 1960-1970

STAFFING					RECRUITMENT		
	Pupils in state post-primary schools	Total staffing entitlement	'Relief' teachers employed	Actual vacancies (1 Sept.)	Post-primary teacher studentships taken up	Post-primary teacher bursaries taken up	Teachers recruited from from overseas (mainly U.K.)
1960	99,913	5,300	600	110	589	36	90
1961	110,163	5,511	532	122	557 (quota : 650)	30 (quota : 50)	113
1962	119,028	5,928	477	113	557	39	210
1963	125,460	6,246	480 (est.)	96	591	43	73
1964	129,202	6,411	484	86	646	48	no scheme
1965	132,560	6,653	375*	74	675	48	122
1966	136,553	6,886	533	79	547	40	134
1967	142,302	7,153	519	61	525 (quota : 750)	44	108
1968	152,902	7,620	654	71	645	27	no scheme
1969	156,391	8,129	705	80	600	28	159
1970	158,302	8,605	661	(1 March) 151	687	17	232

* full-time only

Source: E.1. Reports

concern".¹⁶ By 1966, the short respite was over; secondary teacher studentship numbers, down by 128 on the previous year, were more than two hundred short of the Government's quota. The all-too familiar phrases began to re-appear in the Director-General's Annual Reports: "In New Zealand, as in most parts of the world, the shortage of secondary teachers continues, particularly in mathematics and science ...;"¹⁷ "... the problems of staffing secondary schools ... continue;"¹⁸ "... there is still a shortage of well-qualified teachers of mathematics, science, and English."¹⁹ In November, 1966, H.W. Sayers, the Regional Superintendent of Education, Wellington, was reported as saying: "The teacher shortage is the most pressing problem in the Department The Department, the Director-General, and the Minister are all worried."²⁰ In the same year, the associate principal of Christchurch Teachers' College, commenting on the College's 'pool scheme' (to assist students unplaced by 18 October to obtain appointments), said :

The desperate nature of the shortage of teaching staff which exists in most areas was emphasised very forcibly indeed by the flood of enquiries from schools. It is regretted that so little could ... be done to assist principals to cope with the glut of vacancies on their hands.²¹

Each year, from 1967 to 1969 the position steadily worsened; vacancy lists grew larger, as did the cohort of 'relief' teachers, of whom there were more than seven hundred employed in 1969.²²

Throughout the decade, retaining existing teachers proved to be almost as difficult as recruiting new ones. Dissatisfaction with the salaries they received, resentment that over-large classes persisted, and impatience with the lack of progress in improving conditions of

service all contributed to the appreciable loss of teachers which took place in the 60's. A survey carried out by the Auckland region of the P.P.T.A. in 1970 revealed that the thirty-two secondary schools in the area had lost 276 teachers in the previous year, about one in five of the total teaching body. Of these, 130 had left teaching altogether.²³ Another survey, covering the whole country, disclosed that, over a twelve-month period in the late 60's, 14.2 per cent of the permanent teaching force gave up teaching. More than three-quarters of these people were fully qualified, and a disturbing 61 per cent were in their first five years of teaching.²⁴

Although the shortage of teachers affected every secondary school in the country to some extent, it was felt more severely in some areas than in others. An article published in the *P.P.T.A. Journal* in October, 1964, giving details of an analysis of the staffing position in secondary schools with special reference to the spread of the shortage of teachers, indicated that South Island schools were less acutely affected than those in the North Island.²⁵ The Director-General, in his Report for 1966, cited South Auckland as the region where the dearth of secondary teachers was most extensive.²⁶ For the most part, however, when it came to attracting staff, rural schools were much less favourably placed than those in towns and cities. The principal of Thames High School had eight applicants for three positions in October, 1963. He reported that an Auckland colleague had told him that he had had eighty-five applicants for four positions.²⁷ In the 60's, when the output of trainees from Division C each year met only part of the demand for teachers, very few of the newly-certificated teachers accepted positions in country schools. Between 1964 and 1970, Cambridge High School attracted only one such

teacher.²⁸ All of the other vacancies for assistant teachers at Cambridge, as at other rural schools, had to be filled by the principal scouring the district in an effort to enlist the services of people (mainly married women) who were in any way qualified to help out. If the current P.P.T.A. embargo on its members working alongside untrained teachers had been in force in the 60's, many a country school could not possibly have carried on. The unevenness of the spread of the teacher shortage also applied to subjects. In addition to the chronic shortage of qualified teachers of mathematics and science, a serious under-supply of English teachers was evident by the mid-60's. In 1966, there were 155 unfilled or inadequately-filled English positions in secondary schools, compared with 153 such positions in mathematics, and 170 in science.²⁹ The Director-General admitted, in his 1966 Report, that these three subjects were in short supply, adding, rather blandly, "and schools cannot get all the specialists they would like in music, arts and crafts, and physical education".³⁰

Staffing difficulties experienced in the 60's were a major and ongoing theme in almost all of the school histories published to date. Southland Girls' High School found, at the time, that "... the problems of gaining and retaining adequate teachers remained constant and serious". In 1964, the School had eighteen permanent and thirteen relieving teachers; in December, there were vacancies for six permanent, experienced teachers, "and there was little hope of their being filled"; throughout the third term, staffing problems "... haunted the School". In the following year, the staffing position at the School was described as seemingly "incurable", provoking the acting principal to state in her Annual Report: "... it is wholly

irritating that our girls must suffer so badly because they live in the wrong place". Between 1966 and 1970, "the rapid growth of the roll ... strained the staffing resources to the very limit"; it was almost impossible to find replacement teachers, and "... the many new positions being created by increasing numbers of pupils were little more [sic] than a nightmare". In February, 1970, the School, with an entitlement of 38.6 teachers, had 28 full-time, permanent teachers and 16 relieving part-time teachers doing the work of approximately 7.6 full-time teachers. Southland Girls' began that year three whole teachers short.³¹ This record of "the agonies and uncertainties of staffing a secondary school ... in the late 60's and early 70's"³² revealed a situation that was more desperate than that obtaining at some schools, but by no means atypical. Thames High School began 1960 with two staff vacancies unfilled;³³ Rangiora High School lost nine teachers at the end of 1965, only seven of whom could be replaced (a situation described by the School's chronicler as "not out of the ordinary");³⁴ the principal of Napier Girls' High School in the 60's recalled the problem of finding staff as "... the great nightmare of secondary school principals at this time";³⁵ Napier Boys' High School began 1964 four teachers short;³⁶ while the headmaster of Rongotai College stated, in 1968: -

The plain, brutal fact remains that there is a terrible and deepening shortage of qualified, experienced, and dedicated teachers No school can remain efficient ... while it carries vacancies [of] between two and six full-time teachers. We are not facing a crisis. It is here!³⁷

In 1970, the Minister announced that, as from 1 February, 1971, secondary teachers would receive quite substantial salary increases.³⁸ The revaluation would add over \$1,000 a year to the salaries of many

graduate teachers.³⁹ This move had an immediate effect on retention rates (and, in the long term, on recruitment), so that most schools were experiencing fewer staffing problems by the early 70's. The shortage of teachers of mathematics and science, however, persisted. In 1971, East Otago High School had five classes enrolled with the Correspondence School for these two subjects, while Hawera High School had two hundred fifth-form pupils studying mathematics by correspondence.⁴⁰ In the same year, only two of the thirteen science classes in the junior school at Hamilton Girls' High School were being taught by qualified science teachers; not one of the School's five fourth-form classes taking science as part of their academic course had a teacher with a degree in science.⁴¹

Consequences of the shortage of teachers

The staffing difficulties experienced in the 60's were as much a matter of teacher quality as of teacher numbers. The Commission on Education was emphatic that recruitment to the teaching profession was "by no means a matter solely of attracting young men and women in large numbers"; the "imperative need" was for "men and women of the highest professional competence".⁴² The Commission called not only for an increased proportion of graduates but also for an increased proportion of honours graduates in the secondary service.⁴³ The Committee on New Zealand Universities⁴⁴ considered that a minimum of 75 per cent of post-primary teachers should have university degrees.⁴⁵ The P.P.T.A. also stressed the need for post-primary teachers to be well qualified professionally and academically. In the early 60's, its official policy advocated at least an 80 per cent graduate profession.⁴⁶ The teacher shortage completely shattered these ideals.

Faced with the dilemma of offering teaching positions to people who were inadequately qualified, or not having enough teachers to cover all classes, principals usually chose the former alternative. As a result, a steady watering down of the professional standards of secondary teachers had taken place during the 50's. In the 60's, this dilution of teacher quality continued and worsened. The Currie Commission, in its interim report on post-primary staffing and recruitment (1960), revealed that, in 1959, only 53.9 per cent of post-primary teachers were graduates, while a further 5 per cent held diplomas.⁴⁷ Figures taken out on 1 March, 1962 showed that the percentage of graduates in the post-primary teaching force had improved slightly to 56.9 (67 including diploma holders).⁴⁸ However, by the following year, the percentage had dropped to 56.4, provoking the president of the P.P.T.A. to declare that "... the quality of staff in many of our schools is quite inadequate".⁴⁹

The decline in teacher standards was most noticeable in the subject areas experiencing the greatest shortage - mathematics and science. In his Report for 1962, the Director admitted that insufficient young people were coming forward to train as teachers of mathematics and science, and that the continued efforts of the Department to attract more students into these fields had had only limited success. He went on, somewhat ominously: "For some time ... there will have to be a greater degree of reliance on the products of the non-graduate mathematics and science courses in the teachers' colleges, and on the in-service training of teachers with limited background in these fields."⁵⁰ In 1963, there were 344 teaching positions in state post-primary schools in mathematics and science which were either unfilled or filled by poorly-qualified teachers.⁵¹

Three years later, the corresponding figure (323) was hardly less disturbing.⁵² A study on the staffing of secondary school science departments carried out in 1965 indicated that one teacher in eight teaching science in a coeducational state school had no other qualifications in science than his own secondary school education. In district high schools, the proportion was almost one in three. At sixth-form level, 15 per cent of the chemistry teachers and nearly 19 per cent of the physics teachers had stage I as their highest qualification in that subject. This study also revealed that the percentage of students with degrees in science passing out of New Zealand post-primary teachers' colleges fell from 20.3 in 1954 to 15.8 in 1964. The researcher concluded that, "... in a decade with rising demands on well-qualified staff and, in particular, staff academically and appropriately qualified in the sciences, there has [been] no overall keeping pace but a gradual falling behind".⁵³ As indicated earlier in this study,⁵⁴ the position in regard to secondary school teachers of mathematics was no better, with Bull's survey establishing that only about one-quarter of the pupils entering a third form were being taught by a teacher who had taken five units of mathematics in a bachelor's degree, or had some higher qualification.⁵⁵ The steady deterioration in the academic standards of secondary teachers in the 60's was highlighted in 1966 by a P.P.T.A. survey, which showed that one class in every seven had either no teacher at all, or else one who was inadequately qualified.⁵⁶ Another disquieting statistic which came out of the Department's annual staffing survey was the number of permanent teachers considered by their principals to be under-qualified for the teaching tasks they were required to undertake. In 1966, 5.1 per cent of permanently-appointed teachers fell into this category; in the following year, the percentage had risen to 6.6.

Subsequently, the position improved slightly, but 270 teachers (3.8 per cent of the regular teaching force) were still classified by their principals as inadequately qualified in 1969. It is not difficult to see how such a situation could develop when one takes into account that, in 1967, 21.3 per cent of permanent secondary teachers had either A1⁵⁷ or no qualifications.⁵⁸ It can only be described as a tragedy that this decline in teacher quality should have occurred at all, let alone at a time when developments in curricula, advances in teaching methods, changing attitudes on the part of pupils and society, and a widening range of pupil abilities and interests were making more demands than ever before on the professional competence of secondary teachers.

In the eleven years from 1960 to 1970, seventy-one new secondary schools were established, resulting in considerable teacher movement. At the same time, hundreds of teachers each year left their schools because they were retiring, going overseas, taking up domestic duties, or moving to other employment. At Auckland Grammar School, in 1966, one-fifth of the staff were replaced;⁵⁹ other schools experienced even more changes, an annual turnover of up to twenty teachers being not at all uncommon in the larger schools.⁶⁰ In 1969, Rongotai College lost eighteen full-time teachers, or 46 per cent of its total staff.⁶¹ This constant movement produced a high degree of staff instability, which added to the problems already created by the teacher shortage. Permanent replacements for teachers who resigned during the school year could rarely be obtained at once, so that schools became accustomed to "sudden gaps [appearing] in the ranks of the staff"⁶² - gaps which could be plugged only by engaging a succession of relieving teachers. This led to one of the most

worrying aspects of the teacher shortage, frequent changes of teachers in the course of the year for many classes.⁶³ The headmistress of Christchurch Girls' High School declared, in 1967: "... we have lived so long with a staffing crisis that we have come to accept it", but she herself was "not at all reconciled to girls having to accept five or six teachers in one subject during the year".⁶⁴ As the Director-General acknowledged, the constant changes of staff which almost all schools experienced in the 60's brought about disruption of class work, and confronted principals with very awkward problems of timetable organisation.⁶⁵

Such problems were but one instance of the additional pressures imposed on principals by the acute shortage of teachers. In the 60's, principals had to learn to live with the "fear of having classes and nobody to teach them".⁶⁶ The role of rural school principals as employment officers has already been described. In urban areas, principals spent much of their time "... competing with other schools for any available teacher in the city who was prepared to [put in] even a few hours in front of a class".⁶⁷ This responsibility often encroached on the weekends, and it was no respecter of official holiday periods. In term time, many principals added to their burdens by taking classes. Some country principals, in the 60's, even in quite large schools, spent up to half the working day in the classroom rather than see option choices restricted or classes put on Correspondence lessons. The P.P.T.A. believed that the workload of principals at the time was sufficiently heavy to act as a disincentive to recruitment. The editorial in the *P.P.T.A. Journal* of September, 1968 spoke of "the crisis in secondary schooling", and referred to

... youngish principals in the prime of life with many years of service ahead [who] are known to be seeking positions elsewhere, and, even more significant, well-qualified teachers who are well in the running for principalships [and who] are not even bothering to apply.

Women were particularly reluctant (some would say 'too sensible') to apply for the top positions in secondary schools,⁶⁸ as the repeated advertisements for senior assistant mistresses appearing in the *Education Gazettes* of the 60's demonstrated. Of the twenty positions of responsibility for assistant mistresses advertised in the *Education Gazette* of 1 April, 1960 eleven were for senior assistant mistresses, eight of them in country service schools.⁶⁹ In the *Education Gazette* of 15 June, 1965, all six PR positions advertised for assistant mistresses were for the position of senior assistant mistress. A 1966 P.P.T.A. survey revealed that several schools had had no senior assistant mistress for periods of from two to seven years.⁷⁰ Some schools also experienced extreme difficulty in filling positions of responsibility. At 1 March, 1966, about two hundred designated posts of responsibility in secondary schools were unfilled.⁷¹ The P.P.T.A. survey referred to above disclosed a desperate situation regarding PR's in a number of schools. One school reported that five of its eight PR's were unfilled; another had seven of its twelve positions unfilled; a third had four of its nine positions unfilled. One of the worst hit schools had had no head of English for ten years.⁷² Observations in school histories emphasised the intractable nature of this problem. In her 1960 Report, the principal of Waitaki Girls' High School lamented that "PR's in a variety of subjects have been advertised for years without eliciting any response from qualified teachers with any experience of teaching girls".⁷³ The shortage of post-primary teachers also "brought onerous conditions for those in

the service, and ... imposed obvious strains".⁷⁴ It was staff holding permanent appointments, especially the more senior among them, who were constantly "... called upon to fit in relieving and part-time teachers who were ill-equipped in the subjects they were required to teach, and needed considerable help and support".⁷⁵ The very small contribution part-time teachers made to the life of the school outside the classroom also added to the load of the full-time teachers, who had to assume correspondingly more supervision, form teacher, and extra-curricular responsibilities. There can be no doubt that the teacher shortage also had a negative effect on recruitment to the profession in the 60's. Many senior pupils, perceptive enough to appreciate the tensions produced by large classes, inadequate salaries, and poor conditions of service, opted for more satisfying, better rewarded, and (often) less stressful occupations. Finally, the dearth of teachers which characterised the period inevitably created difficulties for any development requiring additional staff. With this in mind, it is not surprising that the provision of counselling services in schools, and the extension of special education facilities got away to such a slow start in the early 60's.⁷⁶

Measures taken to deal with the teacher shortage,
and their effectiveness

Faced with an acute shortage of teachers, the Government could resort to a number of different strategies. It could take steps to make post-primary teaching a more attractive profession, thus lifting recruitment and retention rates; prevail upon uncommitted graduates to become teachers; bring in teachers from other countries;⁷⁷ expand the mobile reserve of teachers; use the country service regulations to

increase the flow of teachers to schools experiencing special difficulties;⁷⁸ make it worthwhile for former teachers to return to the classroom, and for appropriately-qualified primary teachers to transfer to the post-primary service; divert graduates from industry and from other government departments to fill vacancies on a temporary basis; and even pass legislation authorising the posting of teachers to specific schools. At various times in the 60's, the Government either followed or at least considered all of these lines of action. The possibility of temporarily diverting graduates from industry into vacant mathematics and science positions was mooted by the Director-General in 1970, but was not followed up. The P.P.T.A. would certainly have been opposed to bringing "untrained non-teachers" into classrooms.⁷⁹ Since a compulsory placement scheme⁸⁰ would have been equally unacceptable to post-primary teachers, the Government was wise not to pursue this proposal. Various measures were adopted by the Government in the 60's to increase the appeal of post-primary teaching as a career. Most of these moves involved improvements in teachers' conditions of service; they will be discussed in the next section of this chapter. Government actions in this connection also included steadily increasing the value of the post-primary teacher studentships.⁸¹

Direct recruitment, both within New Zealand and overseas, was the main plank in the Government's campaign to overcome the teacher shortage. As part of its strategy to induce more young New Zealanders to enter teaching, the Government approved, in 1961, the appointment of a personnel and recruitment officer to each of the Auckland, South Auckland, and Wellington Education Boards.⁸² Three years later, a recruitment officer was added to the Department's Head Office staff.⁸³

At the same time, the Department conducted an ongoing publicity programme "to attract suitable persons to participate in [teacher] training schemes".⁸⁴ A new tactic was adopted towards the end of the decade, with the Government employing a small team of seconded secondary teachers as temporary recruitment officers. They travelled around the secondary schools promoting teaching as a career, and answering pupils' questions about what the profession had to offer. By 1971, this team numbered ten teachers.⁸⁵ The Government also instituted short refresher courses for former post-primary teachers who "may be willing to assist during the present difficult staffing period".⁸⁶ A scheme to use the third-year course at Dunedin Teachers' College to train teachers of physical education for post-primary schools, "where the shortage is serious", began in 1960.⁸⁷ From 1963, experienced, qualified⁸⁸ private music teachers were accepted into Division C in an effort to overcome the shortage of trained music teachers in the post-primary schools.⁸⁹

The Government's overseas recruitment campaign proved to be "the major element in reducing the staff shortage".⁹⁰ The first contingent of teachers from the United Kingdom arrived in New Zealand by chartered plane in September, 1960. Thereafter, except for brief periods (1964 and 1968) when no recruitment scheme was operating, a steady stream of teachers from overseas (principally from the United Kingdom, though some came from the United States, and a few from other countries) took up appointments in New Zealand post-primary schools (table 44). Between 1960 and 1969, approximately one thousand secondary teachers were recruited from overseas;⁹¹ in the first five years of the 70's, nearly six hundred more teachers came to New Zealand from Britain.^{92, 93} Since most of these teachers were

graduates, and many of them were experienced teachers of mathematics and science, their coming did a great deal to lessen the worst effects of the teacher shortage. Some schools, situated, for the most part, well away from the main centres, relied heavily on overseas teachers in the 60's to keep their staffs up to full strength. In addition to working through the government recruitment schemes, some principals built up their own contacts in Britain,⁹⁴ enabling them to fill gaps on their staffs as they arose.⁹⁵ Almost without exception, the various school histories spoke in appreciative terms of the teachers engaged from overseas, describing them as "most welcome", and making it clear that they could not have managed without them: "In the long period of staffing shortages, the School was fortunate to receive an effective infusion of new teachers recruited from Great Britain."⁹⁶ Many of these teachers returned home after completing their contracts; however, the Napier Boys' High School chronicler was not the only one to comment that "... several remained to make a very valuable, long-term contribution".⁹⁷

In addition to the measures taken by the Government in the 60's to plug the gaps in the ranks of the secondary teachers, the schools could (and did) adopt expedients of their own to meet the critical staffing situation. They could delete from their programmes a subject or subjects which they had no staff to teach (small schools, particularly district high schools, often had to take this action); restrict pupil access to such subjects (New Plymouth Girls' High School, the largest girls' secondary school in New Zealand in 1964, with a roll of 1,160, had only two mathematics classes in the upper school in the 60's);⁹⁸ make existing classes larger, or even amalgamate classes; send pupils to other schools for some classes

(some sixth-form pupils from Waitaki Girls' High School were going to the Boys' High School in 1969 for physics, bookkeeping, art, and mathematics);⁹⁹ teach classes in shifts, with some having lessons out of school hours; enrol with the Correspondence School classes for which there was no teacher; give such classes study periods, or even send them home;¹⁰⁰ persuade retired teachers to return to the classroom; engage more married women and part-time staff (in 1961, 48 per cent of the permanent teachers at Otago Girls' High School were married, and there were five part-timers; in 1970, 70 per cent of the permanent staff were married, and there were twelve part-timers);^{101, 102} in the case of the single-sex schools, abandon sexual prejudices, and appoint teachers of the opposite sex (the number of men on the staffs of girls' schools increased markedly in the 60's, while Hamilton Boys' High School received "valued assistance" from women teachers, "whose service in a part-time or full-time capacity [was] often of considerable length");¹⁰³ deflect existing staff members from subjects of little demand to those areas short of teachers ("... the good-natured Latin teacher helping out with core mathematics");¹⁰⁴ and offer inducements to teachers to come to a particular school (in 1970, Rongotai College was offering suitably-qualified teachers housing loans of up to \$3,000 on second mortgage at 1 per cent interest).^{105, 106}

Public and P.P.T.A. reaction to the teacher shortage

Although thousands of post-primary pupils were adversely affected in the 60's by the shortage of teachers, there was surprisingly little public reaction to the situation. By the end of the decade, however, it was becoming evident that the patience of the public was running

out. Early in 1970, parents at Wainuiomata College (Wellington) took protest action when three examination classes had to be put on correspondence because of unfilled vacancies on the College staff. There was a public meeting, following by a meeting between a deputation of parents and the Minister. In spite of the Minister's contention that there was no short-term solution for the staff shortage at Wainuiomata College, the organisers believed that their protest had achieved something "in terms of heightening awareness of the crisis in [the] schools". An interesting aspect of the Wainuiomata protest was the use made of the media to publicise the College's staffing difficulties. The story, presented as "an example of a community incensed by injustice and Government inaction", received good coverage on television and radio, thus widening considerably the impact of the parents' actions.¹⁰⁷ Another incident, in February, 1970, involving Opotiki College, indicated that the general public were becoming more concerned over the difficulties created in the schools by the teacher shortage. Opotiki College was understaffed by two teachers at the beginning of the school year, with the result that most classes had to have at least one study period a day. In the case of two classes, the principal arranged for all seven of their weekly study periods to fall on one day; he then told the pupils concerned to study at home on that day. A parent complained to the Minister about this 'roster system', asking whether parents would be "prosecuted when prevented from sending [their] children to school by [the] local headmaster".¹⁰⁸ Once again, both radio and television reported the events at Opotiki College, creating, at the time, a great deal of public interest in the way the principal was facing up to the shortage of teachers at his school. It is significant that the College staff, the College's Board of Governors and Home and School

Association, and the local county council all supported the stand the principal had taken. In the event, the College was able to engage one replacement teacher, enabling the principal to cover all classes, even though his school was still 1.4 teachers below its entitlement.

Throughout the 60's, the P.P.T.A. was particularly active in promoting public awareness of the extent and likely outcomes of the teacher shortage. The Association's 1961 annual conference unanimously approved the mounting of "a vigorous publicity campaign ... to inform the people of New Zealand of the serious shortage of qualified staffing and its dangerous consequences to standards of education and to the future status of the post-primary profession".¹⁰⁹ Five years later, the annual conference resolved, by a very large majority, to

... ask the Minister of Education to set up a special and independent committee to determine the nature and extent of the present grave situation in secondary schools, and to recommend ways of attracting sufficient well-qualified teachers to overcome this chronic shortage, and that the committee make its report public by the end of this year.¹¹⁰

To further highlight the teacher shortage, the Association, in November, 1967, published a booklet, *Lost Opportunities*, which gave "a detailed, district by district picture of the [existing] situation and the steady deterioration leading to it".¹¹¹ The booklet was favourably received by the press.

The P.P.T.A.'s stance in the staffing question did not simply reflect the feelings of the executive in Wellington. On the contrary, actions taken by the branches were largely responsible for most of the executive's pronouncements. As early as 1960, the Kapiti College branch had forwarded to the annual conference a remit the

purport of which was explained in a subsequent open letter to the executive. The branch argued that "the staffing problem and the state of the post-primary schools has never become the national or political issue it needs to be", and claimed that "... a crisis of the present proportions demands radical action".¹¹² The type of action the branch considered appropriate was set out in its remit: "Executive should suggest to principals that, if adequately-qualified staff are not available, principals should limit enrolment or send home those children for whom adequate tuition is not available."¹¹³ Although this remit was not adopted by the conference, its substance revealed the willingness of some P.P.T.A. members to take decisive, even militant, action, if need be, to convince the Government that the expedient of "... finding part-timers, superannuitants, relievers, unqualified or untrained staff, or employing the housewife across the road"¹¹⁴ was no longer an acceptable answer to the teaching shortage. The next shots were fired by the Tauranga College branch, which sent a "report on teacher dissatisfactions" to the executive in August, 1960. This report openly urged teachers "to apply direct professional pressure" to the Government and the Department, making it clear that "in the present times of extreme dissatisfaction with conditions in the post-primary service, ... strike action is no longer considered as unprofessional or unethical".¹¹⁵ The branch also proposed the adoption of a number of progressive steps, extending from a ban on all extra-curricular activities to a complete withdrawal of teacher services. The main purpose of the Tauranga report was to secure an immediate and substantial improvement in teachers' salaries: "Teachers must ... begin sensible bargaining for salaries on the grounds that remuneration is related to the exercise of bargaining power."¹¹⁶ Not surprisingly, the Minister considered the Tauranga report to be an

ultimatum ("Pay rises by this date or else");¹¹⁷ in his address to the 1961 conference, he sharply rebuked those "... members of the profession [who] have chosen to talk of strikes".¹¹⁸ Editorials covering the conference in the *New Zealand Herald* and the *Auckland Star* spoke out against teachers taking strike action, but were otherwise supportive of the teachers' cause.¹¹⁹ Further fuel was added to the fire in 1966, when the P.P.T.A. annual conference adopted the following remit put forward by the Rotorua region:

That no third, fourth, or fifth form shall exceed thirty students and that no sixth form shall exceed twenty students as from February, 1970, and that the P.P.T.A. executive inform members, the Government, the Department, principals, and the public that, where no teaching staff is available for particular classes or subjects, then the students involved may henceforth be given free time or be sent home.¹²⁰

Once again, this threat of direct action provoked an immediate and pointed response from the Minister, though a subsequent meeting of teachers in Auckland "... stated firmly that teachers had the right to take action to limit classes in order to preserve the efficiency of the service".¹²¹ In law, teachers had no right whatever to send pupils home, but the P.P.T.A. evidently considered that it had become sufficiently powerful to treat such technicalities with impunity. This issue, as well as other aspects of the worsening relationship between the P.P.T.A. and the Government, especially in the second half of the 60's, will be further discussed in the next section of this chapter.

THE TEACHING PROFESSIONNumber

The total number of teachers employed in the post-primary service increased by 63 per cent between 1960 and 1970 (table 45). This increase was not solely due to larger school rolls. Improvements in staffing schedules, such as those already referred to in chapter 12,¹²² also entitled schools to engage more staff.¹²³

TABLE 45

NUMBER OF FULL-TIME TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN ALL TYPES OF
POST-PRIMARY SCHOOL, 1960 - 1970, AS AT SEPTEMBER

Year	Total	Increase	Cumulative increase
1960	5,280	494	494
1961	5,609	329	823
1962	6,006	397	1,220
1963	6,347	341	1,561
1964	6,550	203	1,764
1965	6,642	92	1,856
1966	6,838	196	2,052
1967	7,132	294	2,346
1968	7,549*	417	2,763
1969	8,251	702	3,465
1970	8,625	374	3,839

(1959 : 4,786)

Source: E.1 Reports

* totals from here on include manual training
assistants employed at manual training centres

The Government's commitment to a progressive reduction in the size of secondary school classes¹²⁴ gave promise of a further improvement in staff-pupil ratios (and, consequently, the employment of more teachers), but the expected increases in staffing ratios, as well as in the senior administrative time allowances, did not become effective

until February, 1971. However, as from February, 1967, district senior inspectors of secondary schools were empowered to approve special staffing allowances of up to five weekly teaching half days in excess of regulation staffing in the areas of remedial reading and special needs (such as slow learners). Special staffing allowances were also available for music and (in selected schools) for library work. Although these discretionary allowances resulted in increases in the number of teachers a school could employ, the regulations required that they be taken up by part-time teachers; so, they are not included in the totals shown in table 45.

Training

Pre-service training

Division C continued to provide most of the trained teachers entering post-primary schools. For the most part, the number of students in training in Division C showed only very small increases from year to year (table 46), even though the annual demand for teachers remained high. The drop in the intake in 1966 was caused, according to the Director-General, by more students continuing university study for a fourth year.¹²⁵ Substantially larger numbers of students enrolled in Division C in 1962 and 1968; in the latter case, one reason was probably the introduction, in 1967, of higher starting rates for graduate teachers, and increased allowances for highly-qualified graduates in training.¹²⁶

All of the special training schemes in place in 1960 continued (some in a modified form) throughout the decade, except for the emergency training course for physical education teachers begun at

TABLE 46
 NUMBER OF MEN AND WOMEN RECEIVING
 TRAINING IN DIVISION C,
 1960 - 1970, AS AT 1 JULY

Year	Men	Women	Total
1960	107	124	231*
1961	123	140	263*
1962	173	181	354
1963	181	186	367
1964	173	209	382
1965	180	209	389
1966	148	201	349
1967	183	208	391
1968	206	334	540
1969	232	311	543
1970	262	302	564

* as at December

Source: E.1 Reports

Dunedin Teachers' College in 1960; this course was discontinued after 1963.¹²⁷ Two new courses for training adult women as teachers of homecraft were introduced in 1961. Students could choose between taking a full-year course at Christchurch Teachers' College or enrolling for a one-year correspondence course with the Technical Correspondence School.¹²⁸ The correspondence course ran for only five years; the Teachers' College programme ended in 1969.¹²⁹ In 1961, the course for young women training as teachers of junior mathematics and science was extended to men. In the following year, a new two-year course was established (Division D), catering for students preparing to teach English and social studies. They would be trained specifically for post-primary teaching, while continuing with some university study.¹³⁰ Although the Currie Commission was in favour of courses of this kind,¹³¹ the P.P.T.A. most certainly was not. The 1962 annual conference of the Association resolved to require members not to assist in training Division D students in the schools.

Teachers who were constrained to do so were asked to report their cases to the executive.¹³² A special one-year course for training adults as post-primary teachers of physical education was held at Auckland Post-primary Teachers' College¹³³ in 1964, with the trainees on salary during training.

,

In its *Report*, the Currie Commission described as a "crippling handicap" the presence of so many students with incomplete degrees in Division C. The Commission declared that it was "substantially in agreement" with a submission from the principal of Auckland Teachers' College that, for non-graduates, "... a separate course should be established as distinct from a course for those with complete degrees".¹³⁴ In 1964, the National Advisory Council on the Training of Teachers,¹³⁵ in a report to the Minister, also recommended that the Division C course be confined to graduates and diploma holders; for those with incomplete degrees and diplomas, a "new training division" should be established.¹³⁶ Thus prompted, the Government decided to create a new Division B for the training of secondary teachers of general subjects, as from February, 1966. This division would provide for academic and professional studies concurrently, partly at a teachers' college (Auckland and Christchurch), and partly at a university, the aim being to enable students following the course to qualify for a Diploma in Teaching.¹³⁷ A number of Division B trainees would transfer from Division U (the post-primary teacher studentship scheme), a few would be overseas students, while a high proportion would be upper sixth-form pupils who, though their goal was post-primary teaching, were not prepared to commit themselves to full-time university study. From 1968, the scope of Division B was broadened to include three-year courses for prospective teachers of woodwork and

building construction, or engineering and metalwork. The new courses, available at Auckland and Christchurch, took students (with University Entrance) straight from school. Their training was carried out concurrently at teachers' college and the local technical institute; it also included some periods of experience in industry. Division B at both colleges also accommodated, from 1968, a new adult commercial course, as well as a course leading to specialisation in physical education.¹³⁸ A course in practical musicianship, established within Division B at Auckland Teachers' College from 1969, was extended to Christchurch in the following year.¹³⁹ The new division plainly filled a need; within five years of its introduction, it was catering for 452 students. Its creation also had the desired effect on Division C, which, now that it was restricted to graduates or near-graduates, was reported to be "a much more homogeneous group in both colleges".¹⁴⁰ The principal of Christchurch Teachers' College spoke of a "new spirit" evident in Division C students, signs of which were to be found "in improved attendance, in the much superior quality of the work submitted, and in the higher tone and a very much more professional attitude".¹⁴¹

Two further developments in the training of secondary teachers occurred in the second term of 1969. The first was the decision to establish in urban areas where there was no teachers' college 'outpost' training centres offering to small groups of people holding at least A2 qualifications¹⁴² a one-year, full-time course of teacher training leading to certification.¹⁴³ The second was the setting up, at Auckland, Lower Hutt, and Christchurch, of a half-time, two-year training course (Division M) for married women who were able to teach only part-time; A2 qualifications were the minimum acceptable for

entry to Division M.¹⁴⁴ Beginning with the 1970 intake, the secondary commercial and homecraft teacher-training courses became three-year college courses in line with the introduction of three-year training courses for primary teachers.¹⁴⁵ Also from 1970, new provisions were introduced for the long-standing secondary emergency training scheme for graduates.¹⁴⁶ First, the minimum qualifications for entry to this scheme were now to be A2; second, after the trainees had taught full-time for at least one year and not more than two years in a state secondary school, they could apply for a two-term course of training at a teachers' college or outpost centre leading to certification.¹⁴⁷ Finally, from the mid-60's, the Department ran occasional refresher courses for trained women teachers who were returning to the classroom after an absence which sometimes ran into several years. Applicants, who had to have been appointed to a position in a secondary school or district high school, were on salary during the course, which lasted for one month.¹⁴⁸

As early as 1960, the Government was considering proposals put forward independently by two universities involving concurrent professional training and study for a degree.¹⁴⁹ Such a programme was pioneered by the University of Waikato in 1966, with the first successful students completing the B.Ed. degree as well as receiving their teachers' diplomas at the end of 1969. Because of the way the University of Waikato's B.Ed. degree was structured, it proved to be a particularly useful qualification for secondary teaching. From 1970 onwards, a good number of Waikato graduates in education took up teaching positions in secondary and intermediate schools.

In-service training

Throughout the 60's, government and non-government agencies alike worked hard to channel the great interest evident in in-service training into activities which would benefit teachers, pupils, and the schools. The National Advisory Committee on In-service Training, set up early in 1961,¹⁵⁰ acted as an effective coordinating body, as well as ensuring that the whole range of interested parties could contribute to policy decisions. A feature of the period was the substantial increase in the number of courses offered which were not subject-oriented.

The opening, in April, 1961, of Lopdell House,¹⁵¹ the first of the Department's residential in-service training centres, represented a major step forward in the provision of in-service courses, particularly those concerned with curriculum development. Lopdell House was also used for conferences and for meetings of working parties. By 1962, the Department was also offering courses at a centre known as Wallis House in Lower Hutt, which it leased on a part-time basis. Lopdell House was soon in almost continuous use; forty-four courses were held there in 1962, including twenty-one for post-primary teachers, and three for combined groups of primary and post-primary teachers. The post-primary courses included a three-week study and workshop course to prepare teachers of form 6 physics for the Physical Science Study Committee (P.S.S.C.) programme introduced into New Zealand in 1960; and one-week courses for newly-appointed principals, holders of positions of responsibility, people responsible for the training of post-primary teachers, teachers of remedial reading, and guidance and careers personnel.¹⁵² By 1965, residential courses were increasingly emphasising "... the study of curriculum and

other policy developments, the preparation of handbook and similar [guideline] material, and the provision of professional leadership".¹⁵³ In the following year, the Director-General, commenting in his Report on the "widespread attention being given the world over to improvements in the teaching process", attributed the "drive towards better professional standards" which, he claimed, was taking place in this country to "... improved opportunities ... for further study and training after entry into the teaching profession".¹⁵⁴ Lopdell House courses provided many of these opportunities. In 1966, an important course held there enabled experienced principals of secondary schools "... to study major problems affecting schools today", including the responsibility of the schools in guidance and 'family life' education, the size of schools, the organisation of large schools, and issues associated with the end of the school year.¹⁵⁵ By 1967, current needs and demands in in-service training were exceeding the capacity of Lopdell and Wallis Houses,¹⁵⁶ but it was not until 1971 that the Department established a second residential in-service training centre (Hogben House) in Christchurch.¹⁵⁷ In 1968, some courses conducted at Lopdell House evaluated existing practices (testing and examining techniques; the needs of non-European pupils; liberal and general studies in the sixth form), others dealt with revision of parts of the syllabus (upper and lower sixth-form biology; School Certificate shorthand and typing; Scholarships and Bursary chemistry; health education), while yet others were more instructional in nature (administration and leadership for newly-appointed principals, and for heads of departments; modern mathematics; science; English).¹⁵⁸ This pattern was maintained in the 70's.

Supplementing the national residential courses were a wide range of regional courses, ranging in length from half a day to a week, or, in the case of evening programmes, from a term to a year. They were conducted by inspectors, university personnel, teachers' college lecturers, senior secondary teachers, and departmental advisers.¹⁵⁹ Local courses, organised by teachers, or by inspectors and teachers working together, also played an important part in the in-service training of secondary teachers.¹⁶⁰ Evening classes likewise continued to help teachers to keep up to date professionally.¹⁶¹ From 1968, these classes were administered under the new Classes for Teachers Regulations 1967.¹⁶² The Teachers' Refresher Course Committee, a semi-independent organisation, continued to offer national residential courses throughout the 60's, ¹⁶³ catering for between seven hundred and a thousand secondary teachers each year. Apart from some courses on school administration, most of the Committee's offerings were subject-based; a number of them covered the form 1-4 area, while combined primary-secondary courses were often included in the programmes. Not infrequently, the demand for places at the Committee's courses exceeded the accommodation available.¹⁶⁴

Although the Department and the Teachers' Refresher Course Committee assumed the major responsibility for planning and conducting in-service training courses, a number of other organisations were also active in this field during the 60's. In particular, the Councils of Adult Education (later called Departments of University Extension) of all of the universities, but especially of Auckland and Canterbury, and of the Victoria University of Wellington, organised a substantial number of courses for teachers, mostly over the summer vacation.¹⁶⁵ These courses, many of them described as 'seminars' or 'schools', ran

for from one to twelve days, with sessions over a weekend being the most common. A number of the courses became annual events; in January, 1971, the University of Otago's Extension Department conducted its eighteenth art school at Kurow, while the University of Auckland's Extension Department ran a music school each year at Cambridge for over twenty years. The universities were always ready to offer courses designed to help teachers to come to grips with new examination prescriptions.¹⁶⁶ In-service training assumed an international character when New Zealand physics teachers were invited to take part in a course for Australian teachers of high school physics in January, 1968 at the University of Sydney.¹⁶⁷ The fortieth congress of the Australian and New Zealand Association for the Advancement of Science, held in Christchurch in January, 1968, also afforded teachers "a unique opportunity of keeping abreast of modern developments". In addition to symposia on the sciences, there were sections devoted to mathematics, education, history, and geography.¹⁶⁸ From the mid-60's onwards, the universities offered visiting teaching fellowships to senior secondary school teachers. While these fellowships benefited a relatively small number of teachers, they did enable those selected to work for a year in a more specialised environment, carry out small research projects, and learn of the latest advances in their field. In 1970, five universities offered visiting teaching fellowships in a range of subjects chosen from both the arts and the science faculties.¹⁶⁹

The tremendous expansion of the in-service training opportunities available to teachers in the 60's compensated, to some extent, for the decline in the academic standards of many of those undertaking pre-service training. The new Divisions B,¹⁷⁰ D, and M in the teachers'

colleges, as well as the outpost training centres and, from 1970, the secondary emergency training scheme, were all available to non-graduates, while the actual training period offered under some schemes (such as that for adult women homecraft trainees) remained perilously brief. In addition, the prevailing shortage of teachers ensured that not only many classroom teachers but also a number of heads of departments needed considerable guidance and support if they were to perform satisfactorily. The development of in-service training facilities in the 60's was, admittedly, considerable, but so was the need for them.

Qualifications; certification

Opportunities for teachers in schools outside of the main centres to improve their qualifications improved dramatically in the 60's. Massey College's extra-mural programme, introduced in 1960, was an instant success. Enrolments in the first year were almost double the anticipated total,¹⁷¹ with the teaching service accounting for 60 per cent of those accepted. In the first year or two, Massey offered six stage I papers extra-murally, but this range was soon extended. Some stage II papers were available by 1963; two years later, the list covered eight B.A. subjects, five of them to stage II, as well as three papers for the Diploma in Education. Two B.Sc. papers were added in 1966; by 1969, extra-mural students could choose from twelve B.A. subjects, of which five were available at stage II level, six Dip.Ed. papers, and two B.Sc. papers.¹⁷² The contribution made by Massey University through its extra-mural programme towards improving the academic standing of New Zealand teachers at all levels of the service is incalculable. In 1970, Massey instituted a Bachelor of

Education degree, intended primarily for teachers in service. Initially, teachers would enrol for the degree extra-murally, but, eventually, the University hoped to make it available to Palmerston North Teachers' College students.¹⁷³ Other universities also instituted courses which were of great benefit to teachers. Beginning in 1964, the Extension Department of the University of Auckland offered a two-year, part-time (evening lectures) course leading to a Certificate in Social Studies;¹⁷⁴ the University of Canterbury established, in 1966, a degree course in music education for the Bachelor of Music degree, primarily intended for secondary teachers;¹⁷⁵ in 1967, the same university offered a new course - general mathematics I - which was an alternative to pure mathematics I "... likely to be ... of particular interest to teachers";¹⁷⁶ the Victoria University of Wellington inaugurated, in 1967, a Certificate in Social Studies programme similar to that offered by Auckland,¹⁷⁷ and, in 1968, introduced a post-graduate course of four papers and a research report leading to a Diploma in Educational Administration;^{178, 179} while, in 1970, the University of Auckland established a post-graduate Diploma in Language Laboratory Teaching. The first of the Department's Diploma in Teaching papers with a component specifically for secondary teachers was introduced in 1970; the revised course in English included a section on the teaching of reading in secondary schools.¹⁸⁰ The Government continued, throughout the 60's, to grant a year's leave with pay to selected teachers to enable them to attend university full-time to complete their degrees. From 1963, the number of such awards made each year was increased to fifteen; from 1967, twenty awards were granted.¹⁸¹ Early in 1962, the Government announced its 'bursaries for teachers' scheme, to come into effect that year. These bursaries covered all the university fees for

a single unit each year until the degree or diploma being sought was completed. Teachers, including those in private schools, who had not previously received three or more years of bursary assistance, as well as graduates studying for a Diploma in Education, were eligible for teachers' bursaries. Later in the 60's, special teachers' bursaries (available even to graduates) were instituted in mathematics and science; for experienced language teachers wishing to equip themselves to teach Japanese and Indonesian; and (in 1971 and 1972) in English. Students taking the Dip.Ed.Admin. at Victoria University also qualified for a teachers' bursary. This scheme certainly encouraged many secondary teachers to improve their academic qualifications.

From 1962, the Trained Teachers' Certificate, the Diploma in Teaching, and the Advanced Diploma in Teaching replaced, respectively, the Teachers' C, B, and A Certificates. At the same time, the Department instituted tutorial classes for Diploma in Teaching candidates, setting up, for this purpose, a section within the Correspondence School known as the Advanced Study for Teachers unit.¹⁸² The former Handicraft Teachers' Certificate had already been replaced (1960) by the Technical Teachers' Certificate.¹⁸³

Conditions of service

Salaries

The Currie Commission devoted a chapter of its *Report* to the status, salaries, and conditions of service of the teaching profession, issues which it plainly considered to be of considerable importance.¹⁸⁴ Although the Commission saw weaknesses in the salary scales incorporated in the submissions of the teachers' organisations,

it nevertheless acknowledged that a substantial revaluation of the existing salary structure was essential: "... the professional rewards in teaching judged by what it knows of other professions are incompatible with its status, ... they should be improved considerably."¹⁸⁵ There had been no major overhaul of secondary teacher salary schedules since 1952, and the prevailing teacher shortage added emphasis to the claims of the P.P.T.A. that the existing rates of payment to teachers were too low to attract additional recruits to the profession, and to induce those already in it to stay on. Some relief was provided when the Government introduced, effective from 1 April, 1962, what the Minister described as "... substantial improvements in the teachers' salary scales ... specifically designed to assist the recruitment and retention of staff".¹⁸⁶ This revaluation increased the number of qualification groups from four to six, allowing for a wider range of salary steps, which benefited particularly teachers in the highest qualification groups.¹⁸⁷ The other major salary change introduced by the new regulations, the payment of double increments to all teachers in their third and fourth years of service, has already been discussed (chapter 12). A significant development in the salaries field occurred in 1963, when equal pay was introduced for men and women. After the usual government shuffling,¹⁸⁸ a new salary order was promulgated in September, 1962 establishing equal pay rates from 1 April, 1963. Even then, the women lagged twelve months behind the men, since the latter were entitled to be paid on the new scales from 1 April, 1962.¹⁸⁹ Acting on a recommendation of the Advisory Committee on Higher Salaries, the Government increased quite considerably the salaries of the most senior post-primary teachers in 1964. A reclassification of the largest schools resulted in twenty-four schools being assigned to

a new grade (VI), with a higher rate of salary for the principal. At the same time, principals of the smallest post-primary schools also benefited when schools formerly classified in grade I were absorbed into grade II.¹⁹⁰ The Minister claimed that this revaluation of senior salaries was "a recognition by the community of the increased status of the [teaching] profession". He felt sure that the higher salaries would be "of great assistance in attracting to education recruits with the necessary qualities of enterprise, intelligence, and industry".¹⁹¹ Each year, nearly all teachers received salary increases based on annual ruling rates surveys. General wage increases were also granted from time to time by the Court of Arbitration. However, increases under these two headings were generally quite small, often less than £50 a year. In 1966, head teachers and senior secondary assistants in district high schools received salary increases as part of a government campaign to make service in smaller, rural schools more attractive.¹⁹² The next year, principals of grade VI secondary schools received a salary increment of nearly \$1,000 a year. To restore margins, salaries below the top level were also increased on a *pro rata* basis.¹⁹³

In July, 1970, the P.P.T.A. lodged a fresh salary claim, and conducted negotiations on it with the newly-established Education Service Committee;¹⁹⁴ in December, the Government, no doubt influenced, to some extent, by the apparent public support for the teachers' demands, approved of a "... major restructuring of the secondary [salary] scales"¹⁹⁵ to apply from 1 February, 1971. By far the most significant feature of the new salary structure was the provision made for teachers to proceed automatically by annual steps to their maximum salary on a basic scale.¹⁹⁶ It was estimated that

most teachers would reach this point at about age thirty, whatever qualifications they had.¹⁹⁷ This provision marked the end of progress on the salary scales being tied to a teacher's grading and academic qualifications, as had been the case for the previous fifty years. The revaluation also involved the following changes: teachers holding positions of responsibility were paid their basic salary plus a PR supplement;¹⁹⁸ a service increment of \$271 a year over and above the maximum of the basic scale was introduced;¹⁹⁹ the grades of schools (and, consequently, of principals) were reduced from six to four, with the new grades being determined solely on day-school roll numbers;²⁰⁰ every school became entitled to a deputy principal, and deputy principals and senior assistant mistresses each had their own separate salary scale;²⁰¹ the marriage allowance of \$140 a year was retained; and special beginning rates (at a lower level) were set down for untrained teachers. A reduction in the number of salary steps and qualification groups led to many secondary teachers receiving significant pay increases under the new determination. For example, the new rates lifted the salaries of large numbers of graduates by more than \$1,000 a year.

During the 60's, some salary improvements also came about through changes in the regulations covering certain allowances. Effective from February, 1962, the Government introduced a 'motherhood' allowance, which entitled married women teachers to claim one annual increment (up to a maximum of four) for every three years they had spent bringing up their families.²⁰² From October, 1966, a remote allowance was paid to teachers whose schools were more than thirty miles away from a recognised shopping centre, or in cases where there were other special circumstances.²⁰³ In addition, the creation of new

senior positions led to higher salaries for some teachers. In July, 1960, a new salary determination provided for a higher level of position of responsibility (P.R.D) for first assistants in the larger post-primary schools.²⁰⁴ Forty-two P.R.D positions were advertised in the *Education Gazette* of 15 July, 1960. When grade VI schools were established in 1964, the first assistants in all grades V and VI schools became deputy principals at a higher (and separately listed) salary rate. Over seventy teachers benefited from this change.²⁰⁵ Finally, the package of measures intended to improve staffing in secondary schools which the Government announced towards the end of 1969 included approval for thirty additional positions of responsibility to be allocated to schools offering effective programmes for slow learners.²⁰⁶

Grading

Quite early in the 60's, the Department was seeking to reduce the amount of formal grading to which post-primary teachers were subjected, so that inspectors would have time to carry out more effectively their essential advisory work in the schools.²⁰⁷ However, apart from a partial moratorium on grading in 1961,²⁰⁸ the situation remained unchanged until 1967. During that year, fresh talks were held between the Department and the P.P.T.A., which resulted in agreement on a new scheme for grading secondary teachers, to come into effect in 1968. The scheme provided for all teachers to be placed, for 1968, in one of three lists - A, B, or C. Those in lists A and B would be assessed in 1968, and put into their grading categories for 1969. From then on, inspections would be carried out in alternate years.²⁰⁹ As before, the main purpose of the changes was to free the inspectors, "... to some degree, for the services of professional

leadership and professional advice which they are best fitted to give".²¹⁰ The P.P.T.A. would rather have had no grading at all, and the Association continued to press for its elimination. Late in 1970, the president reported that negotiations had begun with the Department on the abolition of teachers' grading.²¹¹ By May, 1971, a working party representing the P.P.T.A., the Department, and the Secondary School Boards' Association had been set up to consider the issue.²¹²

Housing; country service; other items

The Government fulfilled its 1960 undertaking to build three hundred houses for secondary teachers over the ensuing five years. After 1965, allocations were made on a year-to-year basis, with thirty houses being provided each year for the rest of the decade.²¹³ Throughout the 60's, the *Education Gazette* carried frequent notices detailing the various types of housing assistance available to teachers on transfer: a housing advisory service; a pool housing scheme; a housing valuation service; and a scheme covering the refund of removal expenses.²¹⁴ In 1964, the Government approved of the State Advances Corporation making housing loans available to teachers on transfer.²¹⁵ The rents charged for departmental houses remained relatively low, notwithstanding an increase made in October, 1966.²¹⁶ Since post-primary teacher housing was not provided in urban areas, some city schools raised money to build rental accommodation of their own. Wellington College issued details of such a plan in 1966;²¹⁷ Waitara High School did the same in 1971.²¹⁸ One school offered housing loans at low rates of interest to prospective staff members.²¹⁹ Occasionally, an *Education Gazette* notice would indicate the availability of unorthodox, though not necessarily inadequate, housing; for example, Culverden District High School: accommodation

... in hut at Balmoral Forestry Camp (meals at cookhouse) to single man willing to drive school bus 45.6 miles daily;²²⁰ and Kuranui College: board for single person in adjacent Greytown Hospital (\$11.00 per week).²²¹

The country service regulations set out in chapter 9 continued to apply in the 60's, with two exceptions. First, a new ruling provided that, from 13 September, 1961, country service requirements would not apply to teachers over the age of thirty-one.²²² Second, the emergency six-year list covering girls' schools in provincial centres was replaced, from February, 1961, by an emergency three-year list, "... in recognition of the acute staffing difficulties in the schools concerned".²²³

Improved conditions of service for secondary teachers in the 60's and early 70's ensued from the 1960 decision of the Government to provide assistance towards the legal expenses of state school teachers acquitted of charges made against them in the course of their duties;²²⁴ the setting up, in 1961, of what became an annual fellowship in educational research sponsored by the J.F. McKenzie Trust;²²⁵ the establishing, in 1963, of the Education Benevolent Society;²²⁶ the acceptance by the Department of a P.P.T.A. suggestion, put forward in 1967, that reference to sex (except for senior assistant mistress appointments) be dropped in advertisements for secondary teaching positions;²²⁷ and the decision of the Government, effective from 1 February, 1971, to raise secondary school ancillary staffing allocations by 50 per cent,²²⁸ and to increase senior administrative time allowances.²²⁹

The New Zealand Post-primary Teachers' Association

Between 1960 and 1970, the P.P.T.A. became almost a household word, mainly, though not exclusively, because of its trade union activities, such as its confrontation with the Government over School Certificate marking rates of payment in 1962, and the sustained and, at times, virulent campaign for higher salaries which it conducted in 1970.

The Association definitely gained in strength and cohesion when its 1961 conference adopted the principle of regional representation.²³⁰ Soon afterwards, the P.P.T.A. revealed its commitment to post-primary curriculum development. In 1963, it set up a special curriculum committee serviced by fifteen subject panels, which were required "to scrutinise and (where thought desirable) revise syllabuses".²³¹ In the following year, the Association further boosted its capacity to promote curriculum issues by appointing one of its leading members as its first curriculum officer,²³² though many teachers remained lukewarm about P.P.T.A. involvement in curriculum matters.²³³ The Association appreciated, even if some of its members did not, that, for one thing, the establishing of form 1-6 schools meant that the P.P.T.A. would inevitably have a larger part to play in curriculum liaison with the New Zealand Educational Institute and the Department.²³⁴ The activities of the curriculum panels were regularly detailed in the Association's annual reports. In May, 1968, a meeting of all curriculum panel convenors (there were nineteen by that time) was held at head office. The president described this event as "... a landmark in the growth of the P.P.T.A.", providing ample evidence of the "impossibility of a teachers' organisation separating itself from the professional side of its activities".²³⁵

In 1967, the P.P.T.A. made a potentially-significant decision when it decided to set up a curriculum review group "... to examine the purposes of secondary education against [a] background of change".²³⁶ The rationale for this decision was that the Association did not consider that secondary education in New Zealand had a clear purpose; nor did it believe that the purposes which could be identified responded to the needs of young people.²³⁷ The review group consisted of eighteen members, drawn from the schools (11), the teachers' colleges (4), and the universities (3), as well as the secretary of the P.P.T.A., and a Wellington economist.²³⁸ Early in 1969, the review group produced its report in book form under the title *Education in Change*.²³⁹ The report was widely acclaimed, especially by academics.²⁴⁰ Professor P.J. Lawrence referred to "... the spirit of freshness, optimism, and humane understanding [which] breathes through the whole report ...";²⁴¹ Walter Scott considered the report to be "... the most revolutionary statement about secondary education that has yet appeared in this country";²⁴² while Professor Richard Barham found reading *Education in Change* "... perhaps the most exciting and encouraging experience I have had".²⁴³ However, other commentators, while acknowledging the soundness of the arguments advanced in the report, were doubtful whether it would have a very marked effect on teaching practice. Professor Keith Buchanan questioned whether the "bold and imaginative ideas" contained in the report would "... ever be realised in a society whose only motive is profit, ... [and] in which ... vision is suspect",²⁴⁴ while Richard Bates considered that the review group's 'basis for judgment' (the urge to enquire; concern for others; the desire for self-respect) was not very helpful "in determining the specific structure of activity within a particular school".²⁴⁵ One critic, even though he applauded

the report's "... many fine qualities as attested by previous reviewers", exposed what he considered to be four major flaws in the review group's publication.²⁴⁶

The purpose of the report was to enquire into the quality of the growth of young people in New Zealand's secondary schools, and to set in train a rethinking of what constituted 'a good education'.²⁴⁷ It set out, first, its 'basis for judgment', then assessed the "... present trends in our society, ... particularly those that are likely to do most to shape the needs of young people".²⁴⁸ The next chapter looked at generally-accepted school practices, and examined the extent to which they promoted the development of maturity in young people. This first part of the report is clearly expressed; even a lay person would have no difficulty in understanding the ideas put forward. It is altogether different, however, with the next two chapters ('Learning and Enquiry' and 'The Measurement of Objectives'), which make up the heart of the report. Here, the content becomes very philosophical and abstruse, with the result that the authors' arguments lose much of their impact. Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* would have had little meaning for all but a few secondary teachers; even those few would probably have been baffled by sentences like: "Endeavour in the arts may be thought of as being tested by 'affective congruency'" (p.33), and "On Krathwohl's scale these objectives range from a primitive kind of 'awareness' through 'responding', 'valuing', 'organisation', and 'characterisation of a value or a value complex'" (p.49). The final sections ('The Curriculum' and 'Interaction Between School and Community') are more straightforward, and contain much of practical value to teachers and

schools alike. Although a great deal of material is packed into the eighty pages of the report proper, certain salient principles can be readily identified: the future of education depends on change which is firmly based on the findings of imaginative experimentation and research (p. xiii);²⁴⁹ school and teaching practices must embody the qualities schools wish pupils to develop (p.10); all learning is enhanced in a cooperative atmosphere (p.13); learning appears most relevant when it stems from direct experience (p.26); enquiry promotes the ability to learn how to learn (p.39); and the relationship between teacher and class is the most important educational resource (p.68). While some of the changes called for in the report would have cost a great deal to implement,²⁵⁰ what the review group was advocating, for the most part, was a change of attitude and outlook - giving priority to "the developmental concerns of adolescents"²⁵¹ - rather than expensive innovations which, in themselves, might simply render the existing inappropriate practices more efficient.

A number of unsubstantiated claims have been made regarding the impact of *Education in Change* on the secondary schools in general and on teaching practice in particular. One school principal considered that the report "... had a vast effect on secondary education",²⁵² but he did not say what the effect was; a university teacher claimed that the report "... generated a number of important innovations in practice",²⁵³ some of which were described in a later publication.²⁵⁴ However, Shallcrass made no mention of *Education in Change* in his Introduction, while, of the sixty-eight innovations outlined in his book, only one included the report in its 'suggested reading' list. The judgment of the P.P.T.A. president was predictable - "this milestone in the professional growth of the Association", and "a

memorable mark in the development of New Zealand education"²⁵⁵ - but, again, evidence for the validity of the latter claim is lacking. Perhaps McLaren came closest to the mark when he suggested that the report was influential in that it "... helped induce the Department to initiate its own wide-ranging review of the secondary school curriculum".²⁵⁶ Renwick appeared to concur with this opinion in his reference to the "... spate of activity ... directed towards a clarification of the content of secondary school studies" which followed the appearance of *Education in Change*.²⁵⁷ In expressing the hope that the report would inspire all secondary teachers to examine their own philosophy of education,²⁵⁸ the P.P.T.A. was overestimating the educational sophistication of many of them. When the principal of Queen's High School asked a young staff member in her second year of teaching: "What is your philosophy of education?" the teacher replied that she did not have a philosophy, other than survival.²⁵⁹ A great number of New Zealand secondary teachers in the late 60's would very likely have given a similar answer.

As far as the trade union side of the Association's activities was concerned, the mood of the 60's was typified by a letter to the editor of the *P.P.T.A. Journal* written by a member in 1961: "... the Association should make its demands plain and clear cut, and if those demands are not met through negotiations then other more forceful methods will have to be resorted to."²⁶⁰ Within a year, the Association was at loggerheads with the Government over the right to negotiate rates paid to teachers marking School Certificate examination papers.²⁶¹ After a great deal of bitter wrangling, the P.P.T.A. eventually won the right to have the issue determined by

arbitration; the outcome was a ruling very much in the Association's favour. As a result of this episode, the P.P.T.A. considered that "very positive and major gains [had] been made",²⁶² though its more professionally-minded members must have been acutely embarrassed when the following comment appeared in the *Public Service Journal* towards the end of the year: "Our own members ... will particularly appreciate the gallant, and ultimately successful, struggle waged by our sister organisation in support of vital trade union principles."²⁶³ Another development during the 60's which "... served to mould the Association into a significant political force"²⁶⁴ was the P.P.T.A.'s decision to appoint a full-time general secretary with extended functions, including "... the drafting of policies, preparation of submissions, and their effective representation and negotiation".²⁶⁵ Reference has already been made (chapter 12) to the efforts of the P.P.T.A. to induce the Government to amend some of the clauses of the 1964 Education Bill; pressure of this kind was maintained over one issue or another for the rest of the decade. In 1968, the executive decided to move at the annual conference that subscription rates be raised to provide for the establishing of an emergency fund, since "... stronger action [in the matter of the teacher shortage] ... may yet be necessary".²⁶⁶ The conference unanimously decided to set up the fund, quadrupling the amount of the levy suggested by the executive.²⁶⁷ In the late 60's, the Association continued to thrust itself forward, on occasion even threatening to step into areas where it had absolutely no legal mandate to be.²⁶⁸

By 1970, feelings were running very high among many P.P.T.A. members over the question of teachers' salaries; this widespread agitation was intensified by some tactless remarks made by the

Minister during a television interview in July.²⁶⁹ Several newspapers reported that teachers were outraged by what the Minister had said; the *Christchurch Star* referred to "the verbal caning that groups of teachers around the country are giving the Minister, [which] reveals the depths of feeling that they have about the salaries issue".²⁷⁰ Over the next two months, numerous branch and regional meetings intensified their calls for action over the salaries question. The Bay of Plenty region had already (July) urged the executive to press for salary increases of at least 50 per cent, and to back their demands with a serious threat of direct action.²⁷¹ Teachers in the Canterbury region had also voted to support "... strikes, rolling strikes, or a series of stopwork meetings" if 'productive consideration' of salary demands was not well under way by October 1st.²⁷² One teacher at this meeting said that "... teachers should not be snobs in support of strike action", adding that "professionalism [is] so much nonsense when the real needs of teachers ... [are] considered".²⁷³ In September, preceding a special emergency conference of the Association held at the end of the month, region after region reported overwhelming support for direct action.²⁷⁴ One P.P.T.A. leader warned that New Zealand's secondary school system was in grave danger of collapsing, and that only immediate improvements could avert the possibility of teachers being forced to take militant action. At the same time, he claimed that teachers were amongst the least militant members of the community, being "... far more concerned with the children under their care"; the main reason behind their demand for increased salaries was their appreciation of the need to recruit and retain more teachers.²⁷⁵ Newspapers throughout the country gave considerable coverage to the secondary teachers' salaries question in 1970. While most editors and commentators supported the

teachers' cause, nearly all considered that militant action would be ill-advised: "... direct action ... would certainly alienate all public sympathy, and seriously damage the teachers' professional image."²⁷⁶ The *Dominion* went further, on the day of a planned teachers' stop-work meeting in Wellington, describing the meeting as "... a provocative show of strength", and contending that "... the Government would be justified if it retaliated by suspending the salary negotiations, as a show of public strength".²⁷⁷ However, at least one newspaper held that "... the P.P.T.A.'s threat of direct action ... now appears to be the teachers' only means of dramatising the problem, and precipitating corrective measures".²⁷⁸

In the event, the P.P.T.A. executive was not satisfied with the progress made on the salaries issue by October 1st, with the result that stop-work meetings to enable teachers to consider a report on the current state of the negotiations took place all over the country early that month. This "... organised withdrawal of the services of teachers",²⁷⁹ something which had never before occurred in New Zealand, inevitably attracted a great deal of public attention, as well as arousing considerable public controversy.²⁸⁰ The Department promptly ruled that teachers who attended the stop-work meetings would not be paid for the time they were away from their schools, while the Director-General asserted that the P.P.T.A.'s actions had severely strained relations between the Department, the teachers, and the controlling authorities.²⁸¹ Late in December, the Minister announced that secondary teachers would be paid at substantially higher rates as from 1 February, 1971. Details of this revaluation have already been given earlier in this chapter. The P.P.T.A. was reasonably satisfied with the new salary structure, acknowledging that the new rates were

not too different from those sought by the Association.²⁸² Nevertheless, some commentators were not convinced that the P.P.T.A. would remain satisfied for long: "It seems doubtful if the new salary scales will relieve to any marked extent the high level of teacher frustration the country has become accustomed to," said one journalist, since money alone "... cannot compensate for many of the intangible factors which are necessary for the development and maintenance of a contented teaching force."²⁸³ Or, as the editor of the *Manawatu Standard* put it: "With the new salary scheme the eruptions may subside, but tremors will continue."²⁸⁴ There can be no doubt that, as an organisation, the P.P.T.A. gained a great deal more from its 1970 salaries operation than pay increases for its members. The editor of the *P.P.T.A. Journal* claimed, with justification, that the Association had emerged from the campaign "... as a strong pressure group on the national scene",²⁸⁵ while a writer in the *Sunday News* described the P.P.T.A. of the early 70's as "a dedicated pressure group determined to raise the standard of the profession it serves".²⁸⁶ Boag considered that the closing years of the 60's had "seen the Association reach new heights of unity, determination, and articulateness",²⁸⁷ resulting in its becoming "one of the strongest professional/trade union organisations in New Zealand".²⁸⁸ The 'sleeping giant' had been aroused; within ten years, the P.P.T.A. was assuming power to direct the actions of principals and teachers to an extent and in a manner which the Director-General characterised as "... breathtaking in its audacity".²⁸⁹

Not all teachers were satisfied with the way the P.P.T.A. was acting on their behalf. In 1968, an attempt was made to form a

breakaway National Union of Teachers dedicated to unity and militancy,²⁹⁰ while, late in 1969, a new teachers' organisation, the Registered Teachers' Association, was actually established.²⁹¹ Neither of these groups posed the slightest threat to the ascendancy of the P.P.T.A., which entered the new decade with its sights firmly set on fresh battles to be fought and won. These included the replacement of external examinations by internal assessment; the promotion of a more flexible and inquiry-centred mode of teaching; and the achievement of a better-balanced curriculum, with fewer university-dominated form 6 courses.²⁹² A further priority, of a more political nature, was the winning of the right to control entry to the secondary service, and to regulate behaviour within it.²⁹³

Teachers' subject associations

A very considerable expansion of these associations took place in the 60's. The New Zealand Art Teachers' Association became active again; by the end of the decade it was sponsoring an annual winter school for members. In 1961, branches of the New Zealand Commercial Teachers' Association were set up in the Waikato, Otago, Auckland, Hawke's Bay, and Christchurch. Specialist teachers of geography were catered for by the Board of Geography Teachers of the New Zealand Geographical Society. The existing Associations of Language Teachers in Auckland and Dunedin were joined by a Wellington Association in 1965, while secondary teachers were prominent in the Auckland English Association, established in the late 50's. An Auckland Mathematical Association was active at this period, as were Science Teachers' Associations in all the main centres. At the P.P.T.A. annual conference in 1961, a sectional meeting of teachers of social studies,

history, and geography voted unanimously to set up, in the first instance, one National Association of Social Studies Teachers. Later in the decade, local Social Studies Teachers' Associations were established, such as that in the Waikato in 1967. Many secondary teachers belonged to the New Zealand Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (inaugurated in 1967, replacing the Society for Physical Education), which issued a certificate to those who completed its theoretical and practical examinations. An Association of Teachers of Slow Learners came into being in Auckland in 1972; within a year, a similar group was meeting in Christchurch. Throughout the 60's, the New Zealand School Music Association flourished; in 1962, the Association decided to increase its potential to provide a service to teachers by affiliating with the Schools' Music Association of Great Britain. All of these associations provided their members with encouragement and assistance, while a number of them also promoted activities which benefited pupils. In addition, they conducted courses to help teachers cope with syllabus changes, as well as keeping a careful watch on public examination prescriptions and papers at all levels, and alerting the Department and the Universities Entrance Board to any weaknesses they detected in them. Their chief drawback was that, for the most part, they were confined to the larger centres, though some achieved a wider coverage by issuing bulletins and magazines.²⁹⁴

Teacher exchanges; travelling scholarships

The exchange programmes with Commonwealth countries and the United States of America outlined in chapter 9 continued in the 60's, though Canada disappeared from the list after 1968. While the

proportion of these awards made to secondary teachers was not high - the primary recipients regularly outnumbered the secondary by four or five to one - those who were selected, as well as the teachers they replaced, benefited greatly from the opportunity to gain first-hand experience of a different educational system. In the 60's, a small number of secondary teachers were able to spend some time overseas supported by scholarships, fellowships, or study grants offered by such agencies as the British Council, the Imperial Relations Trust, UNESCO, the United States Education Foundation in New Zealand, the Commonwealth Education Scheme, and the Italian Government. Many of these awards were keenly sought after - in 1968, there were seventy-two applicants for a one-month study tour of the United States sponsored by the American Field Service organisation²⁹⁵ - which suggested that teachers appreciated the value of observing educational developments in other countries. From 1962, twenty New Zealand teachers of French were invited each January to take part in an intensive language and contemporary culture course conducted in Nouméa by teachers from the Sorbonne (University of Paris). In addition, the teaching assistantships in French schools, and the bursaries for study in France detailed in chapter 9 were not only offered each year throughout the 60's, but the number of awards made under each heading annually had almost doubled by the end of the decade.²⁹⁶

In 1960, Mr (later Sir) Woolf Fisher, an Auckland industrialist, established the Fisher-Paykel Trust (capital : £80,000) to endow travelling fellowships for principals and teachers in post-primary schools.²⁹⁷ The intent of the trustees was (and still is) to enable the recipients to undertake study courses abroad varying in length

from two to twelve weeks. Between fifteen and twenty scholarships are awarded annually, depending on the availability of suitable courses. No applications are called for; selection for the awards is entirely a matter for the trustees. The Department grants leave on full pay to those receiving Woolf Fisher fellowships.²⁹⁸ The first awards were made in 1961;²⁹⁹ the pattern of subsequent awards has tended to follow this model. Principals and teachers travelling under these fellowships to the United Kingdom usually have their study programmes organised for them by the British Council.³⁰⁰ Between 1961 and 1970, Woolf Fisher fellowships gave approximately two hundred secondary teachers and principals what, for most, would have been a unique opportunity to see how overseas countries were responding to educational issues under scrutiny at that time in New Zealand, such as systems of school administration and organisation, teacher training methods, developments in curriculum, examinations procedures, and changes in teaching techniques and in teacher-pupil relationships.

Principals

Throughout the 60's, principals in almost all secondary schools were working under considerable pressure.³⁰¹ The 'paper war' intensified, while, at the same time, the principal's professional responsibilities became more and more complex as a result of staff shortages, the general instability of staffing, curriculum changes, new examination patterns, the questioning of traditional authority by pupils,³⁰² and teacher militancy.³⁰³ A number of principals found the strain too great, and had to retire early or transfer to other positions.³⁰⁴ Nevertheless, principalships continued to be much sought after, except for those in girls' schools.³⁰⁵ History was made

in 1968, when Miss J.C. McKenzie, formerly principal of the ill-fated Waiwhetu Girls' High School,³⁰⁶ became the first woman to head a New Zealand state coeducational secondary school (Mana College).³⁰⁷ The P.P.T.A. continued, during the 60's, to call for principals of new schools to be appointed earlier, but to little effect. A principal for Twizel High School was appointed just one month before the School was due to open at the beginning of 1971.³⁰⁸ With so many new schools being established, principals appointed to schools which were likely to grow only slowly were often attracted to larger schools within a short time of their appointment.³⁰⁹ In one case, a principal moved on after spending only a few months in his position.³¹⁰ Frequent changes of principal resulted in a lack of continuity of policy, which inevitably had an unsettling effect on the schools concerned. On the other hand, some people maintained that principals should not be able to retain their positions indefinitely, especially if they were lacking in competence. Speaking for the Leader of the Opposition (N. Kirk) at the 1969 annual conference of the P.P.T.A., the Labour spokesperson on education, P. Amos, indicated that his party intended, on its return to power, to set up an Educational Development Conference, at which, *inter alia*, the question of a limited tenure for principalships would be considered.³¹¹

The difficulty of defining the respective areas of responsibility of boards of governors and principals which had led to two principals resigning in the late 40's and early 50's (see chapter 9) flared up again at Hawera High School in 1969. The principal³¹² took exception to the board involving itself in what he considered were professional matters (and, consequently, his responsibility); an impasse developed, which resulted in the principal resigning. One of the most

significant aspects of this case was the extent to which the P.P.T.A. became involved in it. Taking the side of the principal, it first 'blacklisted' the School, and then arranged for a group of its officials to meet the board to discuss the situation which had arisen. Not until the board had reached agreement with the Association on a number of points did the P.P.T.A. undertake to lift its ban on members applying for positions at the School.³¹³

The need for principals, both actual and designate, to receive a more thorough training in educational administration remained largely unsatisfied in the 60's, notwithstanding an increasing number of Lopdell House and Teachers' Refresher Course Committee programmes on this theme.³¹⁴ At the end of the decade, Professor W.G. Walker of the University of New England was still able to describe New Zealand as "... the nation least concerned with professional training [of educational administrators]".³¹⁵

In at least two respects, principals were better off in the 60's than they had been in the 50's. First, their salaries had increased dramatically. At the end of 1960, principals of the largest secondary schools were paid just over £2,000 a year. By September, 1969, the figure had reached \$6,650;³¹⁶ a year later, it stood at \$7,235; after the 1970 revaluation, it rose to \$9,096; and, by October, 1971, it had topped \$10,500.³¹⁷ Second, the feeling of isolation, which had beset so many principals earlier, was lessened, to some extent, by the inauguration, in 1963, of a P.P.T.A.-sponsored annual secondary schools principals' conference, an opportunity to compare notes, share experiences, and take comfort from the knowledge that others were facing problems similar to one's own.³¹⁸

Conclusion

For the secondary teaching profession, the 60's was a decade of changing responsibilities, an expanding workload, increasing tension, and a feeling of uncertainty about the future. Many dedicated teachers resented the fact that promotion at the higher levels could be gained only by moving into administration; the president of the P.P.T.A. seemed to sympathise with them:

Let us have full recognition of the specialist teacher in the field, our greatest asset, the man or woman of mature years, of proved scholarship and outstanding ability as a teacher, respected and honoured for his or her personal worth and integrity.³¹⁹

However, the 'master teacher' concept was not pursued, because it entailed acknowledging that some teachers were better at their job than others; this the P.P.T.A. as a body was not prepared to do.

The image of secondary teachers was certainly tarnished in the eyes of many parents by the stop-work meetings of 1970. Previously, schools had been able to rely almost entirely on the cooperation of the great majority of parents, but from 1971 onwards, this was no longer the case.³²⁰ As a result, the work of teachers became more difficult, with greater demands being made on them in the areas of discipline and counselling.

RURAL EDUCATIONIntroduction

Throughout the first half of the 60's, the post-primary education of children living in country districts continued to be a thorn in the side of a Government and a Department of Education committed to the principle of equality of educational opportunity. The district high schools suffered perpetual staffing problems,¹ which played havoc with the range and quality of the subjects they could offer, especially at School Certificate level. This factor, coupled with "administrative apathy and neglect [which] resulted in deficiencies in facilities and equipment", ensured that these schools remained "the poor relation of the urban secondary school".² Hardest hit were the children in secondary departments with very small rolls.³ One such school, not situated in a particularly remote country area, was the subject of a letter from a parent sent to the president of the P.P.T.A. in October, 1964. The correspondent revealed that the district high school serving her area (secondary department roll : 32) had not had one qualified post-primary teacher in the previous four years, only four subjects were offered in the fifth form, and, over a period of six years, fewer than 20 per cent of the pupils sitting School Certificate had been successful.⁴ The president was confident that the state of affairs revealed in the letter was not unique.⁵ Even the larger post-primary schools in rural areas were plagued by staff shortages; some of them in centres relatively close to cities found themselves

experiencing even greater staffing difficulties after the Government decided to remove them from the country service list in 1963.⁶

Agitation for reform

As the decade advanced, the Government came under increasing pressure from a number of quarters to take decisive action to improve the quality of the post-primary education offered in country areas. The Currie Commission received numerous submissions on rural education;⁷ the members were "left in no doubt that, for a man and his wife living in any rural environment, the education of their children is a major preoccupation and even a source of anxiety".⁸ The Commission acknowledged that "feelings of dissatisfaction with the present district high school system" were not unreasonable, and held that country pupils "could and should be given a much better secondary education" than had hitherto been available.⁹ The adoption of its recommendations to begin secondary education in form 1, and to include forms 1 and 2 in the secondary departments of district high schools or transfer them to small country secondary schools, would, in the opinion of the Commission, confer a "great and lasting benefit" on country communities.¹⁰ Both the New Zealand Educational Institute and the P.P.T.A. were active at this time in drawing public attention to the "dire circumstances"¹¹ in which so many rural schools found themselves. In June, 1966, the P.P.T.A. published *Country Education*, a booklet which had as its theme the need to transform the whole system of rural education. The publication urged that district high schools be replaced by form 1-6 schools, and that positive inducements be provided to encourage qualified and experienced post-primary teachers to move to country schools.¹² *Country Education* attracted

wide press coverage, including a number of editorials.¹³ Following a conference held in September, 1964, involving head teachers and committee chairmen of fourteen of its district high schools, the Auckland Education Board, through the New Zealand Education Boards' Association, asked all education boards to examine the state of district high schools in their own areas. One outcome of this widespread investigation was a report submitted to the Minister early in October, 1966 "... urging the Government to take prompt steps to improve the status and effectiveness of the district high schools" by securing better staffing and conditions for these schools.¹⁴

Form 1-6 schools

Soon after the publication of the *Currie Report*, the Minister, influenced, no doubt, by the Commission's proposals, as well as by the findings and recommendations arising from G.W. Parkyn's earlier study on rural schools, especially the researcher's conviction that, in country areas, children at the intermediate and post-primary stages of school life could be best provided for in consolidated schools,¹⁵ had approved of the establishing of two experimental form 1-6 schools,¹⁶ one in the North Island at Te Karaka, and the other in the South Island at Geraldine.¹⁷ A notice in the Education Gazette of 2 July, 1962 explained that form 1-6 schools would not be post-primary schools with attached intermediate departments, but would operate as units with properly articulated programmes beginning in form 1 and extending to form 6. Principals and staff would be drawn from both the primary and post-primary sectors. Early in 1964, the Minister issued a policy statement making it clear that no form 1-6 schools would be built in

urban areas.¹⁸ At the same time, he announced that five further form 1-6 schools were planned for 1964-65.¹⁹ Local education boards and communities would be fully consulted before any moves were made to establish form 1-6 schools.²⁰ From the outset, the new schools "received strong professional support, and were enthusiastically accepted by most parents".²¹ In 1963, the president of the P.P.T.A. claimed that "... nothing has seized the imagination of teachers as much as this concept for years",²² while the Timaru High School Board of Governors announced that it fully subscribed to the policy of establishing form 1-6 schools in rural areas (even though it was likely to lose boarders with the opening of such a school at Geraldine).²³ In an address delivered in May, 1965, the principal of Geraldine High School declared that, in his opinion, "... the possibilities of vastly improved country education have never been better than they are today".²⁴ He pointed out that one of the great strengths of form 1-6 schools was "their ability to give to children in country areas the advantages hitherto reserved at the form 1 and 2 level to town children",²⁵ while pupils in forms 3 to 6 also benefited from the larger staff generated by increased roll numbers. This enabled a wider choice of subjects to be offered in School Certificate and University Entrance classes, as well as providing for specialised teaching in music, art, physical education, and homecraft, none of which had had specialised coverage when the school was a district high school.²⁶ Perhaps the most reliable pointer to the success of the form 1-6 school at Geraldine was the spectacular increase in the form 6 roll. Lower sixth form numbers increased from fourteen in 1962 to thirty-four in 1965, while the upper sixth form of 1965 had nine pupils compared with three in 1962. By 1965, pupils were coming back to Geraldine in their form 6 year, "... an interesting contrast to the

usual drift away from the country at this level".²⁷ In 1966, the president of the P.P.T.A. claimed that form 1-6 schools had "lifted country education to new peaks".²⁸ He indicated, further, that, in the course of a round of branch visits, which included fourteen district high schools in Otago and Canterbury, a topic raised by every district high school concerned "the chances of their particular school achieving New Zealand's new education status symbol - translation to a form 1-6 school".²⁹ Parents were equally vocal on the issue, as the following paragraph from a magazine article, "Country education - parents' say presents the modern view", illustrates:

Country parents want more form 1-6 schools. That is the outstanding fact which has emerged from a *Woman's Weekly* survey, conducted through this column by mail. They are the answer to the blight on country education which at present is plunging whole districts into the blues.³⁰

Government plans

In October, 1966, not long after the Auckland Education Board had released its report, "The Future of the District High School", the Minister announced that the Government "had approved in principle a comprehensive scheme for reorganising secondary education in rural areas".³¹ The scheme included the translation of district high school secondary departments into either form 3-6 or form 1-6 schools when the secondary roll reached 150. In special cases, even smaller secondary departments would be considered for translation. A further quota of up to six secondary departments would be accorded form 1-6 school status as soon as possible. To meet the needs of secondary departments with fewer than 150 pupils, the Government had decided to set up "... a new type of composite school with its own staffing

schedules, its own finance and equipment arrangements, and a special grade of principal".³² It was some years, however, before any of these schools were established.

Further form 1-6 school developments

Two more secondary departments became form 1-6 schools in 1967.³³ Subsequently, conversions continued at a steady pace until, by the end of 1970, there were eighteen form 1-6 schools,³⁴ enrolling 2.5 per cent of all secondary pupils.³⁵ In 1966, three and a half years after its establishment, Geraldine High School acquired its own board of governors.³⁶ The Annual Report of the P.P.T.A. for 1967-68 noted that an increasing number of existing secondary schools, as well as secondary departments of district high schools, were applying for conversion to form 1-6 schools. The Association concluded that "... such continual pressure is a significant tribute to the success of the [form 1-6] schools already established".³⁷

Area (high) schools

As the re-organisation of rural secondary education proceeded, the plight of some forty or more secondary departments, most of which had small rolls and were situated in relatively remote areas, became even more evident. It was in an effort to find a solution to the particular problems besetting this category of district high school that the Government had proposed, in 1966, to set up a new type of "unified rural school",³⁸ to be known, for the time being, as 'area high schools'.³⁹ These schools would provide education for pupils from infant classes to form 6 in the local school district, and for

pupils from form 1 upwards from contributing schools in the surrounding area.⁴⁰ During 1967, a committee representing the Department, the education boards, and the two teachers' organisations worked on various difficulties connected with establishing area schools. Final planning took place in 1968; the first of the schools, the Maniototo Area School, was opened at Ranfurly (Central Otago) in February, 1969, with a roll of just over three hundred.⁴¹ A second area school was established on Waiheke Island in the Hauraki Gulf in 1970.

The Government's intention in setting up area schools was

to convert a small district high school into a somewhat larger school, provide it with a slightly larger staff and more positions of responsibility, and, through internal reorganisation, coordinate more effectively the teaching at all levels of the school.⁴²

A few people spoke enthusiastically about the area school concept. For example, in a letter to the editor of *Education*, T.L. Morgan, principal of the Maniototo Area School, described the new type of rural school as "the finest educational concept existing in New Zealand today".⁴³ However, the P.P.T.A. displayed little enthusiasm for area schools, declaring in its Annual Report for 1968-69: "It is doubtful whether this form of school can offer advantages comparable to the known advantages of a form 1-6 school, and we reject the view that, for a small district high school, a form 1-6 school is not the solution."⁴⁴ The chairman of the P.P.T.A.'s Country Schools' Committee, responding to the Department's 1971 policy booklet, "Organisation of Education from Form 1 Upwards in Rural Areas", claimed that "the area school has already been placed before a number

of communities, and it has been rejected in favour of the form 1-7 school. The lack of enthusiasm for an area school has been embarrassing".⁴⁵ The Association considered that much about area schools had still to be resolved, and maintained that P.P.T.A. input into and influence on their planning had been minimal. For the P.P.T.A., the area school appeared to be "an experiment without conclusion".⁴⁶ The third Labour Government also seemed to have little faith in area schools. For a time, even the name fell out of favour, being replaced by the rather clumsy designation 'reorganised district high school'. By the end of the Labour Government's term of office (December, 1975), only two more area schools had been opened.⁴⁷

Conclusion

In his Report for 1970, the Director-General noted that a new pattern for the organisation of education in country districts was gradually emerging.⁴⁸ The 1960 total of ninety-six district high schools had fallen to sixty-one by 1970, with the remaining secondary departments catering for less than 3 per cent of all secondary pupils.⁴⁹

Even though many of the district high schools awaiting conversion were just as badly off in the early 70's as they had been twenty years before,⁵⁰ the 60's were, nevertheless, a period when secondary education in country districts registered significant gains. Form 1-6 schools and, to a lesser extent, area schools both brought country children considerably closer to achieving parity of educational opportunity with their urban counterparts.

THE POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION OF THE MAORI AND PACIFIC ISLANDER

Characteristic features of the period

The tendency already evident in the 50's for a growing number of Maori primary school leavers to go on to some form of post-primary schooling continued throughout the 60's. Of the Maori children leaving primary school in 1955, 79.6 per cent enrolled at a post-primary school in 1956; by 1970 this percentage had increased to almost 100.⁵¹ Table 47 sets out the number of Maori pupils attending state and private post-primary schools each year from 1960 to 1970.

TABLE 47

NUMBER OF MAORI PUPILS AT STATE AND PRIVATE
POST-PRIMARY SCHOOLS, 1960 - 1970, AS AT 1 JULY

Year	Maori district high schools	Other state schools	Private schools	Total
1960	563 (10 schools)	6,047	1,260	7,870
1961	599 (10)	6,564	1,282	8,445
1962	618 (10)	7,506	1,308	9,432
1963	639 (10)	8,473	1,490	10,602
1964	462 (9)	9,550	1,574	11,586
1965	314 (7)	10,560	1,796	12,670
1966	303 (7)	11,422	1,738	13,463
1967	299 (7)	12,350	1,734	14,383
1968	321 (7)	13,960	1,714	15,995
1969	-	14,840	1,766	16,606
1970	-	15,361	1,813	17,174

Source: E.1, 1971, Table 7, p.67

Between 1960 and 1970, the number of Maoris enrolled at secondary schools increased by 118 per cent.⁵² Over the same period, total secondary school rolls showed an increase of 58 per cent.⁵³ Notwithstanding the fact that the Director-General issued regular

warnings in his Reports that "... too many Maori pupils continue to lose interest at the secondary level, and leave to take up employment before they have achieved any qualifications",⁵⁴ there was evidence that more Maori pupils were staying longer at secondary school. Between 1961 and 1969, the number of Maori pupils in form 5 increased two and a half times.⁵⁵ At the same time, sixth-form numbers also rose steadily, although the totals were still very low. In 1965, there were 276 Maori pupils in the lower sixth form, compared with 169 in 1961. The corresponding totals for the upper sixth form were 47 and 23.⁵⁶ From the middle of the 60's onwards, however, the number of Maoris entering form 6 increased more rapidly. In 1966, 11 per cent of all form 6 pupils were Maoris; eight years later, the figure stood at 21 per cent.⁵⁷ The Director-General attributed the longer secondary school life of Maoris to three factors: the financial help available through the Maori Education Foundation; the greater degree of support for post-primary education shown by Maori parents; and the fact that urban migration had put more Maori pupils within reach of large secondary schools offering a comprehensive range of courses.⁵⁸ In the 60's, Maori pupils were not only spending longer at secondary school, they were also reaching higher standards of achievement. Between 1963 and 1966, the percentage of Maori candidates passing the School Certificate examination rose from 21.8 to 24.6.⁵⁹ Significant gains were also registered at higher levels. In 1965, just on 2 per cent of Maori pupils leaving school held the University Entrance or a higher qualification; by 1968, this percentage had risen to 2.6. For Maori pupils leaving with Endorsed School Certificate, the 1968 figure was 4.6 per cent compared with the 2.7 per cent of 1965.⁶⁰ While these improvements were certainly "hopeful signs",⁶¹ the achievement of Maori pupils at secondary schools still fell far short of that of

their European counterparts. In 1965, the pass rate of Maori pupils in School Certificate was about 23 per cent, whereas for all entrants it was a little over 50 per cent. At the same time, the 'all pupils' figure for the pass rate in School Certificate based on total form 5 roll numbers was 43 per cent, while the 'Maori pupils' figure was 12 per cent.⁶² Plainly, even though the gap between Maori and European achievement at secondary schools was closing, it was still far too wide for comfort, and of this the Government and the Department were well aware.

The schools

Reference has already been made (chapter 10) to the establishing of Ngata Memorial College in 1959. In the following year, Rangitahi Maori District High School, having been granted full post-primary status, began a new life as Rangitahi College. In 1964, Rerekohu Maori District High School, the largest in the Maori Schools' Service,⁶³ came under the control of the Hawke's Bay Education Board. As from February, 1965, Ngata Memorial College and Tikitiki Maori District High School amalgamated, while, in the same year, Tokaanu Maori District High School agreed to change to South Auckland Education Board control. The remaining seven Maori district high schools continued as part of the Maori Schools' Service until February, 1969, when, in common with all Maori schools still not transferred, they came under the control of their local education board. By this time, their rolls had fallen sharply; the seven schools together could muster only 321 secondary pupils.

During the 60's, a number of long-established secondary schools became increasingly multiracial, as more and more Maoris and, later, Polynesians came to live in the cities. Auckland Girls' Grammar School, Mount Albert Grammar School, Seddon High School, Wellington East Girls' College, and Wellington High School all came into this category. At Wellington East Girls' College, in 1967, the ratio of pupils for whom English was a second language was one in nine; five years later, it was one in five, "... the increase coming mainly from Polynesian families, especially Samoans and Cook Islanders ...".⁶⁴ The *Report on Secondary School Administration* listed thirty-two schools (comprising nearly 15 per cent of all secondary schools) which, in 1971, had 30 per cent or more of Maori or Pacific Island pupils on their rolls.⁶⁵ Within five years of its opening in 1966, one of these schools, Hillary College, had just on nine hundred pupils, of whom 50 per cent were Polynesians, with one pupil in six coming from the Cook Islands, Niue, or Western Samoa.⁶⁶ An article in the *P.P.T.A. Journal* early in 1970 claimed that

... the school [Hillary College] has become the trendsetter for dealing with non-European students, and ... is beginning to attract teaching staff interested in dealing with the problems of teaching Polynesian, Maori, and other non-European student groups.⁶⁷

An interesting development occurred in 1961, when the Government decided to set up a full, multicourse post-primary school at Panguru, on the Hokianga Harbour, even though the roll was not expected to exceed fifty. The school, which was to cater for a predominantly Maori community, opened in February, 1962, with a staff of two. An advertisement in the *Education Gazette* calling for applications for the principalship stated: "The school provides an ideal opportunity

for a principal and his wife to assist a Maori community to establish a tradition of post-primary education in a district which, until this year, had no educational facilities beyond the primary level."⁶⁸ Although Panguru's roll remained small (it was still only fifty-six on 1 March, 1973), the school proved to be a viable unit; its success was often referred to by P.P.T.A. spokespersons in support of the Association's claim that secondary schools in rural areas could operate satisfactorily with a much lower roll than the minimum figure of 150 required by the Department.⁶⁹

Maori denominational boarding schools

Although the number of Maoris and Pacific Islanders attending private secondary schools increased by 44 per cent between 1960 and 1970, the non-European component of state secondary school rolls went up over the same period by 154 per cent (table 47). The church schools continued to cater for the majority of pupils from rural areas holding government scholarships,⁷⁰ but they had lost the dominant position they once shared with the Maori district high schools in the provision of secondary education for Maoris. In 1960, one out of every six Maori post-primary pupils was attending a private school; ten years later, the ratio had dropped to one in every 9.5 (table 47). In 1969, an agreement was negotiated between the Te Aute Trust Board and the Napier High Schools' Board which resulted in the girls from Hukarere School receiving their secondary education at Napier Girls' High School while continuing to live at Hukarere. The arrival of fifty Hukarere girls at Napier Girls' High School in 1970 marked the beginning of a surge of multicultural activity in the School. An experienced teacher of Maori was appointed, a full course in Maori

language was instituted, and a Maori Club, which soon had over a hundred members, was established.⁷¹

The denominational boarding schools continued to experience problems in the 60's, with the Director reporting in 1962 that at least three of them were having difficulty in maintaining their roll numbers.⁷² As the decade advanced, the financial situations of a number of the schools became more and more precarious. Soaring costs, especially under the headings of teachers' salaries, food, and buildings maintenance, threatened the very existence of some of the older foundations, including Te Aute, St Stephen's, and Queen Victoria. The latter school was in such dire straits by 1970 that it launched a 'Save Queen Victoria' public appeal, while at least one newspaper editorial maintained: "The denominational Maori schools now in difficulty can claim to be a special case. They, in particular, deserve and must be given more public support."⁷³ This view, however, was not shared by the P.P.T.A. nor by the principal of Hillary College, who held that "under no circumstances should state money be spent on supporting such schools until due requirements of similar state schools are met".⁷⁴ He pointed out that "... we [Hillary College] are teaching Maori language to more students than any two church schools put together", and claimed that it was schools like Hillary College, Whakatane High School, and Tolaga Bay District High School "... which are now the main armament in the battle for educational opportunity for Maori and Polynesian pupils".⁷⁵

Maori Education Foundation

In 1960, the Department of Maori Affairs published a report,⁷⁶

which placed considerable stress on the power of education to lift the status and morale of the Maori people. "Education," said the report, "... will, in the long run, do most for the cause of Maori achievement."⁷⁷ The report strongly recommended the setting up of a Maori Education Foundation, which, it was convinced, "would transform the scene within ten years".⁷⁸ The Government acted quickly on this recommendation; the Maori Education Foundation Act 1961 established the Foundation "... for the general purpose of promoting and encouraging the better education of Maoris, and of providing financial assistance for that purpose". There was an initial government grant of £125,000, and an undertaking to provide a pound for pound subsidy on all voluntary contributions.⁷⁹ The concept of the Foundation caught the imagination of the public; individuals and organisations⁸⁰ in all sections of the community responded liberally to a nation-wide appeal for funds, the Maori people themselves contributing, by mid-1962, eight times their quota.⁸¹ The Director was convinced that "... the establishment of the Foundation has greatly stimulated interest in all phases of Maori education".⁸²

In September, 1962, the Foundation issued a major policy statement, setting out its objectives under nine headings.⁸³ Thereafter, by regular notice in the *Education Gazette* and the country's principal newspapers, the Foundation offered financial help to Maori pupils. Most of the assistance granted each year was at secondary school level. For example, of the 1,007 grants made in 1965, 940 were to assist with the cost of secondary school or hostel boarding fees and school uniform requirements.⁸⁴ By 1967, the Foundation had made about 3,500 grants, to a total value of £250,000.⁸⁵

During the 60's, the Foundation also supported a number of other projects aimed at promoting the educational advancement of the Maori people. In 1963, it sponsored a Research Fellow in Maori Education, who was to investigate ways to help teachers give Maori children a better command of English.⁸⁶ For at least three years (1964-66), the Foundation provided a library study bursary;⁸⁷ as well, it regularly offered help to students wishing to pursue university studies or other vocational training at tertiary level.⁸⁸ In 1965, in conjunction with the P.P.T.A., the Foundation inaugurated a nation-wide speech contest, in English, for Maori pupils in forms 5 and 6. The Governor-General⁸⁹ donated a trophy for this contest, which soon became a prestigious annual event, and did much to promote in Maori pupils the ancient Maori tradition of oratory. The Maori Education Foundation has, since its inception, played a major role in the ongoing task of encouraging and enabling young Maoris, in their own and the nation's interest, to derive the maximum benefit from their educational opportunities.

Other assistance to Maori and Pacific Island pupils

The long-established Maori secondary school scholarships and Maori university scholarships continued in this period. By 1970, the number of secondary school scholarships available annually had been increased to 140, eighty of which were set aside for Polynesian pupils for whom no facilities for secondary schooling were available locally.⁹⁰ Rates of payment under the Maori university scholarships scheme were raised modestly from 1966,⁹¹ and again, somewhat more substantially, from 1970.⁹² The number of these scholarships was also increased, at intervals, during the 60's. By 1971, fifteen awards were being made annually, tenable at technical institutes or

universities, and available to students of Pacific Island descent living in New Zealand as well as to Maoris.⁹³ Several Maori Trust Boards⁹⁴ also offered scholarships to promising Maori pupils attending post-primary schools.⁹⁵ In 1968, the Ngarimu, V.C. Scholarships Fund Board made available two-year post-School Certificate secondary school scholarships, valued at \$120 a year, to suitably qualified pupils.⁹⁶ Since 1964, the same Board, with the object of encouraging Maori studies, had been sponsoring an essay competition in five sections, four of which were open to secondary school pupils.⁹⁷ Schools with a high proportion of Maori or Pacific Island pupils on their rolls benefited from the special staffing concession introduced by the Government from 1970 (see chapter 12, footnote 154). In that year, twenty additional teachers were appointed among eleven schools. When the qualifying percentage was reduced in 1971, eleven more teachers were appointed among six schools.⁹⁸

The capacity of the Department to respond to the need to make better provision for non-European pupils in secondary schools was increased in 1965, when the Government appointed an Officer for Maori Education; within a few months, it was seeking an assistant for this officer.⁹⁹ In 1969, by which time there were six thousand Pacific Island children attending primary and secondary schools in New Zealand, the positions of Officer for Maori Education and Officer for Islands Education were amalgamated in order to achieve greater cohesion in these areas of the Department's work.¹⁰⁰ Like his predecessors, the new Officer for Maori and Islands Education was to play a key role in formulating policy, in promoting Maori and Pacific Island education, and in coordinating the work of the many organisations involved in it.¹⁰¹ Particularly important amongst these

organisations were the National Advisory Committee on Maori Education, the Advisory Committee on the Teaching of the Maori Language, the Maori Education Foundation, and the Maori Affairs and Education Inter-departmental Committee. In 1970, the Government appointed a specialist adviser on Maori secondary education. This officer, based in Auckland, was to "assist in furthering the educational progress of the Maori and other Polynesian people in New Zealand". His duties included advisory visits to schools; conducting in-service training programmes for teachers; organising holiday courses for senior pupils; and maintaining regular contact with parents.¹⁰²

A number of schools extended their remedial teaching programmes in the 60's to offer special help to non-English speaking pupils;¹⁰³ homework centres were also instituted throughout the country to provide Polynesian secondary pupils with study facilities not usually available in their own homes. A typical centre was that at Ohinemutu, which operated on four nights a week from 5.30 to 7.30p.m. The work was supervised on a voluntary basis by parents, assisted by an adult competent to answer questions.¹⁰⁴ In his Report for 1968, the Director-General referred to a new venture which had been undertaken that year, a holiday course in citizenship for Maori girls who would soon be leaving secondary school. The course was designed to give the girls some idea of the kind of life they could expect to find when they came to the city to look for work.¹⁰⁵ From this beginning, full-scale 'Live in a City' courses were soon being offered for rural Maori girls,¹⁰⁶ while senior boys were similarly catered for by special pre-vocational holiday courses sponsored by private organisations, especially in the Auckland area.¹⁰⁷ The Annual Report of the Maori Affairs Department for 1966-67 also indicated that there was "much

enthusiasm for the visits of rural Maori parents to city areas to study types of employment and accommodation available ...".¹⁰⁸ Such initiatives were of great value in helping prospective Maori school leavers to sort out their vocational preferences, learn about the educational prerequisites for various occupations, and come to terms with the implications of urban living.

Promoting Maori language and culture

Reference has already been made to the speech contest for the Korimako Trophy, and to the Ngarimu, V.C. essay competition, both designed to increase pupils' understanding of Maori traditions, customs, and skills. Secondary school pupils also showed increased interest, in the 60's and early 70's, in learning the Maori language. By 1970, Maori was being taught in thirty secondary schools to 2,400 pupils;¹⁰⁹ in the following year, 3,000 pupils in forty-seven schools were learning Maori.¹¹⁰ This work was supported by a steady flow of resource material prepared largely by the Advisory Committee on the Teaching of the Maori Language, and issued by the School Publications Branch. *Te Wharekura*, the bulletins in Maori for secondary school pupils, appeared regularly two or three times a year. They provided supplementary reading for pupils from form 3 to form 6, as well as being a "stimulus and outlet" for Maori writers and artists.¹¹¹ Book 1 of *Te Rangatahi*, the series of Maori textbooks prepared by John Waititi, and intended to provide a School Certificate course in the Maori language, appeared early in 1963; book 2 was published the following year. This text was soon in wide use in New Zealand secondary schools. The author was seconded to the Department for two years (1964-65), when much of his time was spent helping teachers to

use the new texts effectively.¹¹² A revised edition of book 1 of *Te Rangatahi* appeared in 1970; at the same time, work was begun on a re-writing of book 2.¹¹³ A revised edition of *A Dictionary of the Maori Language* (Williams) also became available in 1970.¹¹⁴ Another useful teaching aid prepared under the auspices of the Advisory Committee on the Teaching of the Maori Language was a series of tapes and instructional booklets under the general title 'The Arts of the Maori'. The first of these was distributed late in 1962;¹¹⁵ other numbers followed at regular intervals.¹¹⁶ All in all, pupils studying Maori in secondary schools in the 60's were as well provided with learning resources, especially printed matter, as any pupils taking a language. Moreover, the material was all produced in New Zealand, enabling it to be directly related to the everyday lives and interests of the pupils. Late in 1970, the Minister, acting on a recommendation of the reconstituted National Advisory Committee on Maori Education,¹¹⁷ approved of the Maori language being taught as an official subject in form 2 in selected schools¹¹⁸ which contributed to secondary schools where Maori was part of the curriculum.¹¹⁹ A handbook for teachers of form 2 Maori classes was prepared and distributed. From the mid-60's onwards, the linguistic problems of Maori children came under increasing attention from teachers and the Department. In-service courses to give teachers a clearer understanding of the educational needs of Maoris and Pacific Islanders were held at Lopdell House at least annually.¹²⁰ Sometimes, the proceedings of a particularly significant course, such as the national in-service course on the education of non-European children held in May, 1969, were published, which ensured that information about course deliberations and findings became available to everyone.¹²¹

Further signs of progress

In 1967, Bradly cited evidence of "noticeable changes in the attitude of Maori parents towards further education". He referred, in particular, to the fact that two hundred Maori adults were enrolled in School Certificate classes in 1966, which suggested that the older generation of Maoris were coming to accept that entry to the more skilled occupations depended on educational attainments.¹²² An indication that senior Maori pupils were beginning to assume some responsibility for their own educational and social development was given in July, 1968, when Maori pupils at Thames High School hosted a fifth and sixth-form Maori student conference. In addition to the host school's pupils, sixty-five visiting pupils and teachers were present. The conference discussed the special needs of Maori pupils in education; those who attended found the experience both stimulating and rewarding.¹²³

Conclusion

By the beginning of the 70's, there were many such encouraging signs that Maori and Pacific Island pupils were responding to the quite substantial investment being made in their education by a number of agencies. One critic claimed that, possibly, too much attention was being given to Maori education, which he considered "has become a bandwagon upon which many groups, including the media, have jumped".¹²⁴ Clearly, the task in the 70's would be to maintain the momentum built up in the 60's in support of improved educational opportunities for Maori and Pacific Island pupils without alienating any section of the community by over exposing the issues involved.

CURRICULUM ORGANISATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

Revision and innovation

The chief characteristic of secondary school curricula of the 60's was change. Existing courses were scrutinised and often modified, if not completely re-organised, sometimes to the point where teachers found that they had to master a new descriptive language;¹²⁵ new subjects were introduced, including some, such as driver training,¹²⁶ which were well outside the traditional subject areas. By the end of the decade, many schools were offering liberal studies or social education courses in forms 6 and 7; a number of schools had introduced 'electives' periods into the curriculum; accounting, economics, and history of art had been included in the list of subjects available to senior classes; and additional foreign languages, such as Russian, Japanese, and Indonesian, were being taught to growing numbers of pupils. To some extent, these changes represented a shift in emphasis. As well as expecting the secondary schools to provide pupils with intellectual training, society now looked to the schools to offer opportunities for physical, social, and emotional development. The new Lower Sixth Form Certificate (replacing the Endorsed School Certificate), introduced in 1969, gave principals much greater flexibility in planning courses to meet these extended expectations.¹²⁷ In the first year of the new Certificate's operation, the Director-General reported that schools had established a number of good non-University Entrance programmes in technical subjects, home economics, commercial subjects, and art.¹²⁸ There were also many changes in teaching methods in the 60's. Technological

advances made available a new range of teaching aids - overhead projectors, tape recorders, language laboratories - and made possible new activities, like film making and computer programming.¹²⁹ A feature of the curriculum revision exercises of the 60's was the emphasis placed on first determining the fundamental objectives of the course concerned. The preambles to School Certificate subject prescriptions normally included such a statement.¹³⁰

The Curriculum Development Unit and advances in the form 1-4 area

The single most powerful stimulus to curriculum development in the 60's was the Department's Curriculum Development Unit. Key appointments to the staff of the Unit were made within months of its establishment, enabling it to provide leadership in a range of curriculum development projects, especially a number affecting forms 1-4.¹³¹ A revision of the general science syllabus for forms 1-4, begun in 1964, was completed in 1967.¹³² The new syllabus, progressively introduced into the schools from 1968, was the first prescription expressly designed to link the primary and secondary systems.¹³³ It became the official syllabus at form 3 level in 1969. The Curriculum Development Unit helped with the implementation of the new syllabus by producing background bulletins and teachers' guides.¹³⁴ A foreign languages officer, appointed to the Unit in 1964, had visited most of the intermediate schools teaching French by the end of that year. In 1965, a small number of pilot areas containing secondary and intermediate schools were set up to determine what could be achieved by coordinating language teaching in the two types of school.¹³⁵ The two curriculum officers in mathematics stimulated collaboration between primary and secondary teachers of mathematics,¹³⁶ though it was to be some time before a draft form 1-4

syllabus in that subject was produced. Social studies programmes also came under scrutiny in 1965, with a Lopdell House 'guidelines' conference in August, directed by curriculum officers, sowing the seeds for the eventual production of a form 1-4 social studies syllabus.¹³⁷ By 1967, teachers were calling for a revision of the forms 3 and 4 social studies prescriptions to incorporate elements from the social sciences as well as the traditional history and geography components.¹³⁸ District in-service courses in social studies in 1968 brought primary and secondary teachers together;¹³⁹ in March, 1969, a widely representative National Form 1-5 Social Studies Syllabus Committee was set up to review the form 1-4 syllabus, and prepare a new syllabus for form 5.¹⁴⁰ Planning began at once on an integrated curriculum for forms 1-4. Draft programmes of work for each form level were published in June, 1970; schools trialled sample units of work that year, in preparation for a more comprehensive evaluation of the draft syllabus in 1971.¹⁴¹ In the meantime, the Curriculum Development Unit was continuing to promote a new syllabus in modern mathematics for forms 1-4.¹⁴² A draft syllabus for these classes was drawn up in the late 60's; after undergoing considerable modification on the advice of departmental officers and the teachers' organisations,¹⁴³ this syllabus was finally approved for publication in 1971.¹⁴⁴ By then, all primary school classes had completed the transition from traditional to modern mathematics, which meant that pupils entering form 3 in 1971 would have already had three years' experience with modern mathematics.¹⁴⁵ The Curriculum Development Unit's curriculum bulletins, teaching guides, resource units, handbooks, newsletters, and background notes made a major contribution to the introduction of the new syllabus.¹⁴⁶

Further promotion of curriculum review and development

A number of other agencies also did much to promote curriculum review and development in the 60's. In 1963, the Department increased its establishment of district advisers in reading and music from two to ten. Although these officers spent much of their time in primary schools, they were of some help to teachers in post-primary and district high schools as well.¹⁴⁷ The Department also continued to produce *Post-primary Bulletins* in the 60's. These provided valuable resource material, particularly in English, social studies, the sciences, and general studies.¹⁴⁸ The post-primary subject lists issued periodically by the School Library Service, though covering almost every subject of the curriculum, were of most help to teachers of English and languages.¹⁴⁹ In 1962, the Universities Entrance Board decided to set up national and regional syllabus revision committees to review each Entrance and Scholarships subject prescription at five-yearly intervals.¹⁵⁰ This decision, which tidied up what had previously been a haphazard policy of prescription revision, was in line with the review procedures of the Department and the P.P.T.A.'s subject panels.

Organising pupils' programmes of study

During the 60's, almost all secondary schools abandoned the traditional course structure in favour of a more pupil-centred organisation of classes. In most schools, this meant providing all pupils in forms 3 and 4 with a programme of core studies plus two or (more rarely) three optional subjects selected on a 'free choice' basis. At first, the core subject classes tended to remain streamed, but, by the early 70's, some schools were moving towards mixed ability

groupings in forms 3 and 4. The introduction of options gave pupils a genuine and wider choice of subjects. Those who wished to concentrate on one area (languages, technical, commercial) could still do so, while previously impossible combinations of subjects (French and technical drawing; commercial practice and clothing; metalwork and Maori) were now available. Another advantage of the new arrangement was its flexibility; since pupils were no longer tied to a course, changes of programme could be more readily accommodated. Schools also found that the option system helped to break down sex stereotyping in subject choices; now, more girls were taking subjects like technical drawing, woodwork, and agriculture, while boys were appearing in greater numbers in home economics and typing classes.¹⁵¹ Even where a type of course structure was maintained, highly specialised courses were discontinued. At Wellington High School, the engineering and building courses of technical college days had been combined into a technical course by 1965.¹⁵² A few schools experimented with variations on the general pattern. In the mid-60's, Rangiora High School was treating form 3 as an exploratory year, and offering a range of elective options to all pupils except those choosing the professional course. In forms 4 and 5, Rangiora reverted to a vocational-type course structure.¹⁵³

The changes made in forms 3 and 4 had a 'flow on' effect on senior school programmes of study. Here, too, class organisation by courses was largely abandoned, with most schools offering forms 5, 6, and 7 a range of options organised (for timetable purposes) in four or five groups. Subjects most frequently chosen (mathematics, geography, biology) appeared in more than one group. Under this system, pupils were generally able to study the subjects of their choice; in the

event of a timetable clash, they could always take a subject through the Correspondence School. Almost invariably, English was a compulsory subject in all senior school classes. There was a definite trend away from specialisation in forms 4 and 5 in the early 60's. Many schools offered six-subject School Certificate programmes, partly so that pupils could keep their options open for another year.¹⁵⁴ With the introduction of single subject passes in School Certificate in 1968, schools came under pressure to adjust senior school timetables to accommodate pupils who wished to study at more than one level.¹⁵⁵ More and more, the emphasis was on schools tailoring their programmes to meet the needs of pupils, rather than requiring pupils to make the best of pre-determined course structures. Another move which broadened the senior school curriculum in the 60's was the introduction of electives, usually a double period once a week offering pupils a wide range of general interest programmes, with the option of changing classes at the beginning of each term. Many schools enlisted the help of qualified people in the community to enable them to offer a greater diversity of elective courses.¹⁵⁶

Slow learner programmes, under a variety of names, were an integral part of the organisation of almost all post-primary schools by the early 60's. Pupils likely to require special assistance in the basic skills were identified (with the cooperation of contributing schools) on entry, and catered for in relatively small classes on a home room basis during their third and fourth-form years. Most schools arranged for their slow learners to join with other pupils in subjects like music and physical education, so that they were not cut off completely from the mainstream of school life. A major difficulty facing schools which were trying to provide for the special needs of

their below average pupils was the attitude of many parents (and, not infrequently, pupils), who were convinced that a school programme which did not lead to School Certificate must be inferior, and was, therefore, to be avoided. The introduction of single subject passes in School Certificate enabled schools to satisfy parental demands by designing programmes for slow learners at form 5 level which incorporated one or two School Certificate subjects, as well as other appropriate studies and (generally) a work experience component. Regrettably, there was almost no official recognition, during the 60's, that slow learners needed special help. Schools had to do what they could for these pupils from their own resources, since, as Gordon pointed out, hardly any of the Currie Commission's recommendations for the education of slow learners, most of which called for extra government assistance, had been implemented.^{157, 158} The Government did make some provision for the post-primary education of children of very limited intellectual ability, who were catered for in 'special' or 'vocational' classes attached to post-primary schools. These classes, which received more favourable treatment in respect of accommodation, resources, and teacher-pupil ratios, accepted pupils only on the recommendation of a departmental psychologist.¹⁵⁹ Special classes offered a curriculum with a practical bias geared to the capacities, needs, and interests of the pupils; some type of work experience in the community was nearly always included. The first two special classes - both in main centres - were established in 1962; thereafter, their number increased steadily, until, at the end of 1967, there were twenty-eight such classes in sixteen schools.¹⁶⁰ By 1970, there were fifty special classes in operation.¹⁶¹ Residential in-service training courses for teachers of special classes, lasting for six weeks, were inaugurated in 1963, providing teachers with the

opportunity to consider the type of curriculum best suited to the educational, vocational, and social needs of pupils of severely limited academic ability.¹⁶² The special classes, as well as slow learner classes, boosted the confidence and self-esteem of their members, encouraging them to realise that there were things they could do, and do well. The classes also helped those less gifted intellectually to accept, and even enjoy, schooling and what it had to offer them. Schools with well-organised slow learner programmes found that they experienced relatively few disciplinary problems with this section of their pupils.

In the 60's, programmes designed to provide a link between the world of school and the world of employment became increasingly common in New Zealand secondary schools. Usually known as 'work experience', these programmes normally provided for pupils (generally at form 5 level, though some schools had schemes for fourth and even sixth formers) to spend one day a week in the workplace. Pupils on work experience were not paid, though they were covered by insurance taken out by their employers. In most cases, they were able to select their own places of work, where they spent anything from six weeks to six months. Schools found it necessary, in everyone's interest, to see that work experience schemes were carefully organised, with full parental involvement, regular visits to pupils on the job by school staff, and close liaison with employers, who were asked to give an assessment of pupils at the end of their period of employment. Work experience programmes aimed to give pupils an insight into jobs which they could be interested in taking up, some experience in relating to adults other than teachers and parents, and an opportunity to appreciate the value in the workplace of reliability, honesty,

friendliness, and adaptability. For the most part, they were not intended to serve as placement schemes. Such programmes also made schoolwork more meaningful for many pupils, who saw, in their jobs, the relevance of much of the core curriculum to everyday situations encountered out of school. Muriel May claimed that it was a girls' school (Queen's High School, Dunedin)¹⁶³ which, in 1961, pioneered work experience classes in New Zealand post-primary schools.¹⁶⁴ By the end of the decade, a large number of schools were running work experience programmes;¹⁶⁵ ten years later, such classes were a regular part of the curriculum of almost every secondary school.

The individual subjects of the curriculum

Music

Following its spectacular development in the post-Thomas years, music continued to prosper in the 60's, despite a chronic shortage of qualified music teachers. As more and more schools acquired proper facilities for teaching music, core music classes could be given lessons which were much more likely to capture their interest and imagination than had been the case in the 50's. Nevertheless, many schools did not include music in their fourth-form curricula. Strictly speaking, such schools were not conforming to regulations, but the inspectors were obliged to accept the situation, since they (and the schools) realised that any attempt to force the issue would simply result in schools losing their music teachers altogether. It was understood, at the time, though not sanctioned by any regulation, that schools offering full music programmes were not obliged to teach core music at form 4 level. Music leading to School Certificate and University Entrance was included among the options of a growing number

of schools (including boys' schools)¹⁶⁶ in the 60's and early 70's; a few schools taught music right through to University Scholarships level.¹⁶⁷

Out-of-class music making was a prominent feature of school life almost everywhere. Rangiora High School experienced "... a magical expansion in musical activity" in the mid-60's. A Glee Club of senior boys "took over wet weather lunch hours"; third-form girls' choirs sprang up; music camps became the order of the day; orchestras, bands, and choir work flourished.¹⁶⁸ At Christchurch Girls' High School, in 1965, half the school (356 girls) were members of the orchestra or one of the five school choirs.¹⁶⁹ Kuranui College's operatic productions were a high point of the school year throughout the 60's.¹⁷⁰ A red-letter event for singers from Wellington East Girls' College was a trip to Auckland in 1969 to take part in a performance of Berlioz's *Te Deum* during the Auckland Festival.¹⁷¹ Equally diverse and stimulating musical happenings were taking place in the 60's in most of the other secondary schools in New Zealand. In the best of them, pupils could justifiably refer to "... the all encompassing music which gave unity, and enabled each of us to contribute something significant of ourselves".¹⁷²

Four special activities did much to promote the cause of school music at this time. The group instrumental instruction scheme,¹⁷³ introduced in the 50's by the Department, expanded to the point where insufficient part-time teachers were available to carry out the work. From 1963, therefore, the Department began employing full-time teachers of instrumental music,¹⁷⁴ which enabled even more pupils to benefit from this scheme.¹⁷⁵ The institution of regular orchestral

holiday courses for post-primary pupils in 1960 brought about "a dramatic rise in standards, both in instrumental and orchestral playing".¹⁷⁶ The courses, which were held in Christchurch (May)¹⁷⁷ and Auckland (December) each year, aimed to provide school instrumentalists with orchestral training so that they could eventually join the National Youth Orchestra. Players paid their own fares to and from the venues, but were provided with accommodation during the course.¹⁷⁸ In 1967, an annual choral holiday week for secondary school pupils, held in the August holidays, was inaugurated.¹⁷⁹ Places in both the orchestral and choral courses were keenly sought after, with enthusiasm for musical activities very evident in most schools. Only the high cost of good quality instruments prevented even greater pupil participation in orchestral work. The junior string quartet contest for post-primary schools organised by the New Zealand Chamber Music Federation was replaced in 1964 by a junior chamber music contest sponsored (from 1966) by the Bank of New South Wales. By the mid-60's, between seventy and eighty school ensembles were taking part in this contest each year, a further indication of the vitality of secondary school music at this time.¹⁸⁰ Finally, the inauguration of further secondary school music festivals (Eastern Bay of Plenty, 1963 and Otago, 1970)¹⁸¹ gave singers and instrumentalists the opportunity to combine with others in making music, an experience which most found stimulating and enriching. Of considerable value to teachers of music were the regular school music reviews and music notes by Ralph Lilly published in the *P.P.T.A. Journal*.¹⁸² The Department also produced a useful handbook, "Suggestions for Teaching Music in Secondary Schools", in 1970.¹⁸³

Physical education

A legacy of the 50's which continued to limit physical education programmes in many schools in the 60's was lack of buildings. The Government's standard post-primary school building plans did not provide for gymnasia. The Currie Commission deplored the lack of proper accommodation for physical education in so many schools; it considered that gymnasia should be provided at least in city schools with limited grounds, as well as in schools where the climate made outdoor work impossible for a substantial part of the school year.¹⁸⁴ There was no change in government policy, however, until the S.68 design was adopted.¹⁸⁵ Admittedly, the government subsidy scheme¹⁸⁶ was available, and many schools, assisted by their communities, raised funds in the 60's to build their own gymnasia. A Head Office spokesperson stated that, in 1970, 65 per cent of the state secondary schools had a gymnasium,¹⁸⁷ with a further eighteen gymnasia under construction.¹⁸⁸ A survey conducted by Bassett in 1965 revealed that, of the gymnasia that were in use, about two-thirds had inadequate (or, quite often, non-existent) heating and poor storage facilities, while more than half were too small.¹⁸⁹ Constraints imposed by school timetables also restricted the physical education programmes of some schools. A fixed amount of time for physical education for form 5 classes was not always provided in the 60's, despite the Currie Commission's belief that it should be;¹⁹⁰ sixth-form classes rarely had timetabled physical education periods.¹⁹¹ In a number of schools, the size of physical education classes militated against effective work being done. Double classes in the gymnasium were not uncommon, while combining two mixed classes so that boys and girls could have physical education at separate times often produced groups of disproportionate size.¹⁹² A departmental official giving evidence to

the Currie Commission said that he knew of two post-primary schools where classes for physical education and music in form 3 were drawn up on the basis of the pupils' type of voice. This enabled the schools to get all the trebles together at one time, "and then they put them to physical education a hundred at a time".¹⁹³ The content of physical education lessons became more varied in the 60's, with greater attention being given to health education, fitness activities, various types of gymnastics, and (for girls) creative dance. Schools made good use of a handbook on physical education for secondary school girls issued by the Department in 1970.¹⁹⁴

Outdoor education

Established as an integral part of the curriculum in the 50's,¹⁹⁵ outdoor education assumed even greater significance in the programmes of many schools in the 60's. While the 'adventure camping' type of activity, concentrating on bushcraft, self-reliance, group living skills, and leadership training,¹⁹⁶ remained popular, there was an increasing emphasis on schools acquiring permanent accommodation for their outdoor education work. Some schools, like Christchurch Boys' High School, put up their own buildings (Mountain House, 1962);¹⁹⁷ others, like New Plymouth Boys' High School, hired accommodation in appropriate settings;¹⁹⁸ yet others combined forces to erect quite substantial lodges, the first of which, Rotoiti Lodge, a joint venture on the part of seven schools in the Nelson-Marlborough area, was in use by 1968.¹⁹⁹ All outdoor education programmes had a two-fold purpose: to provide opportunities to carry out field work related to subjects the pupils were studying at school; and to "broaden the experience of [pupils] socially".²⁰⁰ Although the courses were run mainly by teachers, parents were often involved as helpers; the

services of park rangers, mountain safety personnel, and others with special skills were also used, on occasion. By the end of the 60's, educational activities linked with the outdoors were part of the normal curriculum of many schools, especially at form 4 and form 6 levels. Since the great majority of pupils relished the opportunity to undertake outdoor education projects, the benefits they derived from them were substantial. The development of this aspect of the curriculum can be considered one of the success stories of secondary schooling in New Zealand in the 60's and 70's.

Arts and crafts

Although some schools reported increased pupil interest in art in the 60's,²⁰¹ the subject, for the most part, did not occupy a very important place in school curricula. A survey carried out by Graham in 1966, involving 75 per cent of all state secondary schools, revealed that, in forms 3 and 4, only about a quarter of the pupils were doing art, while the remaining three-quarters were taking a craft other than art. Fewer than 20 per cent of pupils in form 5 were studying art, with only 8.75 per cent including art (then called drawing and design) among their School Certificate subjects. In the lower sixth form, 3 per cent were doing a Fine Arts Preliminary course, while a further 8 per cent were taking non-examination art. At upper sixth-form level, only 3.4 per cent of pupils included art in their programmes.²⁰² The position in the senior school showed some improvement when art became a subject for University Entrance from 1969.²⁰³ The Director-General reported that both the prescription and the first examination for this new subject were well received by the schools, adding that art could fill "a useful role in the general liberalising of sixth-form courses".²⁰⁴ Factors which inhibited the

development of art in a number of schools included poor facilities (inadequate working and storage space) and insufficient equipment, both of which limited the range (and thus the attraction) of the activities the schools could make available. Schools with more adequate resources were able to offer quite diversified art programmes, which included clay modelling, screen printing, papier-maché work, and photography.²⁰⁵ Art teachers were in reasonably good supply in the 60's, though many of them were not efficient organisers, and some experienced more than the normal share of disciplinary problems. Relatively few art teachers held, or could aspire to hold, positions of responsibility at that time. Some outside agencies encouraged the promotion of art in the secondary schools in the 60's. The New Zealand Broadcasting Corporation sponsored a students' art contest in 1967,²⁰⁶ while the National Bank financed, each May from 1971, a week-long art workshop for twenty-five fifth, sixth, and seventh-form pupils from all over New Zealand.²⁰⁷ In addition, the *Christchurch Star* and the *Auckland Star* regularly sponsored secondary schools' art exhibitions covering the South and North Islands respectively.

As Graham's statistics showed, craft subjects had a much larger following than art in forms 3 and 4 in the 60's. This is not surprising, since all the optional homecraft subjects, as well as woodwork and metalwork, which many pupils were studying anyway, satisfied the core requirements in respect of a craft. Beyond form 4, crafts were usually an adjunct of the art course, except in senior school electives programmes, where activities such as pottery, wood carving, weaving, and fine needlework were offered in their own right. The School Publications Branch helped by producing the series of

instructional booklets on the arts and crafts of the Maori already referred to;²⁰⁸ it also published a handbook, "Working with Clay", in 1970.²⁰⁹

The number of pupils studying technical drawing rose dramatically once it became available across the board with the gradual elimination of courses in the 60's. The fact that it was the only University Entrance subject with a technical orientation ensured that it retained a substantial following in forms 5 and 6. A number of school histories recorded its popularity at all levels from the mid-60's onwards;²¹⁰ by 1968, it was among the ten most commonly offered School Certificate subjects, attracting about one candidate in every eight.²¹¹ The Department's new "Guide for Teachers of Technical Drawing", issued in 1968, was both useful and timely.

Woodwork and metalwork

Woodwork and metalwork (engineering shopwork in form 5) underwent few changes in the 60's, apart from the introduction of new School Certificate prescriptions in both subjects from 1963. The main feature of the revised prescriptions was the elimination of the practical marks component, though schools were still required to offer a full course of practical work.²¹² This change was received with mixed feelings by teachers, the Technical Education Committee of the P.P.T.A. reporting that it had "... caused some dissatisfaction among members, but appears to be in the best interests of candidates in general".²¹³ By the early 70's, a movement was gaining momentum to return woodwork and metalwork to their earlier status as non-examination craft subjects, and to replace them at School Certificate level by a new subject, workshop technology.

Homecraft and clothing

Practical marks in School Certificate homecraft and clothing were also dispensed with from 1963. The scope of both of these subjects was broadened in the late 60's. Homecraft was redesigned to bring it more into line with what the Thomas Committee had had in mind: "... a course that is very closely related to the life of the home and its members, and that conceives of home-making as an art that calls not only for practical efficiency but also for taste and an understanding of non-material needs".²¹⁴ The revised subject, renamed home economics, and examined as such in School Certificate for the first time in 1971, emphasised, in form 5, meal planning, foods and nutrition, and the home and home management. There was also a section on laundry work. Clothing was replaced (at School Certificate level, from 1970) by clothing and textiles, which now included quite a detailed study of fibres and fabrics, a section on personal appearance ('You and Your Clothes'), and a study of sewing equipment and the use of patterns, in addition to garment making. Both subjects required pupils to complete a prescribed minimum of practical work in forms 3, 4, and 5.²¹⁵

Commercial subjects

Developments in secondary school commercial subjects in the 60's included the introduction of a new School Certificate subject, typewriting, from 1967.²¹⁶ Just over 1,900 candidates (4.6 per cent of all candidates) entered for typewriting that year, while a further 2,600 (6.3 per cent) sat shorthand-typewriting.²¹⁷ These totals demonstrated the relatively strong support still accorded vocationally-based options. Bookkeeping and, to an even greater extent, commercial practice attracted a progressively smaller

proportion of School Certificate candidates in the second half of the 60's,²¹⁸ but both subjects remained comfortably within the ten most commonly selected options. The School Certificate prescriptions in both typewriting and bookkeeping were revised in 1971; at the same time, University Entrance bookkeeping was renamed accounting, though the prescription remained largely unchanged.²¹⁹ During the 60's and early 70's, the number of senior business courses offered by secondary schools increased substantially. One such course, introduced at Queen's High School in 1969, concentrated on shorthand, typing, office practice, and general education, enabling those enrolled in it to qualify for Lower Sixth Form Certificate.²²⁰ By 1973, at least eight other schools were offering similar courses.²²¹ Work experience was a feature of some of these programmes. A number of schools also provided opportunities for commercial pupils to gain practical experience in their own offices and stationery shops.²²²

Agriculture

When Rangiora High School adopted its new course structure in 1965 based on elective options, there was such a sharp increase in the number of pupils (including some girls) taking agriculture that the School had to engage an additional teacher.²²³ This, however, was not the experience elsewhere. New Plymouth Boys' High School discontinued teaching agriculture after 1965;²²⁴ in the same year, Waitaki Boys' High School, which had once had one of the largest agriculture departments in the country, phased out its agriculture programme. Waitaki's principal recommended this step to his board because he favoured giving pupils a general education at secondary school, with vocational training delayed until the post-secondary years.²²⁵ In 1967, Napier Boys' High School, with a school farm of 260 acres, was

teaching agriculture to over two hundred boys.²²⁶ However, its pig farming operation, introduced in 1963, experienced labour problems and a lack of skills in pig management, which led to the closure of the project in 1970.²²⁷ The farm at Napier Boys' was used less and less for teaching purposes in the late 60's; in 1978, an advertisement for a teacher of agriculture at the School referred to the "school farmlet".²²⁸ Even Feilding Agricultural High School reached the point, in the 60's, where the academic course became dominant. As the School's historian put it: "Agriculture is in no way relegated to an inferior status, but it is no longer the major discipline of the School."²²⁹ The Bursar Report (1972) listed only four secondary schools in New Zealand as having farms.²³⁰ A number of other schools were also still teaching agriculture in the early 70's, but the subject was clearly languishing.

English

Although the key word in curriculum matters in the 60's was change, few reforms took place in English until the decade was nearly over. The close scrutiny to which syllabuses and teaching methods in social studies, mathematics, and science were subjected from the early 60's seemed to bypass English, possibly because the Department and the teachers who were likely to be called on to direct the reforms realised how immensely complex the task would be. Nevertheless, it was obvious that the existing English syllabus, written in 1942, and hardly changed since then, had to be re-examined. Finally, a Lopdell House course was organised in 1969 "to prepare guidelines for the revision of the secondary school English syllabus".²³¹ Goddard claimed that this course was "... of great significance in that it marked the start of what we hope will be a major re-thinking of the

English syllabus for forms 3-5".²³² Early in the following year, a representative national committee was set up to undertake this task.²³³ The Committee kept teachers informed of its work and progress through newsletters, the first of which appeared in June, 1970. The second newsletter (February, 1971) provided information about the proposed revisions to serve as a basis for discussions at regional meetings to be held for the purpose in February and March. Further details of the proposed revisions were contained in a third newsletter issued in June, 1971.²³⁴ The new English syllabus, which placed considerable emphasis on the development of speaking and listening skills, was enthusiastically received by many teachers; however, it was opposed with equal fervour by many others, so that the process of revision became protracted and, at times, acrimonious.²³⁵ It was not until late in 1972 that the Committee issued its "Draft Statement of Aims".²³⁶ Meanwhile, changes to the University Entrance, Bursaries, and Scholarships English prescriptions, incorporating a new development in linguistic science (transformational grammar), demanded a fresh approach to the study of language in forms 6 and 7.²³⁷ A special Lopdell House course in 1969 on language study and linguistics in the senior school set in train the production of an unprecedented flow of resource material, beginning with a teachers' guide to the study of language in form 7, prepared by the Department with assistance from three universities. There followed a number of language resource tapes (eventually available on cassettes) covering all three prescriptions,²³⁸ a resource folio containing eight units of work, several Curriculum Development Unit bulletins, and a considerable amount of other material both printed and recorded, much of it made available to the schools before the end of 1970. In 1972, the Government made a free issue of tape recorders to schools with

forms 6 and 7 English classes to facilitate the study of language.²³⁹ Assistance on this scale enabled the schools to come to grips with the new syllabus much more confidently and successfully than they could possibly have done otherwise. Late in 1969, the School Certificate Regulations were amended to make English an optional subject for School Certificate. Pupils who wished to go on to form 6 still had to sit and pass (i.e., score at least 30 per cent) in School Certificate English; others could now meet the requirements by completing, to the satisfaction of the school principal, a non-examination course in English.²⁴⁰ Apart from discrediting the School Certificate examination in the eyes of many people,²⁴¹ this dispensation had little effect. Few schools had enough non-examination candidates to make up special English classes; the pupils who did not intend to enter for School Certificate English simply 'sat in' on regular School Certificate classes, doing as little work as possible, and, not infrequently, adding to the difficulties of pupils who wanted to learn. There were those who believed, not without justification, that the removal of compulsory English marked the beginning of the end as far as public faith in the credibility of the School Certificate examination was concerned.

Notwithstanding the new emphasis on speaking and listening skills in secondary school English, the first New Zealand Conference on Reading, promoted by the New Zealand branch of the International Reading Association in August, 1970, was enthusiastically and widely supported. The Conference became an annual event. The School Library Service continued to give considerable support to schools in the 60's by compiling recommended reading lists (books for 'not-so-eager' readers, contemporary fiction for forms 5 and 6, books for boys in

forms 4 and 5 who are reluctant readers, and so on), while publications by New Zealand writers, such as J.G. Brown's *The Poetry Lesson* (1964), *The Poetry Magazine*, edited by Barry Mitcalfe (1967),²⁴² and a manual, "A Writing Programme for Sixth Forms", by Phoebe Meikle (1967), helped English teachers to offer their pupils more relevant, interesting, and even challenging lessons.

There were a number of significant advances in the 60's connected with secondary school libraries. The appointment of a libraries officer to the Curriculum Development Unit in 1964 paved the way for the introduction of a pilot scheme, which gave schools a special time allowance of two weekly teaching half days to encourage the development of the school library as a learning centre.²⁴³ The sixteen schools initially involved in the scheme had increased to fifty by 1967. The Department was soon satisfied that the scheme was fulfilling its aim; from 1969, all schools could apply for the weekly time allowance.²⁴⁴ At long last, teacher-librarians had been given some school time to order books, arrange displays, meet requests from colleagues for assistance with resources, and supervise the work of library assistants. By the mid-60's, the Department was beginning to give serious attention to providing training for teacher-librarians, mounting courses at national and local levels.²⁴⁵ The New Zealand Library Association also ran seminars for school librarians, as did local groups, like the Auckland Secondary Schools' Library Association. In 1969, the first in-service training courses for secondary school library assistants were held, recognising the important contribution these people were making to the functioning of school libraries.²⁴⁶ To enable future librarians to go to university full-time to gain a degree prior to attending library school, the

Government awarded six library studentships (on the same terms and conditions as secondary teacher studentships) in 1967 and 1968. Finally, the effectiveness of school libraries in the 60's was enhanced by the support they received from the Curriculum Development Unit, particularly in the form of regular School Library Newsletters and special bulletins.

Drama continued to occupy a prominent place in the curricula of almost all secondary schools in the 60's. Some dramatic work was done as part of English classwork, with a few schools still employing a full-time teacher of elocution and drama.²⁴⁷ In an effort to promote classroom drama, the Department produced a form 1-4 experimental drama handbook in 1968. After much trialling in selected schools, and reviewing and revising at Lopdell House, the handbook, described as "... a number of practical ideas for teachers who have no special training in drama", was finally distributed to the schools early in 1974.²⁴⁸ For the most part, however, drama was an extra-curricular activity, often leading to a major annual production, which was a highlight of the school year. While plays by Shakespeare, Wilde, Sheridan, and Shaw provided the staple fare of many school productions, some more ambitious producers turned to Molière, André Obey, Anouilh, and Pinero.²⁴⁹ Some of the newer schools, anxious not to appear too inferior vis-à-vis their older-established neighbours,²⁵⁰ saw in full-scale dramatic and operatic performances an opportunity to make their mark fairly quickly.²⁵¹ A feature of secondary school drama in the 60's was the extent to which schools (especially single-sex schools) collaborated in the staging of major productions.²⁵² Drama was also an activity where the schools could depend on receiving a good deal of outside support. Many schools had

close links with their local repertory society, who helped them out with expertise, equipment, and costumes. Groups like the New Zealand Drama Council, the New Zealand branch of the British Drama League, and the New Zealand Theatre Federation offered schools production and technical assistance; organised play festivals for secondary schools; ran tutorials for producers, actors, and backstage people; conducted drama schools; and operated play lending libraries. The School Library Service also made sets of plays available to schools. In addition, drama enthusiasts in the schools were stimulated by the New Zealand Drama Quartet's annual production for secondary schools,²⁵³ as well as by occasional visits from overseas companies, such as the Old Vic, led by Vivien Leigh, performing *Twelfth Night*.²⁵⁴ The 60's were good times for drama in the secondary schools, providing producers, actors, stage crew, other helpers, and audiences with many rewarding and satisfying experiences.

Foreign languages

Twenty years after the Thomas Committee had advocated the teaching in New Zealand post-primary schools of "as great a variety of languages as possible",²⁵⁵ the range of languages actually taught remained relatively restricted. Only in isolated instances had changes been effected. Kaitaia College substituted German for French as the one foreign language taught in 1959;²⁵⁶ Rangitoto College (Auckland) introduced a full Russian course, starting at form 3 level, in 1962;²⁵⁷ while Kelston High School (Auckland) was offering evening class courses in Russian in 1962.²⁵⁸ Although progressive language teachers like E.H. Meijers of Rangitoto College continued to press for the introduction of Bahasa Indonesia (Malay), Japanese, and other Asian languages into at least some schools,²⁵⁹ little further headway

was made until 1967, when the Department set up five pilot classes in Asian languages (four in Japanese, and one in Indonesian).²⁶⁰ These classes were taken out of school hours, and were confined to upper and lower sixth-form pupils. By 1968, the number of pilot classes had increased to nine; more significantly, six schools were offering Asian language classes within the normal curriculum.²⁶¹ In 1969, the Department appointed an itinerant teacher of Japanese to service several schools in Christchurch. At the same time, it established, in Hamilton and Christchurch, classes for teachers of Japanese,²⁶² appreciating that principals would be apprehensive about starting a new language unless continuity of teaching could be assured. By 1970, Japanese was being taught in twenty-five schools, and Indonesian in seven, with the Department planning to extend the use of itinerant teachers to centres where there was a demand for Japanese lessons.²⁶³ Initially, entries for School Certificate Japanese, which was internally assessed, were accepted only from pupils studying at approved schools.²⁶⁴ A very small number of schools introduced other languages in the 60's. Christchurch Girls' High School made available out-of-hours classes in Italian to interested sixth formers in 1965,²⁶⁵ while at Queen's High School the most advanced language students were offered the chance to study a second language, including Spanish and Esperanto.²⁶⁶ Although comparatively few pupils were taking Latin, the language was far from extinct in the schools. Teachers of Latin were being sought throughout the 60's, with the occasional school still able to offer applicants a full programme of Latin classes.²⁶⁷ One large boys' school re-introduced Latin in 1963;²⁶⁸ another was advertising for a head of Latin department, P.R.B, in 1970.²⁶⁹

Although many subjects experienced changes in methods of teaching in the 60's, in no case were the reforms more profound than in foreign languages. Influenced by overseas developments, and encouraged by the curriculum officer for languages, some schools abandoned the traditional grammar-translation method of teaching languages in favour of audio-visual and audio-lingual courses, which emphasised the oral side of language work,²⁷⁰ or, as one commentator put it, gave pupils a language they could use.²⁷¹ The new method quickly gained in popularity (it was in use in fifty schools by 1967); in order to encourage its adoption, the Department introduced an alternative School Certificate paper in audio-lingual French in 1967.²⁷² Audio-lingual or audio-visual methods were also being increasingly used in German classes,²⁷³ and an alternative audio-lingual paper in German for School Certificate was made available in 1969. In 1970, both audio-lingual School Certificate prescriptions were revised to enable even more emphasis to be placed on tests of listening and speaking ability. At the same time, the Department organised special national and regional in-service courses to train more teachers in the use of the aural-oral approach to teaching languages.²⁷⁴ The main barrier to the growth of audio-lingual teaching in the 60's was the University Entrance examination, which, apart from the inclusion of a dictation test, took no account of the new emphases in language teaching. This put pupils who had been taught by audio-lingual methods in forms 3-5 at a considerable disadvantage when they reached form 6, a situation which remained an anomaly until the mid-70's.²⁷⁵ The spread of audio-lingual teaching was stimulated by technological advances which were gaining momentum in the 60's. The first language laboratory was opened in Britain in May, 1961; within two years, there were at least twenty such laboratories in operation there.²⁷⁶ By the mid-60's,

language laboratories were in use on an experimental basis at Auckland Grammar School and Cashmere High School;²⁷⁷ they became quite widespread by the early 70's, in spite of the high cost involved in setting them up,²⁷⁸ all of which had to be met from the schools' own funds. The language laboratory proved to be an efficient instrument for developing skills of oral communication and understanding. Schools also used record players and, especially, tape recorders extensively. Other aids to language learning in the 60's included the French broadcasts to secondary schools, which continued until 1966, and a memorable visit by Le Tréteau de Paris, a company of French actors, who gave twelve performances in the main centres in May, 1967.²⁷⁹ Most schools also used standard French magazines (such as *Paris Match*), or magazines specially written for school pupils (such as *Passe-partout*) to supplement their textbook material.

Social studies

The movement towards the reform of the social studies syllabus (outlined earlier in this chapter) was timely. The Currie Commission considered that, notwithstanding the "widespread and often imaginative" experimental work which had been done in social studies, no "generally accepted pattern of matter and method" had become apparent. It recommended the production of a syllabus for forms 1-4 which would contain "a reasonably substantial content explicitly stated and common to all pupils, while leaving areas of study optional for different courses and types of pupils".²⁸⁰ The new syllabus was also "... to establish clear linkage and continuity between the primary and secondary sections, and to provide a course of study more appropriate to pupils' needs in a changing society".²⁸¹ Devising such

a syllabus was part of the task assigned to the National Social Studies Syllabus Committee in 1969. As has been shown, progress towards completing this task was slow, mainly because never before in New Zealand had "so much examining of the aims and objectives of social studies involved so many teachers".²⁸² Changing teachers' attitudes proved to be a laborious process, but wise counsels realised that a new social studies scheme would amount to nothing if it meant merely another change in textbooks.²⁸³ Adding to the pupils' store of knowledge and even skills would not be too difficult, but agreeing on how to provide them with opportunities to develop attitudes and values was another matter altogether. A second aspect of the Committee's brief was to prepare a new social studies syllabus for form 5. A sub-committee of the full group did meet, in 1970, to discuss this question, but, for some years thereafter, the work of putting together a form 1-4 syllabus appeared to demand the Committee's undivided attention; little more was heard of a form 5 programme. In any event, apart from the attention given in some schools to one particular theme, only a little serious teaching of social studies was carried out in forms 5 and 6 at that time, in spite of the Director's belief that there was "much scope for intensive work in social studies at a high intellectual standard" among the pupils who reached form 6.²⁸⁴

The one social studies theme which was included in the curriculum of a small number of senior classes²⁸⁵ was Asian studies. The importance of post-primary pupils acquiring an appreciation of Asian countries was stressed by the Director in his Report for 1961.²⁸⁶ Programmes dealing with "the life and problems of Asian peoples" received a boost in 1962, when the Department, supported by UNESCO, established a two-year pilot project on teaching about Asia in New

Zealand schools.²⁸⁷ A supervisor²⁸⁸ was appointed, and a number of courses for teachers and pupils organised. A stimulating and widely-supported seminar on Asian studies held in Auckland in the post-accrediting period of 1963²⁸⁹ was followed by a series of seminars attended by large numbers of sixth formers in Auckland, Christchurch, Whangarei, and Wellington. The Director considered, in 1965, that the project had already reached the point where it was likely to have a permanent effect on school programmes in social studies, history, and geography, and, perhaps, even stimulate an interest in Asian languages.²⁹⁰ Further seminars were held (Palmerston North, 1965; Dunedin, 1966), the Teachers' Refresher Course Committee organised an in-service course on Asian studies (January, 1965), while the Curriculum Development Unit kept the schools well supplied with resource units, background reading lists, and information sheets.²⁹¹ One enthusiast claimed that the project could amount to "the most salutary shot in the arm given to New Zealand post-primary education in recent years".²⁹² However, once the project supervisor completed her period of duty, leaving schools to rely on their own resources to maintain their Asian studies programmes, interest in this curriculum innovation appeared to wane.

The advent of social studies virtually spelt the end of history as a subject in its own right in the third and fourth-form curricula of most post-primary schools.²⁹³ In senior classes, history held its own reasonably well in the first half of the 60's, being offered by a constant 40-41 per cent of all candidates for School Certificate in the period from 1963 to 1967. However, from 1968 onwards, history suffered a progressive decline in popularity at School Certificate level, dropping from 35 per cent of all candidates in 1968 to 29 per

cent in 1969, and then to 24.4 per cent in 1974.^{294, 295} The simultaneous introduction of new prescriptions in history for School Certificate, University Entrance, and University Scholarships in 1966 seemed to have little effect on the depressed state of the subject in the secondary schools of the day. The only references in school histories to the change emphasised the problems of meeting the demands of the new prescriptions: more source material, extended library facilities, new textbooks, and further audio-visual aids.²⁹⁶ However, in 1967, the Department's Film Strip Production Unit did prepare three special film strips to make up for the lack of published materials on the Liberal Government of 1891-1912, one of the topics in the new School Certificate history syllabus. Teachers also found helpful a periodical, *Historical News*, which the history department of the University of Canterbury began issuing in 1963. A new series of history textbooks, designed especially to cover the University Entrance syllabus, was well received by teachers and pupils when it appeared early in 1971.²⁹⁷

Although there were claims that the School Certificate geography prescription of the early 60's reduced the subject to "an arid catalogue of vaguely interrelated facts", bringing "even the most inquiring child ... to a condition of rebellious boredom",²⁹⁸ geography remained by far the most popular optional subject in School Certificate, attracting between 67 and 69 per cent of all candidates from 1963 to 1967. Thereafter, its percentage support was not quite so high (1968: 65 per cent; 1969: 58; 1970: 57), being affected by the greatly-increased number of candidates produced by the introduction of single subject passes in 1968. Nevertheless, it retained its status as the most preferred School Certificate optional subject, moving into

second place only when English was made optional in 1969. A new School Certificate geography syllabus, aimed at eliminating some of the weaknesses referred to by Buchanan, came into force in 1966. Through the P.P.T.A.'s Geography Curriculum Panel, teachers had been involved in drawing up the new prescription, and they reacted favourably to a draft of it circulated in 1965. The Panel reported that comments received from seventy schools indicated "a widespread general approval" of most of the new syllabus itself, as well as the principles on which it was based.²⁹⁹ Time spent in the field continued to be an important part of geography, though one school stressed that the emphasis in the 60's was on field work rather than field trips.³⁰⁰ New ground was broken in the early 60's when Fairfield College (Hamilton) instituted school flights as part of the geography course.³⁰¹ By the end of the decade, studying countries was giving way to a 'thematic' or 'systems' approach, which pupils and teachers found more interesting but also more demanding. Help with the resources needed to undertake this type of approach came from the resource centre of the New Zealand Geographical Society, which had a wide range of teaching aids and materials for sale.³⁰² Also of considerable assistance to teachers was the publication, under the title "Dynamic Relationships in Physical Geography", of the papers presented at a seminar for teachers of form 6 geography held in Christchurch in August, 1967.³⁰³

Mathematics

In his Report for 1961, the Director had predicted that the "vast technological development" taking place in the world must, before long, bring about "far-reaching advances" in the content of school mathematics syllabuses, as well as in mathematics teaching methods.

He indicated that particular attention was already being given to these issues at in-service courses.³⁰⁴ The Currie Commission concurred with the Director's view, noting that mathematics was already "... undergoing a virtual revolution in the professional view of what its contents and teaching methods should be".³⁰⁵ It was also clear to the Commission that, in the 60's, a far higher proportion of post-primary pupils (particularly girls) would need to begin studying mathematics earlier, and continue their studies to a much higher level.³⁰⁶ The schools responded positively to this challenge,³⁰⁷ encouraged and, to an extent, guided by the large amount of information available in New Zealand at the time about overseas developments in the teaching of mathematics.³⁰⁸ By 1963, some schools were carrying out experimental work on new approaches in mathematics, monitored by the mathematics officers of the Curriculum Development Unit. Subsequently, events moved quickly. What proved to be a highly significant Lopdell House course on mathematics, held in April, 1964, recommended the setting up in post-primary schools of a pilot scheme leading to an alternative School Certificate paper in mathematics. The Government accepted this recommendation; the institution of a pilot scheme, which would continue for a number of years, was gazetted on 1 August, 1964. All schools were entitled to apply for approval to participate in the scheme, the objective of which was to investigate and assess, under New Zealand conditions, modern approaches to mathematics teaching which had been developed in several overseas countries.³⁰⁹ The Lopdell House course had set up a working party to devise a new syllabus covering forms 3-5; this was finalised at a second course held in February, 1965. At the same time, steps were taken to ensure that teachers wishing to take part in the scheme in 1965 were adequately prepared.³¹⁰ The first School Certificate

mathematics examination based on the new syllabus (1965) involved pupils from the thirty-three schools (including some private schools) taking part in the pilot scheme.³¹¹ The new syllabus was evaluated regularly, with only minor changes being made to it before it was officially accepted as an alternative School Certificate paper in 1969. From that year, all candidates were given the option in the geometry section of answering questions on traditional geometry or the new transformation geometry. More schools were admitted to the pilot scheme, until, by 1969, some seventy schools were involved, with nearly 20 per cent of all School Certificate mathematics candidates taking the alternative paper.³¹² From 1970, all schools were able to choose whether their pupils would enter for traditional mathematics or 'new' mathematics.³¹³ In the meantime, in a show of cooperation not yet particularly common, the Universities Entrance Board agreed, in 1966, to introduce an alternative interim prescription for University Entrance mathematics, so that pupils in the pilot scheme could continue with the new approach in the lower sixth form. The interim prescription gave place, in 1967, to a new alternative mathematics paper at University Entrance level. In 1969, the Department inserted a series of notices in the *Education Gazette* urging all schools which had not already done so to introduce modern mathematics into their third forms in 1970.³¹⁴ Over the next three years, an almost total swing to modern mathematics took place, so that, by 1973, there were very few candidates still sitting the traditional School Certificate mathematics paper.³¹⁵ A feature of the transition to modern mathematics was an acknowledgement that the success of the new syllabus would depend largely on the extent to which teachers understood and accepted it. To this end, many in-service courses (including a large number of special evening classes) were mounted to

equip mathematics teachers to cope with the requirements of the new prescriptions. Struthers reported that these courses were "filled to overflowing", with the demand for places in the January, 1966 courses being so great that the programmes had to be repeated in August.³¹⁶ It certainly would not have been possible to effect such a significant change in subject content and teaching methods without the "enthusiastic and enlightened" cooperation of teachers in the schools and the universities.³¹⁷ The popularity of mathematics continued to grow in the secondary schools of the 60's, with the percentage of School Certificate candidates offering mathematics rising from 49.5 in 1960 to 55.8 in 1970.³¹⁸ At the same time, the number of classes studying core mathematics declined sharply, notwithstanding the publication, early in 1965, of an excellent new textbook.³¹⁹ By the end of the decade, the teaching of core mathematics was confined almost entirely to non-examination groups, such as slow learners and work experience classes.

Sciences

The same circumstances which had served as catalysts to change in secondary school mathematics prompted equally radical innovations in general science and the particular sciences, though, with science, there was less debate about method than had been the case with mathematics.³²⁰ Secondary school science of the 60's abandoned the earlier emphasis on learning facts in favour of a conceptual method,³²¹ of which the key element was inquiry. As Professor G.A. Knox put it: "The new approaches to science teaching insist on investigatory procedures, on active inquiries leading to discoveries, on experimentation"³²²

A number of Lopdell House courses in the early 60's critically examined the content and teaching methods of post-primary school science, particularly in the light of developments in science education taking place in the United Kingdom and the United States.³²³ The New Zealand science prescriptions then in use had remained unaltered for many years, and a strong demand for change was coming from the teachers themselves.³²⁴ As new senior school science courses began to take shape, the need to review the prescriptions for forms 1-4 became even more urgent. A recognition of the importance of proper articulation between the work at junior and senior levels had been partly responsible for the setting up, in 1964, of the Science Syllabus Revision Committee, to which reference has already been made earlier in this chapter. By 1965, a revision of the form 5 general science prescription was also under way.³²⁵ It was some time, however, before the efforts of the Revision Committee bore fruit. In 1964, one science teacher had lamented that scientific knowledge was expanding rapidly, while science teaching in New Zealand secondary schools remained almost static;³²⁶ her comment would have been just as apt in 1967. A new form 5 science syllabus was finally issued in 1968;³²⁷ it was also announced that the first School Certificate examination based on this syllabus would be held in 1970.³²⁸ By then, yet another Lopdell House course had been convened "to consider the purposes and patterns of science teaching in the fifth form".³²⁹ The report from this course led to the setting up of a further committee to draw up syllabuses for three new subjects, biological science, physical science, and alternative science.³³⁰

The introduction of the new syllabus for forms 3-5 revolutionised science classes. Gone were the days of endless note-taking and

watching the teacher perform experiments. To quote one school historian:

... colourful, exciting textbooks replaced the old ones, and new apparatus had to be purchased to cope with the required pupil participation in practical work; ... sets of apparatus replaced the individual pieces in cupboards, and, later, screens, a slide projector, and an overhead projector ... were added to the equipment encased within already bulging walls.³³¹

In secondary schools everywhere in the late 60's similar changes were occurring. The Curriculum Development Unit helped schools to introduce them smoothly by distributing bulletins which clarified, and expanded on, aspects of the new prescriptions.³³² In the Wellington district, a secondary schools' science fair, organised each year from 1964 by the Wellington Science Teachers' Association, encouraged science pupils to exercise their imagination and initiative in devising and displaying practical applications of the scientific principles they were discovering at school.³³³ In School Certificate, general science, whether under the old or the new syllabus, was one of the four most popular optional subjects throughout the 60's. The percentage of candidates offering general science rose from 40.5 in 1960 to 49.3 in 1967. Over the next three years, it declined slightly, but at no stage in the decade did general science attract fewer than 40 per cent of all School Certificate candidates.³³⁴

Of the particular sciences, chemistry fared worst at School Certificate level; its following of 15.6 per cent of all candidates in 1960 had dropped to 10.9 per cent by 1970. This decline can be attributed almost entirely to the growing tendency in the 60's for science pupils to postpone specialising until the sixth form; in form 5, they took general science. Revision of the sixth-form chemistry

syllabus began in 1962, with inspectors, senior science teachers, and university staff members working in close collaboration. In particular, a 1963 Lopdell House course, having studied two American programmes, CHEM study³³⁵ and Chemical Bond Approach (CBA), recommended that a pilot scheme be set up in 1964 to try out the CHEM study syllabus.³³⁶ This was done in seven main centre schools, the Universities Entrance Board agreeing to set an alternative Entrance chemistry paper for pupils involved in the experiment.³³⁷ By 1966, thirty-eight schools had been admitted to the pilot scheme. However, in spite of the Director-General's claim that the experiment had "done much to stimulate a modern approach to the teaching of chemistry generally",³³⁸ it was discontinued after 1966.³³⁹ A new prescription for University Entrance chemistry came into force in 1967. Once again, a special Curriculum Development Unit bulletin assisted teachers with its introduction.³⁴⁰

Although biology continued to attract a growing proportion of fifth and sixth-form pupils in the first half of the 60's,³⁴¹ it was still looked on, at that stage, as "the poor relation of the sciences taught in our schools, ... the science for the weaker or 'non-science' student".³⁴² A new syllabus was required, particularly one which would meet the needs of a wide range of pupils of differing intellectual capacities. As with chemistry, preliminary work on revising the biology prescriptions began in 1962, once again with the full cooperation of the universities. In 1963, the biology revision committee recommended the development of a new senior biology course "suited to New Zealand conditions, and using indigenous examples".³⁴³ In their deliberations, the revision committee had taken into particular account a new American biology course known as B.S.C.S.,³⁴⁴

as well as parts of the Nuffield Science Teaching Project. The work of writing a suitable sixth-form textbook, to be ready by the end of 1965, was entrusted to a committee of three experienced teachers of biology, under the chairmanship of Professor G.A. Knox of the University of Canterbury. The Biological Sciences Curriculum Study offered assistance with the production of the textbook.³⁴⁵ There followed a three-year period of teacher frustration and makeshift measures in senior biology classes as time went by, and the promised textbook failed to appear. It was not until late in 1968 that the first seven chapters of the textbook were issued, though, earlier that year, sufficient materials had been made available to a small number of schools to enable them to make a start on the new course.³⁴⁶ Meanwhile, the Universities Entrance Board announced its intention to introduce a new Entrance prescription in biology based on the new syllabus from 1969. Nine schools were selected to trial the scheme in 1968, with the pupils involved sitting an alternative biology examination. In 1969, the pilot scheme was extended to include fifty schools, some of which were private. By this time (though not until quite late in the year), the complete textbook - called *Biological Science : Processes and Patterns of Life* - had appeared, along with an accompanying teachers' guide and a practical manual of laboratory and field exercises.³⁴⁷ The alternative prescription for University Entrance biology became the definitive prescription in 1970, with the Bursaries and Scholarships syllabuses following suit in 1971. Although the ecological approach, which was the basis of the new biology syllabus, was reported, in the early stages, to be causing some difficulties,³⁴⁸ the revised prescription was widely accepted as a great improvement on its predecessor. Pupils enjoyed studying living plants and animals, conducting their own investigations, and

learning how to weigh evidence. Also popular were the biology camps, which many schools (especially those in urban areas) organised to enable pupils to carry out the field work required by the new syllabus. At least one head of department suggested that pupils at her school chose to take sixth-form biology simply for the sake of these camps!³⁴⁹

The "current curriculum reconstruction and overhaul of teaching methods in the sciences in general", which Professor Knox had spoken of in 1964,³⁵⁰ was, in the case of physics, largely the story of the gradual adoption in New Zealand of the principles of the American P.S.S.C.³⁵¹ course. Eighteen senior physics teachers, who had worked through this course at Lopdell House in 1961,³⁵² agreed to teach it to their sixth forms in 1962. At the same time, a second group of teachers was trained in the course. The original group met again late in 1962 to evaluate the first year's work; it recommended continuing the course at lower-sixth level, and extending it to the upper-sixth and the fifth forms.³⁵³ By 1964, P.S.S.C. physics was being taught in a large number of sixth forms; the Director believed that its introduction had promoted much of the enthusiasm then evident among teachers for change in science curricula in general.³⁵⁴ Meanwhile, the retraining of physics teachers in P.S.S.C. principles continued apace,³⁵⁵ as did the re-equipping of schools. In marked contrast to what had happened with biology, teachers of P.S.S.C. physics were kept well supplied with printed resources from the outset.³⁵⁶ Two significant developments occurred in 1964: the Universities Entrance Board agreed to include alternative questions in the Entrance physics paper to accommodate pupils who were following the P.S.S.C. course;³⁵⁷ and a committee of Auckland teachers began studying the possibility of

using some P.S.S.C. material at fifth-form level. Experimental courses tested in fifth-form classes in a number of schools in 1965 were well received. The trial scheme continued in the following year; by 1967, there was an alternative P.S.S.C. School Certificate physics paper available.³⁵⁸ A new official physics prescription for University Entrance came into effect in 1970,³⁵⁹ after which attention turned to preparing a revised syllabus for Bursaries and Scholarships physics. The P.S.S.C. programme presented physics as a system of inquiry,³⁶⁰ making considerable use of films, and placing a premium on practical work; it proved to be much more acceptable to pupils than the former course, with its heavy emphasis on acquiring factual knowledge. The ready availability of resource materials of all types was another advantage of the P.S.S.C. course, though schools found that much of the apparatus needed was very costly.

Senior science pupils received considerable help and encouragement from outside organisations, particularly the universities, in the late 60's and early 70's. In 1968 and again in 1969, a laboratory course on advanced techniques in science for sixth-form pupils from all over the South Island was held at Lincoln College;³⁶¹ the Royal Society of New Zealand sponsored annually from 1968 a series of awards for senior secondary school science pupils;³⁶² in 1971, the Victoria University of Wellington's chemistry department, in conjunction with the Curriculum Development Unit, offered to produce teaching aids for forms 6 and 7 chemistry classes;³⁶³ while the bio-chemistry department of Lincoln College, also in 1971, produced a booklet, a teachers' guide, and a laboratory manual on molecular biology for seventh forms.³⁶⁴

Social education

A distinctive characteristic of secondary school curricula of the 60's was the development of social education programmes. The purpose of these programmes was twofold: to provide pupils with a better-balanced education by quickening their interest in local and international current affairs, cultural issues, and the like;³⁶⁵ and to help adolescents to find their place in "a rapidly changing and often confusing social environment".³⁶⁶ Schools generally emphasised one or other of these aims, offering schemes of a broadening type (usually called 'general studies' or 'liberal studies') or sessions dealing with personal or social problems ('social education' or 'family life education'). Typically, these courses involved a good deal of pupil participation both in their planning and in their execution; they also made very little use of direct teaching, finding group discussions and seminars more effective for their purposes. Often, a visiting speaker or a film would be used to stimulate discussion and the exchange of ideas and viewpoints.³⁶⁷ Liberal studies and social education programmes were introduced into a growing number of schools in the second half of the 60's, mainly, but not exclusively, at sixth-form level.³⁶⁸ Hancock and McIlroy estimated that, in 1968, a third of the state secondary schools were offering family life courses, coordinated by school staff as well as community volunteers.³⁶⁹ A Curriculum Development Unit bulletin on the development of social education programmes in secondary schools issued in 1967 was so much in demand that it had to be reprinted within a year. Major Lopdell House courses on liberal studies and social education were held in 1966, 1967, and 1968.³⁷⁰ The secondary division of Christchurch Teachers' College took a lively interest in liberal studies courses at this time, producing two quite substantial

books of liberal studies materials and lesson plans for use in secondary schools: *Liberal Studies: Ideas and Opinions* (1970), and *Learning Activities in Liberal Studies* (1971).³⁷¹ Some schools also used a Penguin Education series of topic books under the general title *Connexions*, which became available in the late 60's.³⁷² Most pupils appreciated the opportunities general studies and social education courses gave them to learn more about themselves and other people, to study contemporary world issues, to think about aspects of citizenship, and to come to terms with the facts of social life. By offering such opportunities, the secondary schools moved closer to the ideal of providing for more than just the intellectual growth of their pupils.

Conclusion

During the 60's, individual schools displayed considerable enterprise in dealing with curriculum problems. One school organised special end-of-year programmes to cater for its accredited sixth-form pupils;³⁷³ another set up a school curriculum committee "... to maintain a continuous study of the effectiveness of all courses";³⁷⁴ yet another devised a plan to allow pupils to progress at their own rate in each subject.³⁷⁵ At the same time, however, there was also evidence that some schools resisted curriculum change, and remained "infected with the general belief that a subject mattered only if it led to School Certificate".³⁷⁶ One pupil, speaking of what her school was like in the late 60's, recalled: "I hated the public examination fetish most teachers seemed to have. That's why it was a relief to go to music classes It's one of the few subjects they don't use to strangle you with fear. I liked art for the same reason."³⁷⁷ A

teacher at the same school deplored the persistent belittlement of what she called the 'only' subjects ("It's only clothing/art/physical education," etc.).³⁷⁸ A concern voiced frequently and often feelingly in the 60's was that the extent and speed of the curriculum changes taking place imposed a considerable strain on schools and teachers. One particularly unsatisfactory result of making too many changes too quickly was that, frequently, "... insufficient provision was made for the training of teachers in the new topics and techniques".³⁷⁹ A further drawback was exposed by another school historian: "Curriculum changes were being introduced with bewildering speed, and, all too often, there was no money for the books, equipment, and other resources which were needed to implement them. Self-help seemed the only solution."³⁸⁰ A principal described the simultaneous introduction of new syllabuses in School Certificate, University Entrance, and University Scholarships history, and School Certificate geography (in 1966) as "administrative madness".³⁸¹ The president of the P.P.T.A. claimed, in the early 70's, that requests for a general slowing down in respect of curriculum change met with a sympathetic reception from most secondary teachers. It was not that teachers wished to call a halt to syllabus revision. Rather, they wanted to make sure that it took place in a coordinated manner.³⁸²

THE SCHOOLS

Introduction

New schools and closures

By 1970, there were 210 state secondary schools in New Zealand, sixty-three new schools having been established and three schools closed in the previous ten years. Thirty of the new schools were opened in the three-year period 1961-1963, concluding a run of eight consecutive years when between nine and eleven new schools had been built annually. The schools to close were Ashburton Technical College¹ (1964), which was amalgamated with Ashburton High School to form a new school, Ashburton College;² Christchurch Technical College (1965), whose secondary classes were merged with Christchurch West High School to form the new Hagley High School; and Waiwhetu Girls' High School (1967). Considerable controversy, going back to 1924, surrounded the establishing of Ashburton College, with the High School and Technical College Boards in a state of almost constant disagreement. However, once amalgamation had been decided on, the people of Ashburton, through a citizens' protest committee, kept pressure on the Government to provide new school buildings on a new site. By the end of the decade, they had "won their fight".³ The abrupt closing of Waiwhetu Girls' High School, after only ten years of operation, also led to much dissension. There were charges that the closure was the work of a bureaucrat, who saw in it "... an over-neat solution to the problem of filling empty places in other schools, and

providing a building for the Technical Correspondence Institute ...".⁴ The P.P.T.A. maintained that there had been a complete absence of consultation with the parents and the Waiwhetu community; even the principal, though she was secretary to the School Board, was not privy to much of the negotiating which went on between the Department and the Board.⁵ The situation also revealed that there was no legislation providing protection for the principal of a disestablished school, or covering the disposal of facilities and equipment paid for partially or wholly by voluntary contributions.⁶

Even the setting up of the new schools did not pass without discord. There was much local argument about the siting of Kuranui College, on which four district high schools were to be consolidated. Two districts (Greytown and Featherston) agreed to the disestablishment of their local district high schools; the other two (Carterton and Martinborough) did not. Finally, the choice of site had to be left to the Department, which selected Greytown as the geographical centre of the area.⁷ Thirty of the new schools were established in urban or rural-urban locations. They were distributed as follows: Auckland - eleven; Wellington - five; Christchurch - two; Dunedin - one; other centres - eleven. Of the thirty-three new schools set up in rural districts, eighteen were form 1-6 schools and two were area schools.

Growth and size of schools

While some schools, especially those in the more remote areas, grew quite slowly,⁸ the general pattern in the 60's was one of very rapid growth, brought about by the post-war baby boom and the substantial increase in the number of pupils staying on at school

beyond form 4. Many city schools, in particular, became quite large very quickly. Colenso High School (Napier), established in 1959 with 275 pupils, had a roll of 1,350 within ten years. Tawa College (Wellington), opened in 1961, had 950 pupils by 1966; in 1972, it advertised for a second principal in anticipation of a 1973 roll of over 1,400. Burnside High School went from 180 pupils in its foundation year (1960) to 1,147 in 1968; its estimated roll for 1975 was 2,000.⁹ This dramatic increase in roll numbers was in line with a worldwide trend evident in the 50's and 60's.¹⁰

A natural outcome of greatly expanded pupil numbers (table 48) was much larger schools of all kinds. Between 1960 and 1971, the average roll for all secondary schools in New Zealand increased by 24 per cent (from 632 to 783), even though a large number of smaller schools had been established in rural areas over that period.¹¹ In the late 50's, the official optimum sizes of secondary schools were 650 for single sex schools, and 850 for coeducational schools. In the early 60's, the figures were raised to 1,000 and 1,250 respectively, but, as the decade advanced, these limits became less and less applicable.¹² There were already nineteen schools with rolls of more than a thousand by 1962; in 1969, sixty-four schools (very nearly one third of all schools) fell into this category. Three established schools (Kelston High, Marlborough College, and Westlake High) became so large that they were divided into separate boys' and girls' schools. Within a short time, some of these divided schools had more than a thousand pupils.¹³ A number of schools¹⁴ (with the approval of the Department) limited their intake of new pupils in an effort to stabilise their rolls, but even this manoeuvre was not always successful. Although Hamilton Boys' High School restricted enrolments from 1961 to 1965, it still had 1,162 pupils in 1969.

TABLE 48

1 JULY ROLLS IN ALL TYPES OF POST-PRIMARY SCHOOL,
1960 - 1970

Type of school		1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
Post-primary schools	Number	150	160	169	180	183	186	192	194	196	204	210
	Roll	91,001	100,747	110,059	117,525	121,573	125,569	130,328	136,431	146,409	150,562	153,022
Secondary depts. of district high schools	Number	*86(10)	85(10)	82(10)	74(10)	72(9)	71(7)	66(7)	64(7)	63(7)	66(-)	61(-)
	Roll	8,361	8,834	8,464	7,453	7,136	6,525	5,776	5,491	6,013	5,311	4,775
Secondary department of Correspondence School		551	532	505	482	493	466	449	380	480	518	505
Totals		99,913	110,163	119,028	125,460	129,202	132,560	136,553	142,302	152,902	156,391	158,302
Annual increase		9,926	10,250	8,865	6,432	3,742	3,358	3,993	5,749	10,600	3,489	1,911
Cumulative increase		9,926	20,176	29,041	35,473	39,215	42,573	46,566	52,315	62,915	66,404	68,315

*Plus Maori district high schools in brackets

Source: E.1 Reports

Length of secondary schooling

Reference has already been made to the tendency of pupils in the 60's to remain at school longer. Many factors promoted this trend, including a growing demand from employers for job applicants to have passed School Certificate, at least, and the broadening of the senior school curriculum.¹⁵ Pupils and society were beginning to accept that reaching "the magic age of fifteen was no longer a satisfactory reason for leaving school".¹⁶ Just on 42 per cent of school leavers in 1961 had had no more than two years of post-primary education; by 1969, this percentage had dropped to less than 18. Over the same period, the percentage of leavers who had spent more than three years at a post-primary school rose from 32 to nearly 50.¹⁷ There were substantial increases in upper and lower sixth-form numbers, even in the smaller high schools,¹⁸ especially in the second half of the 60's. By 1969, pupils in the upper and lower sixth forms constituted 14.8 per cent of the total secondary school enrolment, compared with 11.6 per cent in 1965. Moreover, just on 50 per cent of all pupils attending secondary schools in 1969 were fifteen years of age or over.¹⁹ Legislation requiring pupils to stay at school until the end of the term in which they turned fifteen, as advocated by the P.P.T.A.,²⁰ was rapidly becoming unnecessary.

Selection and zoning

The admissions policy of some secondary school boards, especially in Wellington and Christchurch, continued to foment dissension in the 60's. The common practice of selecting pupils for admission on the basis of academic ability, which could result in the exclusion of applicants living in the school's immediate neighbourhood, led to anxiety and disappointment, as well as causing rivalry among

schools.²¹ Nevertheless, boards defended their right to determine their own entrance criteria; one board publicly announced its intention to continue its long-established policy of selecting "boys of sufficiently high academic standards to enable them to benefit from the courses available".²² It was little wonder that a correspondent to the *P.P.T.A. Journal* referred to "the annual friction engendered by Christchurch secondary school enrolments".²³ By 1971, the Department was obliged to intervene. The former selection procedures were replaced by a carefully-formulated enrolment policy, which compelled all secondary schools to accept pupils from their neighbourhood. Boards were warned that, if they did not adhere to the new policy, strict zoning would be introduced.²⁴ This was not a prospect which some of the older schools, in particular, made light of. A major concern of Wellington College in the 60's was that population shifts, coupled with the effects of zoning, threatened to undermine the character of the School: "It would be regrettable indeed if Wellington College, with its deep roots and worthy traditions, should be allowed to develop into just another zoned school," claimed the centennial chronicler (himself a former headmaster of the College).²⁵ A similar situation obtained at Auckland Girls' Grammar School, where zoning resulted in a sharp increase, in the 50's, in the number of short-term pupils enrolled, making it unlikely that the School could remain predominantly academic. The School's historian recorded that "... many forces combined to resist [the] measures which would have changed the nature and character of the School". In the event, Auckland Girls' Grammar was given a substantially-increased out-of-zone entitlement, enabling it to withstand "a very strong attempt to turn it into 'a local high school'".²⁶ It is evident that Wellington College and Auckland Girls' Grammar School believed that their

'special character' ought to be preserved, even if that meant disregarding the needs of their immediate communities. Plainly, such schools were reluctant to accept that the only institutions which could reasonably expect to be able to lay down their own principles and practices were those which were self-supporting. Public funding inevitably entailed public responsibilities.

Sixth/seventh-form colleges

In his Report for 1964, the Director referred at some length to the growing problem of providing effectively for form 6 pupils, especially those attending smaller schools. He considered that thought ought to be given to "... establishing in some areas something in the nature of a form 6 college", where sixth-form pupils could receive "first-class instruction".²⁷ Although the Currie Commission had not been in favour of separate schools for sixth formers,²⁸ there were overseas precedents for the move, and it could well have received more serious consideration than it did. That it failed to win support from Government then and subsequently can be attributed largely to the fear of violating the principle of egalitarianism. Political expediency decreed that what could not be offered to everyone should not be offered at all, the more so if it were likely to prove costly.²⁹

Attached intermediate departments

In the late 50's and early 60's, most of the remaining intermediate departments attached to post-primary schools were replaced by independent intermediate schools. The eight attached intermediates still in existence in 1960 had been reduced to three by 1965; by 1970, only two were left.³⁰ Nelson College for Girls

maintained throughout the 60's and 70's a preparatory department, consisting of one form 1 and one form 2 class, each with about twenty-six pupils.³¹

Accommodation

Providing for school building needs

During the 60's, the acute accommodation problems which the schools had experienced in the 50's⁶ persisted and, in many cases, worsened as ever-increasing roll numbers placed existing facilities under extreme pressure. Severe overcrowding was widespread, with many schools facing the same difficulty as Wellington Girls' College, whose hall, designed to hold 550 pupils, was, by 1965, proving hopelessly inadequate for the College's roll of nearly 900.³² The Government made very considerable efforts to keep up with the demand for post-primary school buildings; between 1961 and 1963, it built thirty new schools, eighteen halls, and nine gymnasias, in addition to carrying out major extensions at a large number of other schools.³³ The mid-60's saw a shift of emphasis from establishing new schools to enlarging and improving existing ones.^{34, 35} This policy explains, in part, the high proportion of large schools, especially in urban areas, in the 60's.

There are numerous references in school histories to the relief provided by new and augmented accommodation. The completion of a new hall at Epsom Girls' Grammar School in 1966 meant that, for the first time in fifty years, girls did not have to sit on the floor during assembly,³⁶ while the opening of a new gymnasium at Rangiora High School in 1964 provided the school with an amenity it had had to do without for forty-five years.³⁷

Building delays

Although schools were, naturally, pleased when their building deficiencies were eventually made good, construction work, along with all the inconvenience it entailed, was often extremely protracted. The building of a new hall complex at New Plymouth Boys' High School took seven years from approval to accomplishment, with site preparation alone dragging on for more than two years. The School's historian commented, in exasperation: "It would be a tedious, melancholy, and unprofitable exercise to attempt to describe the causes and the progress of the numerous and frustrating delays which beset the undertaking."³⁸ Nelson College for Girls, which had been promised a rebuilt school in 1927, finally moved into its new premises in 1967. By the time the building operations, spread over thirty-five years, had been completed, some of the specialised rooms were out of date; the College found that, in spite of its new buildings, "the struggle for better facilities was far from over".³⁹ The situation in many of the new schools was often little better. There were regular reports in the 60's of new schools opening, even though construction work had not finished. When the first-day pupils arrived at Lytton High School in February, 1961, only the technical block and the homecraft block were ready for occupation. The builders completed work on the administration block just a few hours before the official opening of the School in October.⁴⁰ Nor were the buildings at Kuranui College ready on opening day; form 3 pupils had to be given schoolwork to do at home for several days. The staff held their first meeting in a marquee sitting on bales of straw, while a builders' shed became the school office. The impressions of a first-day pupil were far from encouraging: "... a rather forlorn air hung over the place ... an atmosphere of depressing desertion [The wind] stirred shreds of

builders' paper and contractors' old lunch wrappings against unpainted walls and shabby pre-fabs."⁴¹ At least two schools had to share the premises of other schools for some time before they could move into their own buildings.⁴² The difficulties created by these kinds of situations can be only too readily imagined. One wonders whether the problems the schools were left to contend with would have been as great if it had not been the Department's invariable practice to engage the building contractor submitting the lowest tender.

Prefabricated classrooms

In secondary schools where the Department's building programme was not keeping pace with roll increases (that is, in almost all schools) prefabs proliferated. While these buildings provided instant teaching spaces, schools had very good reason to fear that their period of service would be anything but temporary. Prefabs certainly attracted the attention of school historians. The Southland Girls' High School chronicler referred to them as "the bane of every growing school"⁴³ in the 60's; while a controversy "which kept New Plymouth Girls' High School on the front pages of the New Plymouth newspapers for a month in 1966" broke out when the Department decided not to go ahead with plans to replace eight very sub-standard prefabs at the School.⁴⁴ However, the last word on the subject belongs to a past pupil of Hamilton High School returning for the School's golden jubilee in 1961: "The aging eyes tried to overlook the row of prefabs sitting like fat slugs that had gorged themselves on the lovely gum trees"^{45, 46}

A new design

In 1962, the Department was represented at an International

Educational Building Conference held in London. While overseas, the New Zealanders noted, particularly, an emphasis on using space for a variety of purposes, as well as on making provision for group activity and team teaching, and for individual study at form 6 level.⁴⁷ The 'Nelson' plan then in use in New Zealand catered only for a school of up to 850 pupils, and did not take account of any of the emphases the departmental team had observed overseas. What was needed in the 60's was a design flexible enough to accommodate much larger rolls (perhaps as many as 2,000 pupils) while, at the same time, providing for the special needs of senior pupils. In 1968, a new prototype plan, known as the S.68 design,⁴⁸ was released. It envisaged single-storey schools built of permanent materials, and capable of being readily extended to keep up with roll increases. The design also included a senior studies block, a gymnasium, an auditorium with tiered seating, and specialist accommodation for teaching science, mathematics, and languages.⁴⁹ The first schools constructed to the new plan were opened in 1971;⁵⁰ by 1974, thirteen S.68 schools had been built. In the early 70's, the Department also began providing some of the largest schools with team teaching rooms able to accommodate up to 150 pupils.⁵¹

A new concept

Another advance in school building design noted by the officers attending the 1962 Conference in London was the concept of a 'school within a school', originally developed in the United States. Assuming that the optimum size of a secondary school was six hundred, this plan allowed for a roll of twelve hundred pupils to be organised as two schools, each of six hundred pupils, on the one site. The aim of this concept was to secure the administrative advantages of a large school

while maintaining the pastoral advantages of a smaller unit. Each school would have its own assembly area, and the blocks would be connected by covered ways. The Department decided to try out this design in one or two fast-growing areas, beginning with an experimental school at Porirua East. The P.P.T.A. Buildings Committee collaborated with the Department in the planning stages of the new school, which opened in February, 1968 as Porirua College.⁵² At about the same time, the Department decided to develop Feilding Agricultural High School on the 'school within a school' principle. From the late 60's, all new buildings and extensions to existing buildings at Feilding were designed to conform to the master plan for this new type of school.⁵³ Spotswood College (New Plymouth) (opened in 1960) was designated for similar development in the early 70's.

Hostels

Post-primary school hostels have been considered by successive Governments as an important element in translating the policy of equality of educational opportunity into action. Boarding allowances assisted country pupils living in areas remote from a post-primary school to continue their education at a school with a hostel. However, rising running costs (which could be only partly offset by increasing the fees), as well as escalating buildings maintenance and replacement demands, left the continued operation of some hostels in jeopardy by the early 60's. In 1962, the Government decided to offer some support to school boards administering hostels, and to boards wishing to build hostels. Under the new policy, the Government would meet the capital cost of new hostels up to a maximum of £1,200 per bed where it could be established that two-thirds of the boarders would be eligible for boarding allowances. The new hostels had to provide

accommodation for from seventy to eighty boarders, and be self-supporting once they were established. Existing hostels of an uneconomic size also qualified for government assistance to enable them to be extended to the size laid down for new hostels. At the same time, the Government undertook to build five new post-primary school hostels over a five-year period.⁵⁴ The first of these, at Hamilton Boys' High School, was opened in 1965; the second, a combined hostel serving Marlborough Boys' and Girls' Colleges, was ready by 1967. The three remaining hostels were allocated to Tararua College (Pahiatua), Taumarunui High School, and Palmerston North Girls' High School,⁵⁵ but no further progress was made with the construction of these hostels in the 60's. In 1971, just over five thousand pupils were catered for in thirty-eight state secondary school hostels. Those with more than 200 boarders were New Plymouth Boys' High School (360), Waitaki Boys' High School (300), Nelson College (286), New Plymouth Girls' High School (260), and Timaru Boys' High School (212).⁵⁶

Libraries

In the second half of the 60's, the Government made considerable headway with its policy of providing the larger secondary schools with free-standing libraries, constructed to an imaginative design known as the Nelson Block 10 Library. Schools were generally very pleased with what the new buildings had to offer: "... with their airiness and light, flexibility, and provision for future expansion on a mezzanine floor, [they] represent a notable advance in school library building."⁵⁷ By the end of 1969, forty-eight schools had been supplied with the new libraries; in some cases, the stage II mezzanine floor had already been added.⁵⁸

Technical schools

The point has already been made in chapter 10 that, as the multilateral school concept gained ground in the post-Thomas years, differentiating between secondary and technical schools came to have less and less significance. In 1960, the Department, in its submission to the Commission on Education in New Zealand, indicated that, of the forty-one post-primary schools officially classified as technical schools, only eleven were true technical schools.⁵⁹ At the same time, few observers would have expected the almost total disappearance of technical schools to occur so quickly. The Currie Commission expected that, in all probability, technical high schools would persist for many years;⁶⁰ yet, by the end of the 60's, the transfer of technical education from the secondary to the tertiary sector of the education system was an accomplished fact.⁶¹ The demise of the technical high school was hastened by the introduction of the Education Amendment Act 1963, which defined technical education in a way that excluded "what used to be called technical education within the post-primary framework". The Act also recognised technical institutes and post-primary schools as different entities.⁶² The Education Act 1964 formally abolished the distinction between secondary and technical schools.

The position in the larger centres

Although the polytechnic and technical high school sections of Seddon Memorial Technical College (Auckland) had been separated late in 1960, a physical division of the College could not be effected until new buildings (at first intended for the high school) on the original site had been completed.⁶³ It soon became apparent that the

polytechnic division⁶⁴ alone would need all the existing and new accommodation on the inner-city site, so that the Government's decision, taken in 1962, to build a new high school on another site was not unexpected. Seddon Memorial Technical College moved to new buildings at Western Springs in 1964. In 1968, the College Board renamed the school Seddon High School, "... to reflect the changing nature of the School and its much broadened curriculum, covering academic, accounting, commercial, home economics, general, and technical courses".⁶⁵

At Petone, a similar move took place. The high school division of the Central Institute of Technology was re-established in new premises at Gear Island from the beginning of 1963, regaining both its former name (Hutt Valley Memorial Technical College) and, after catering for boys only since 1959, its former coeducational status.⁶⁶ In Wellington city, the division of Wellington Technical College into a technical high school and a polytechnic, each with its own principal, but both under the same board of managers, took effect from the beginning of 1962.⁶⁷ At first, the now separate institutions shared the same buildings, but new accommodation was gradually provided for the polytechnic division on adjacent land. Wellington Technical High School changed its name to Wellington High School in 1964. In 1966, the High School Board and the Council of Wellington Polytechnic reached an agreement whereby the High School would assume responsibility for a wide range of non-vocational classes formerly taught within the general studies department of the Polytechnic.⁶⁸

In Christchurch, the technical high school and polytechnic sections of Christchurch Technical College were separated from the

beginning of 1965. As already noted, the high school combined with Christchurch West High School in 1966 to form Hagley High School. The senior technical division of King Edward Technical College (Dunedin) became Otago Polytechnic on 1 February, 1966; the technical high school section continued as King Edward Technical College.⁶⁹ With both institutions remaining on the original site, the rapid development of the Polytechnic soon made working conditions for the high school staff and pupils extremely difficult. Plans to re-site the high school at Pelichet Bay were drawn up, but there were to be three years of wrangling, described by a contributor to the *P.P.T.A. Journal* as "one of the most complex and often bitter episodes in the history of education in Otago",⁷⁰ before the plans were finally approved by Government in 1970. Even then, the controversy was not over. The Pelichet Bay location was ultimately abandoned, and the College had to wait until 1974 before it was re-established on a new site in Dunedin North.

In Hamilton, the opening of new post-primary schools on the fringes of the city (Fairfield College, 1957; Melville High School, 1964) had an adverse effect on enrolments in the high school classes at Hamilton Technical College, though evening class and day-training numbers were growing. As the day-school roll declined, the Board promoted the tertiary side of the College in order to obtain the greatest possible benefit from its buildings and equipment.⁷¹ By 1968, the tertiary programme had developed sufficiently to justify the setting up of a separate Waikato Technical Institute on the site of the former Hamilton Technical College. The high school division of the College, renamed Fraser High School, moved to a new site at Dinsdale in 1970. The Government undertook to duplicate on the new

site the facilities (such as a swimming pool) which the High School had enjoyed at its original location.⁷² Acting on a recommendation of the National Development Conference, the Government decided, in 1969, to establish technical institutes wherever there were sufficient students to generate a full teaching load for at least ten tutors.⁷³

Developments in provincial centres

Naturally, the demand for the type of training offered by the technical institutes was not confined to the areas where such institutes had been established; the extraordinarily rapid growth of the Technical Correspondence Institute in the 60's was proof of that. In a number of centres which were without tertiary technical institutions, secondary schools filled the gap. Whangarei Boys' High School began offering trade training courses (at first, block courses for carpentry apprentices) in 1966. Within five years, the School had added block courses for motor mechanics, and (in conjunction with the Girls' High School) a senior business course to its tertiary load.⁷⁴ Gisborne Boys' High School was catering for seventy-two evening classes and ten day-release apprentice classes in 1966;⁷⁵ by 1971, it also had a secretarial course at tertiary level. Napier Boys' High School was running 120 polytechnic classes in 1969, providing advanced instruction for some 870 tertiary students.⁷⁶ Other provincial centres where secondary schools were doing similar work in the late 60's included Hastings, Rotorua, Tauranga, Wanganui, Nelson, and Timaru.⁷⁷ The tertiary load was large enough at some schools (Whangarei, Rotorua, Gisborne, Tauranga) to warrant the establishing of senior technical divisions, which eventually developed into provincial community colleges.

School name changes

As the original technical high schools assumed a more multipurpose role, a number dropped the designation 'technical' from their titles (Hawera, Stratford, Greymouth, Timaru); Queen Elizabeth Technical College made this change in 1966, when its Board announced that it intended to develop the College as a multicourse institution, and remove technical and continuation classes from the day school.⁷⁸ Similarly, Wanganui Technical College had become Wanganui Boys' College by the mid-60's. Others (as already noted) changed their names altogether. Southland Technical College became Southland College when Southland Polytechnic was set up in 1972; later (1978), it took the name Cargill High School. Westport Technical College changed its name to Buller High School in 1966. By 1974, the only secondary school in the country continuing to refer to itself as a technical school was Hutt Valley Memorial Technical College.

Correspondence School

The number of full-time secondary pupils enrolled with the Correspondence School declined steadily from 551 in 1960 to 380 in 1967. Thereafter, it began to rise again, standing at 505 in 1970. The part-time secondary roll increased substantially, from 2,600 in 1960 to 4,214 in 1970.⁷⁹ Of these pupils, about 1,500 each year were attending other schools (mainly in forms 5 and 6), but enrolled with the Correspondence School in one or more subjects in which their own schools could not provide tuition. The subjects most in demand were Maori, mathematics, and the various sciences.⁸⁰ The Correspondence School continued to extend its curriculum during this period, adding, in one year alone (1969), new courses in German, Vietnamese, and University Entrance art.⁸¹

District centre gatherings of pupils - a major purpose of which was to supplement the social side of the pupils' education - were held regularly; the annual, month-long residential school continued as before. Two innovations in this period were of direct benefit to secondary pupils : the introduction of 'school weeks' (1962), giving pupils living in more isolated areas the opportunity to attend a regular school for a week; and the bringing together (annually, from 1963) in Wellington during the first week of the third term of all of the School's candidates for School Certificate, enabling them to have a week of concentrated classroom work under their own teachers. These 'study weeks' proved to be most successful in helping pupils to master their School Certificate programmes.⁸² In spite of the severe accommodation problems it experienced in the 60's, the Correspondence School continued to provide well-planned and comprehensive lessons for secondary pupils either unable to attend a regular school, or enrolled at one which, because of staffing inadequacies or timetable problems, could not offer all the subjects pupils wanted to take.

Examinations

School Certificate

A number of trends which had characterised the School Certificate examination in the 50's became even more evident in the 60's. As table 49 shows, entries continued to rise, in some years dramatically so. Moreover, a growing proportion of those sitting the examination for the first time were in their third year of post-primary schooling (96.7 per cent of the boys, and 93.3 per cent of the girls in 1962).⁸³

TABLE 49

SCHOOL CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION STATISTICS,
1960 - 1970 : NUMBER OF CANDIDATES, NUMBER SECURING
PASSES, PERCENTAGE OF THOSE PASSING, AND PERCENTAGE
INCREASE OF THE NUMBER OF CANDIDATES COMPARED WITH
THE PREVIOUS YEAR

Year	1*	2*	3*	4*	
1960	22,189	11,660	52.5	5.6	
1961	24,835	12,610	50.8	11.9	
1962	30,606	15,460	50.5	23.3	
1963	34,546	17,074	49.4	12.9	
1964	35,854	18,283	51.0	3.8	
1965	37,980	19,003	50.0	5.9	
1966	38,411	19,389	50.5	1.1	
1967	41,234	21,474	52.1	7.3	
1968	50,007	38,976	78.0	21.3	1-6 subjects
1969	53,645	40,823	76.1	7.3	
1970	56,388	42,337	75.1	5.1	

- * 1 Number of candidates
- * 2 Number securing passes
- * 3 Percentage of those passing
- * 4 Percentage increase of the number of candidates
compared with the previous year

Source: E.1 Reports

In addition, a higher percentage of form 5 pupils was entering for School Certificate, up from 80.2 in 1956 to 90.0 in 1966.⁸⁴ A fourth trend was the growing popularity of some non-academic subjects, such as commercial practice and technical drawing, at the expense of more traditional subjects like French, chemistry, and history.

Early in the decade, the Government acted on three of the recommendations of the School Certificate Review Committee,⁸⁵ which had reported in 1960. As from the 1961 examination, the Department issued a Certificate of Education to all unsuccessful candidates in

School Certificate who gained at least 30 per cent in one or more subjects;⁸⁶ from 1962, School Certificates showed a letter grading for all subjects in which the candidate scored at least 30 per cent;⁸⁷ and, also from 1962, School Certificate candidates could enter in English and five other subjects, provided that such an entry was endorsed by the candidate's principal.⁸⁸ This last move was designed to extend the brighter pupils, a group widely considered to be insufficiently challenged by the School Certificate examination. Another group who critics believed was ill served by School Certificate was the less able cohort of pupils, for whom the major stumbling block was the regulation requiring an aggregate pass in four subjects. The Currie Commission had been quite outspoken on this issue: "The present group pass for School Certificate stands in the way of the proper development of secondary fifth forms for pupils below the average in ability, and it is the Commission's considered opinion that it should be modified."⁸⁹ Single subject passes would give these pupils "a more limited and realistic examination programme".⁹⁰ For some years, the Department struggled to formulate a new School Certificate policy which would allow for separate subject passes while ensuring that pupils in form 5 maintained a balanced course of general education. In 1965, the Government amended the School Certificate regulations to allow people over the age of fifteen who were not enrolled as full-time pupils at a secondary school to enter for the Certificate of Education in one or more subjects. However, it was not until 1967 that a substantial re-organisation of the structure of the School Certificate examination was announced. Two fundamental changes were made: as from 1968, the four-subject group pass was replaced by passes in separate subjects; beginning in 1968, but not becoming fully effective until 1970, first-year form 5

candidates offering four or more subjects were required to enter in English (group A), at least one language subject or geography or history (group B), and at least one of mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, or general science (group C). For first-year form 5 candidates entering in three or fewer subjects, English remained compulsory; those who did not enter in history or geography, or in mathematics or a science, had to take an alternative course of at least three hours a week in history or geography or social studies, and in mathematics or a science. Pupils in their fourth year of secondary education still had an unrestricted choice of subjects in School Certificate, except that they had to enter in English if they had not passed it already.⁹¹ To secure a pass in a subject under the new regulations, candidates had to score 50 per cent or more. The Certificate of Education was abolished. While it is true that "... the prospect of success in fewer subjects provided motivation for a large number of pupils, and a more realistic goal",⁹² it would seem that the Department over-reacted in requiring pupils to select subjects from set groups. All of the prescribed subjects except general science were also subjects for University Entrance, which was sufficient to ensure that they were well represented in the programmes of a large proportion of fifth formers. This regulation also caused problems for many schools which were not large enough to run alternative classes in the required subjects for the relatively small number of pupils who were not entering for them in School Certificate. Of even greater concern was the effect of the regulation on the courses of pupils taking mainly homecraft, commercial, or technical subjects. Homecraft and commercial pupils were now forced to take five subjects if they wished to include two of their specialist subjects in their courses, while technical pupils, whose programmes

generally included mathematics and a science, could take technical drawing and woodwork or engineering shopwork only if they undertook a six-subject course. The Department accepted that this was an unreasonable outcome of the new regulations; technical drawing was added to the group B subjects from 1970.⁹³ In the *Education Gazette* of 15 August, 1970, the Department defined holders of the restructured School Certificate as those who had satisfied the requirements for entry to form 6.⁹⁴ There are many who believe that the whole concept of School Certificate has been discredited by the general failure to insist on this definition. Now, pupils with a credit in one subject say that they have passed School Certificate - and go unchallenged. The new criteria for admission to form 6 had little or no effect on the standards of entry. The percentage of those qualifying under the new requirements in 1969 was virtually the same as it had been under the former conditions. The only other change made to the School Certificate regulations in the 60's was that introduced in 1969 making it no longer compulsory for candidates to enter in English. This change has already been discussed.

In 1968, the Minister set up a School Certificate Examination Board replacing the School Certificate Revision Committee. The new Board would itself have two committees : a School Certificate Syllabus Revision Committee, and a School Certificate Standards Committee. The Board was given more extensive functions than its predecessor, and was more widely representative.⁹⁵ Its first task was to determine the effectiveness of the changes announced in 1967; further ongoing responsibilities were to consider reports on the conduct of the examination, as well as to keep the School Certificate prescriptions under regular review.⁹⁶ The Board took this latter duty particularly

seriously; within three years, it had, either itself or through sub-committees, instigated action in respect of twenty-five subject prescriptions.⁹⁷

By the early 70's, decisions taken by some overseas countries to abolish external examinations⁹⁸ had encouraged the anti-external examination lobby in New Zealand to become more vocal. The P.P.T.A. had already, at its 1969 annual conference, adopted as policy the replacement of the School Certificate examination by the concept of internal assessment. In 1970, the School Certificate Examination Board agreed to promote a feasibility study on internal assessment for School Certificate.⁹⁹ Some observers believed that in subjects such as English sheer weight of numbers made some sort of school-based assessment inevitable:

To concoct a satisfactory test in English for the vast number of candidates, ranging from the barely literate to the best fifth-form brains, is becoming so difficult that the end of a written examination on a national basis cannot be far away.¹⁰⁰

Fifteen years after Muriel May made this prediction, most School Certificate subjects are still externally examined. The School Certificate examination has proved to be nothing if not durable.

(Lower) Sixth Form Certificate

From 1969, a Lower Sixth Form Certificate took the place of the Endorsed School Certificate. At first, the new Certificate was awarded on the satisfactory completion of a one-year post-School Certificate course covering a minimum of four subjects including English and at least two other University Entrance subjects.¹⁰¹ However, the regulations were amended in 1970 to enable the Lower

Sixth Form Certificate to be awarded in single subjects, though candidates still had to follow a four-subject course. Soon after, with the acceptance of the designation 'seventh form' for the upper sixth form, the Lower Sixth Form Certificate became the Sixth Form Certificate. New regulations, coming into effect in 1974, provided for the award to be made in single subjects without restriction on the number of subjects offered. Entry in English was made optional, but a school course in English of at least four hours a week remained mandatory.¹⁰² At the same time, the former A to E ratings were replaced by a numerical scale, with grades ranging from one (representing the highest standard of achievement) to nine. The Department ensured that grades as between schools would be comparable by allocating to each school a pool of grades based on the candidates' performance in School Certificate in the previous year. Principals were free to distribute the grades across the different subjects as they saw fit.¹⁰³ To begin with, schools were generally slow to use the opportunities provided by the new Sixth Form Certificate to devise courses which would meet the needs of the increasing numbers of form 6 pupils who were not interested in University Entrance-type programmes; however, the position soon changed. In 1974, the Department received 647 applications from schools for individual syllabuses (mostly in the commercial, home economics, and technical areas) to be approved as Sixth Form Certificate Courses.¹⁰⁴

Higher School Certificate

In the early 60's, the inspectors reported that some upper sixth-form pupils were not working to capacity, prompting the Director to ask whether the time had not come to introduce a Higher School Certificate examination.¹⁰⁵ That this situation existed is not

surprising. The only outside examination available to pupils at this level, University Scholarships, was acknowledged to be extremely difficult; further, relatively few scholarships were awarded (fifty, at that stage). Fewer than one third of the 2,350 pupils in the upper sixth forms in 1961 entered for the Scholarships examination; of those, only about 6 per cent could win scholarships. The remaining two-thirds had only the prospect of Higher School Certificate to spur them on. The picture improved considerably with the introduction of the new Bursaries examination in 1966. By 1970, the number of Higher School Certificates awarded was up by 46 per cent on the 1966 total (table 50).

University Entrance and accrediting

Only minor changes were made to the University Entrance examination regulations between 1960 and 1970. The most significant of these provided for entries to be made in four or five subjects, with effect from the 1961 examination.¹⁰⁶ Another change came in 1963, when the regulations were altered to allow pupils to enter for both the Entrance and the Scholarships examinations in the same year.¹⁰⁷ By the mid-60's, objective testing (mainly by the use of multiple choice questions) was being widely used in University Entrance examinations.¹⁰⁸ The Universities Entrance Board had, by the early 70's, adopted a policy of working towards a single certificate of form 6 attainment. It resolved, in 1972, to carry out further investigations, in conjunction with the other interested parties, into ways and means of coordinating standards and grades between University Entrance examination requirements and those of the Sixth Form Certificate.¹⁰⁹ The P.P.T.A. had long been in favour of the Sixth Form Certificate being the only award made at form 6 level.¹¹⁰

Although the Universities Entrance Board produced one or two proposals to adjust the methods of accrediting in use in the 60's, no changes were made to the regulations governing accrediting in that period. When the Board put forward a plan, in 1962, to establish "... a common method of evaluation of all students seeking the University Entrance qualification",¹¹¹ some observers (including the editor of the *P.P.T.A. Journal*)¹¹² wrongly assumed that this meant that the Board wanted to do away with accrediting. What the Board proposed was that all candidates should sit an examination in early October, with the schools retaining the right to accredit (subsequently) borderline cases. When the schools indicated the considerable difficulties this plan would create for them, the Board did not pursue it. In 1970, the Board advanced a proposal to give schools the right to accredit on a single subject basis; pupils would then sit the examination in those subjects in which they had not been accredited. This scheme opened up the whole question of single subject passes in University Entrance, an issue which plainly needed to be studied much more thoroughly. The Board continued its investigations, finally announcing, in 1972, that University Entrance would be awarded on a separate subject pass basis from 1974.¹¹³ However, obtaining University Entrance by accrediting was still available only to candidates offering English and at least three other subjects at one sitting.

University Bursaries and Scholarships

The number of pupils entering the upper sixth form continued to increase throughout the 60's; the 1961 total of 2,350 had risen to 5,800 by 1970. The Universities Entrance Board appreciated that the range of sixth-form awards needed to be extended to accommodate the

needs, aptitudes, and interests of this much larger cohort. In 1965, the Board released a proposal to introduce a Bursaries examination at the upper sixth-form level, "with papers of a less exacting and sophisticated kind than those for the Entrance Scholarships examination".¹¹⁴ The primary aim of the new examination was to provide an incentive to greater effort in the upper sixth form. Assuming that almost all upper sixth pupils would sit either the Bursaries or the Scholarships examination, the Board planned to award bursaries to approximately half of the total group. There would be two types of bursary : A, worth £50 a year; and B, worth £30 a year. Both could be held in conjunction with the standard fees and allowances bursary and the boarding bursary. Candidates could enter in three, four, or five subjects, with bursaries being awarded on aggregate marks; English would not be compulsory.¹¹⁵ After circulating this scheme to interested groups, the Board obtained government approval to institute the new Bursaries examination in 1966. The examination was an instant success. Twice as many upper sixth-form pupils sat an external examination in 1966 as had done so in 1965; ¹¹⁶ over 1,900 bursaries were awarded in this first year of operation. A survey carried out by the P.P.T.A. in 1967 indicated general approval of the way the examination was being conducted.¹¹⁷ The schools continued to support the Bursaries examination strongly during the remainder of the decade (table 50).

In 1962, new Scholarships regulations increased the number of junior scholarships awarded each year from ten to thirty;¹¹⁸ at the same time, the value of the scholarships was raised. A 1965 amendment to the Scholarships regulations added six more scholarships to each division (junior and national), making eighty-two scholarships

TABLE 50

NUMBER OF UNIVERSITY SCHOLARSHIPS, UNIVERSITY BURSARIES,
AND HIGHER SCHOOL CERTIFICATES AWARDED, 1966 - 1970

Year	University Scholarships	University "A" Bursaries	University "B" Bursaries	Higher School Certificates only	Total Higher School Certificates
1966	89	869	1,064	1,934	3,956
1967	94	969	1,124	2,200	4,387
1968	103	993	1,469	2,402	4,967
1969	113	1,073	1,590	2,590	5,366
1970	116	1,240	1,862	2,547	5,765

Source: E.1 Reports

available in all. The Bursaries and Scholarships examinations were amalgamated in 1970. The Bursaries arrangements remained unchanged; candidates for Scholarships would take five papers at Bursaries level, and three supplementary Scholarships papers selected by them from their Bursaries subjects. Some schools, especially the older-established boys' schools, continued to set great store by their results in the Scholarships examination. In the nine years from 1960 to 1968, Auckland Grammar School won ninety-nine scholarships, including a prodigious seventeen (one fifth of the New Zealand total) in 1965.¹¹⁹ It was also the ambition of many of the newer schools to do well in the Scholarships examination, an achievement which they believed, not without justification, would establish them in the eyes of the public as prestige schools. The four scholarships secured by Kelston Boys' High School pupils in 1971¹²⁰ would have added considerably to the academic laurels of that school, as would the three scholarships won by pupils from Shirley Boys' High School in the first year the School had an upper sixth form (1961).¹²¹ From time to time, a smaller school produced a particularly meritorious result in the Scholarships examination, such as at Thames, in 1963, when a boy in his fourth year at the High School won second place in New Zealand.¹²² Such an occurrence invariably led to much local rejoicing.

Fine Arts Preliminary

New regulations governing this examination came into effect from 1965. They required candidates to submit a portfolio of works, and to obtain a pass in University Entrance English. While the portfolio of works had to include drawings, paintings, works in graphic media, and photographs and sketches of three-dimensional works, candidates could

decide for themselves the nature and number of the works submitted.¹²³

Methodology

The most significant factor leading to changed methods of teaching in the 60's was the development of educational technology. As the Rongotai College jubilee chronicler put it, the limited range of teaching aids available in earlier years ("blackboards, canes, and threats") were now joined by film projectors, video tapes, and overhead projectors.¹²⁴

Although articles on the educational potential of television had begun to appear in New Zealand in the early 60's,¹²⁵ and many teachers were convinced that its introduction "could lead to a rapid improvement in the quality of classroom experience",¹²⁶ little was done to capitalise on that potential until well into the 70's. Admittedly, Hutt Valley High School had set up its own television circuit in 1965, using the medium to present highly successful programmes ranging "from the new mathematics to eclipses, Elizabethan theatre to latent heat, French life and customs to structural linguistics",¹²⁷ but no account of this venture appeared until 1969.¹²⁸ It was not until the recommendations of the Committee of Enquiry into the Uses of Television in Education¹²⁹ were made public in 1972 that interest in the possibilities of educational television became widespread. Contributing, also, to the developing awareness of what this medium had to offer the schools were the reports reaching the country of the use being made of it overseas. A British authority, quoted in the *P.P.T.A. Journal* in 1971, indicated that audio-visual aids, such as television, video tape recorders, and

cassette recorders, were widely used in the United Kingdom, with many schools in London having an audio-visual officer to help teachers to use the aids.¹³⁰

References to computers being used as an aid to timetabling began to appear in the New Zealand literature in the late 60's;¹³¹ by then, a number of schools, even though they had no computers, had introduced computer courses, mostly of the programming type. From 1970 onwards, schools began to purchase their own computers,¹³² making possible the introduction into secondary school curricula of more sophisticated computer courses.

First introduced into the schools in the late 50's, the overhead projector was in widespread use by the mid-60's. This machine had some distinct advantages: it did not require that the classroom be darkened, thus enabling the pupils to take notes while the lesson was proceeding; the teacher faced the class when using the machine; transparencies, once prepared, could be stored for later use; overlays made it possible to add detail to a basic outline; and transparencies could be made up in colour. Commercially-produced transparencies were on the market by the early 70's, by which time schools could also obtain transparencies covering a number of curriculum areas from the Department's Audio-Visual Unit.

Tape recorders also come into their own during the 60's. Although they were used mainly in the teaching of English, foreign languages, and music, some schools also found them useful in teaching shorthand and typewriting. Queen's High School commercial classes began experimenting with tape recorders and headphones in the mid-

60's; by 1968, this equipment was in full-scale use.¹³³ Schools could have teaching material put onto their own tapes using the Department's high-speed tape-duplicating facility;¹³⁴ they could also tape plays, poems, songs, stories, and music from records and radio broadcasts. Because of their versatility and comparative cheapness (a significant consideration for most schools), tape recorders were in wide use in almost all secondary schools by the late 60's.

Methodological changes in the teaching of foreign languages have already been discussed in chapter 13, and reference made to the setting up of language laboratories. Typical of these was the one built at Tamaki College (Auckland) in 1971. Costing \$6,500, all of which was raised by the College, assisted by local service and sporting clubs and business firms, the laboratory accommodated thirty-five pupils, each of whom had an individual booth and headphone set. Two different programmes could be played simultaneously, and the teacher could communicate with individuals as well as with the whole class.¹³⁵ If schools using the audio-lingual method of teaching languages were unable to afford a language laboratory, they often acquired a 'listening-post', which simply consisted of a set of headphones connected to a central terminal. These machines enabled pupils to develop aural comprehension skills, but they lacked the capacity of the language laboratory to provide controlled oral practice as well.

The schools made ever-increasing demands on the National Film Library for films during the 60's,¹³⁶ while the volume of film strip sales also continued to rise year by year. To speed up services to the schools, the Library established a South Island branch at

Christchurch early in 1966. The Library added regularly to its stock of films and film strips, a high proportion of the new copies being gifted by diplomatic offices and commercial firms, or, in the case of film strips, produced by the Library itself. In 1969, it had over 8,000 film titles (31,500 copies) in stock, in addition to 6,000 gramophone records. By 1968, issues of gramophone records to the schools had declined; many schools had built up their own record collections, and much more extensive use was being made of tapes. The schools benefited from the capacity of the Audio-Visual Unit to produce back-up material when something special or unexpected occurred. In 1969, for example, the Unit acquired sets of film strips in preparation for the introduction of art as a University Entrance subject; as well, it prepared special film strips for the Cook bicentenary.¹³⁷ The Unit also published in the *Education Gazette* helpful evaluations of newly-accessioned films and film strips.¹³⁸

Reference has already been made to the French broadcasts to schools, which were discontinued after 1966. By that time, the demand for them had slackened off considerably, as schools built up their own tape libraries. However, in 1969, the Advisory Committee on Broadcasts to Schools sought teacher opinion on the desirability of extending school broadcasts to include programmes for secondary schools covering areas such as liberal studies, social studies, and vocational guidance.¹³⁹ Some programmes along these lines, catering for pupils in forms 5 to 7, were broadcast in 1972 and 1973.¹⁴⁰

By the late 60's, there was a noticeable move away from the use of standard-issue textbooks, especially in English and social studies,

where full texts were being replaced by class sets of booklets dealing with specific topics.¹⁴¹ Moreover, most of the new mathematics and science textbooks were too large and too expensive to be taken home,¹⁴² which meant that teachers had to adjust their teaching methods to allow for the fact that homework could not readily be set, nor pupils expected to do much home learning in these subjects. Long-standing publications, like the *Students' Digest* and the UNESCO *Courier*, continued to be widely used, while a new magazine, *Affairs*, dealing with "topical and controversial subjects in a mature, informed, and open-minded way",¹⁴³ appeared in 1969.

Different ways of grouping pupils for teaching purposes were introduced into a number of secondary schools in the 60's. Various forms of team teaching became quite common, especially with senior classes,¹⁴⁴ though, as the Director-General noted in his Report for 1967, schools were still making only limited use of group discussion and seminar methods.¹⁴⁵ There was more evidence of experimentation at form 7 level, where fewer formal class periods were scheduled, allowing pupils more time for private study, including research and assignment work.¹⁴⁶ While it would not be true to say that teaching techniques underwent substantial changes in the 60's (except in languages and the sciences), many teachers did strive "to use innovative methods which were intended to make the learning process more meaningful for students".¹⁴⁷ Since such methods almost always required pupils to assume more responsibility for their own learning and their own actions, they also offered a better preparation for life beyond the school.

Pupils

Introduction

In many ways, secondary school pupils of the 60's were quite different from their counterparts of the 40's. Physically, though not socially or emotionally, they were developing earlier;¹⁴⁸ they were very much affected by the media, especially television; they were subjected to a "steady clamour of outside distractions";¹⁴⁹ and, above all, they were growing up at a time of nation-wide changes in social attitudes and conditions, when the values, standards, and practices of the past were being constantly questioned, and "the trend [was] towards self-expression and personal gratification".¹⁵⁰ For countless adolescents, the 60's was a decade of exaggerated enthusiasms, when pop idols reigned supreme, and long hair was much in vogue. One outcome of this "new era of personal freedoms"¹⁵¹ was the growth of an adolescent sub-culture which was often in conflict with the established order.¹⁵²

Naturally, a more permissive society resulted in an increase in discipline problems in the schools, a situation which led to much more emphasis being placed on the pastoral care of pupils. Counselling services were upgraded and extended, the caring role of the form teacher assumed greater significance, and internal systems, usually involving the appointment of deans, each with responsibility for a year level, were instituted. The provision of these guidance networks also helped to counteract the tendency for relations between teachers and pupils to become more impersonal as schools grew larger and the likelihood of individual pupils losing their identity increased.¹⁵³ By 1970, this shift of emphasis was reflected in a revaluation of the

role of teachers appointed to positions of responsibility. Hitherto, such posts, except for senior assistant mistresses, had almost always been confined to the oversight of subject areas; now, more and more positions of responsibility entailed supervision and welfare duties, with subject obligations often a secondary consideration.

The adjustments which schools were obliged to make in response to societal changes were most far-reaching in the sixth forms. As numbers at this level grew larger (by 1970, one pupil in every seven at secondary school was a sixth former),¹⁵⁴ and as their educational purposes changed (only about 30 per cent of the 1970 sixth-form cohort were university bound),¹⁵⁵ the need to re-appraise the programmes and the status of the schools' most senior pupils became more urgent. In the 60's, most schools came to accept that sixth-form pupils were young adults, and began to treat them accordingly. They were allowed concessions in the matter of dress, and were provided with study carrels and, sometimes, common rooms. Above all, they were given the opportunity to express their views, and to discuss contemporary issues of local, national, and international significance. The chief vehicle for this activity was the sixth-form liberal studies and social education courses already discussed. In addition, by the mid-60's, inter-school sixth-form forums were well established;¹⁵⁶ the New Zealand branch of the United Nations Association was sponsoring annually a national seminar for sixth formers;¹⁵⁷ and schools, both singly and in groups, were running senior pupils' leadership courses.¹⁵⁸ These measures did much to help the schools to retain the goodwill and cooperation of a high proportion of their sixth formers at a time when the authority of the school was being openly questioned and even challenged.

Pupil attitudes

Pupils attending secondary schools in the 60's mirrored the changes taking place in society as a whole. One consequence of this situation, exacerbated by the fact that so many pupils came from homes "which [did] nothing to give a sense of purpose or meaning to life",¹⁵⁹ was that traditions and patterns of behaviour to which schools had held fast for decades began to be seriously threatened. From the mid-60's onwards, pupil 'protests' about what they considered to be restrictions on their 'rights' became common. Taking their cue from high school protest movements in the United States, and from United Kingdom groups like the National Union of Students and the Schools' Action Union, the New Zealand secondary school protesters campaigned for freedom of expression in schools, for the adoption of internal assessment, for the improvement of teacher-pupil ratios, for the abolition of school uniforms, and for the replacement of appointed prefects by elected leaders concerned with communication rather than enforcement.¹⁶⁰ By the late 60's, the secondary school protest movement had become organised; various groups emerged, some local, such as the Progressive Youth Movement, the Auckland-based Student Action Committee, and the Canterbury Union of Secondary School Students, and one national organisation, the Secondary School Students' Association (formed in 1968). The Association had an active period in 1970 under a particularly forceful and articulate chairperson;¹⁶¹ among other ventures, it organised a march on Parliament by four hundred Wellington secondary school pupils on 25 June to protest to the Minister of Education about teachers' salaries and conditions of service.¹⁶² The editorial in the *Dominion* on 29 June supported the marchers, praising their "awareness of the purpose of education", and declaring that their concern over classes without

teachers "and other shortcomings of the system" was commendable.¹⁶³ The Secondary School Students' Association published its own magazine, *Eye*, which was banned from the precincts of many schools. The Association remained in existence until the mid-70's, though, from 1972 onwards, its effectiveness was undermined by pupil apathy. One of the more active of the local secondary school protest groups was the Canterbury Union of Secondary School Students, which, in 1970, had about three hundred members drawn from twenty-six schools. Its basic aim, 'the betterment of the social, cultural, and educational activities of secondary school students', could hardly be described as revolutionary, yet one principal labelled the Union a 'communist front',¹⁶⁴ and school authorities, for the most part, did their best to suppress its undertakings. However, it was not the opposition of school officials which eventually brought about the demise of the Union and similar protest groups, but sheer lack of support from the very people they were trying to represent - senior school pupils. Demonstrations, sit-down protests,¹⁶⁵ mini-strikes, and even open letters to the Prime Minister¹⁶⁶ attracted a good deal of newspaper publicity at the time, but they were doomed to ultimate failure because so many of the pupils taking part were not genuine reformers at all. As one principal put it: "Most ... school pupils who attempt to defy authority do so, not because it is unreasonable, but because it is there."¹⁶⁷ By the mid-70's, the secondary school protest movement was dead.

Community activities and 'service' work

Notwithstanding the characteristic trend of the 60's towards personal gratification referred to earlier in this chapter, all secondary schools continued to encourage the ideal of helping others.

The 'service' concept was strongly endorsed, with many schools subscribing regularly to charity appeals, sponsoring needy children overseas through the Save the Children Fund organisation, and supporting (in some cases, through voluntary weekly collections) such causes as Youth Against Hunger, Freedom From Hunger, and CORSO. Pupils raised funds for these purposes by means of stalls, concerts, and, particularly, mufti days. Within the schools, helping in the library provided an avenue of service for scores of pupils,¹⁶⁸ while various forms of tutoring schemes, involving senior pupils helping juniors with their schoolwork, were operating in the 60's.¹⁶⁹ Hagley High School called its tutoring programme 'Volunteer Service Within'. At Queen's High School, sixth-form pupils and others organised a scheme (the Forbury Club) to care for children in the junior school until their parents came home from work.¹⁷⁰

Two school-based but community-oriented service schemes which were introduced in the 60's were the Interact Club, a junior arm of Rotary International, which had as its objective 'to serve the school and the community, and to increase international understanding', and the Duke of Edinburgh Award programme, which offered "graduated levels of challenges whereby young people [could] learn new skills, and enlarge their social concern and self-image".¹⁷¹ The first Interact Club in a New Zealand secondary school was established at New Plymouth Boys' High School in 1963; thereafter, many other Clubs were set up, particularly in the larger boys' schools. The Duke of Edinburgh Award scheme achieved immense popularity in schools all over the country in the second half of the decade. The highest award, the coveted gold, was often presented at special ceremonies. Many schools developed a strong tradition of service to their communities, offering assistance

to the old, the needy, and the handicapped.¹⁷² There was no shortage of "young people with a social conscience"¹⁷³ in the secondary schools of the 60's.

Gifted pupils

Secondary pupils who were gifted intellectually continued to be neglected in the 60's, though a few schools did provide for such pupils to move through the system faster by skipping a year level (usually form 5), a practice of very doubtful educational value. Enrichment programmes in secondary schools were not common, partly because the brightest pupils (especially the girls) generally did not want to be considered different from their classmates, and often resisted efforts to further develop their intellectual talents. The P.P.T.A. failed to appreciate this point when it resolved, at its 1963 conference, to give publicity to the rights of the ablest children in the schools.¹⁷⁴ The issue was a good deal more complex than the resolution implied. The publication of a bibliography on gifted children in 1964 was a useful addition to the literature on the subject,¹⁷⁵ but made little difference to actual practice in the schools.

Special education

The provision of special vocational classes for pupils of very limited academic ability has been covered in chapter 13. The Department's Psychological Service, which played "a key role in the identification of children with special teaching needs, and in decisions on their school placement", continued to expand in the 60's; by 1970, it had sixty psychologists and twenty-two organisers operating from twenty centres.¹⁷⁶ At the same time, services for

children of secondary school age suffering from physical handicaps were considerably extended. The opening of Homai College, a residential school for blind and partially-sighted pupils at Manurewa (South Auckland), in 1964 was a major step forward; within five years, the College had fifty blind pupils at secondary level, some of whom were attending regular classes at Manurewa High School.¹⁷⁷ The integration of deaf pupils into ordinary secondary schools gathered momentum from the mid-60's. Third and fourth-form pupils from the Kelston School for the Deaf were receiving a major part of their tuition at Kelston Boys' and Kelston Girls' High Schools by 1965,¹⁷⁸ while a special class for deaf pupils living at Sumner School for the Deaf was set up at Linwood High School in 1967.¹⁷⁹ In 1969, a class for deaf children was created at Wellington High School, the first such class to be established at a secondary school not located close to a school for the deaf.¹⁸⁰ In his Report for 1970, the Director-General emphasised the social and educational advantages of providing for handicapped children within the ordinary school system wherever possible.¹⁸¹ This policy, later known as 'mainstreaming', was vigorously pursued by the Department in the 70's and 80's. Even psychiatric youngsters were catered for at local high schools. In 1971, some pupils from Sunnyside Psychiatric Hospital Special School were attending trade-training classes at Hillmorton High School.¹⁸² During the 60's, secondary school pupils who were patients in the larger public hospitals continued to receive help with schoolwork from full-time teachers attached to the hospitals. Middlemore Hospital (Auckland) had two such teachers at secondary level in 1970.¹⁸³

Internal government : prefects and school councils

The 60's witnessed a quickening of the movement to make secondary

schools more pupil centred. Evidence of this has already been seen in the tendency of schools to replace predetermined course structures by programmes of study which included some components selected by pupils. Equally significant were the genuine efforts made by almost all schools to provide a structure through which pupil opinion could be expressed, and pupil participation in the affairs of the school encouraged. This usually took the form of a democratically-elected school council, designed to give pupils some opportunity to influence the way the school was run, and some practice in accepting responsibility for their own actions. So widespread did this movement become, that, by the end of the decade, a substantial proportion of secondary schools had abandoned the prefect system in favour of school forums or councils.¹⁸⁴ In most schools, the functions of the councils were largely deliberative and advisory, though the occasional council also had a disciplinary role.¹⁸⁵ In addition, councils provided a bridge between the pupils and the school administration, thus contributing to the "development of a less formal and hierarchical institution".¹⁸⁶ The Rangiora High School historian aptly summed up the changing situation when he referred to school councils as "welcome evidence of a more relaxed and consultative system of school government, suited to the sixties".¹⁸⁷

Discipline

The debate on discipline seemed to intensify in the early 60's. A whole number of *Education* (July, 1961), and part of the following number, were given over to a symposium entitled 'The Purposes and Practice of Discipline in Schools'; the Currie Commission reported on the topic at some length (but with little finality); while the P.P.T.A. executive, in 1961, was considering a conference remit 'that

poor attendance or an unsatisfactory attitude on the part of a pupil under the age of fifteen should result in suspension of the payment of the child allowance'.¹⁸⁸ As the decade progressed, the situation remained as volatile as ever. Some senior teachers considered that, by the mid-60's, maintaining discipline had become less of a problem in secondary schools, notwithstanding the youthfulness and inexperience of so many staff members. The recently-retired principal of Timaru Boys' High School believed that there was less "grossly disruptive and offensive schoolboy behaviour" in 1965 than there had been in the first decade after the war.¹⁸⁹ On the other hand, a head of department at Huntly College claimed, in 1970, that "... a small minority of disrupters (about 3 per cent of secondary pupils) are driving young women teachers out of classrooms". He stated that direct, obscene abuse of women teachers was by no means a rare occurrence.¹⁹⁰ Similarly, the first recorded instances of secondary schools abandoning corporal punishment (in 1962 and 1964, respectively)¹⁹¹ were followed soon after by Mercurio's account of its "deeply entrenched practice" at Christchurch Boys' High School.¹⁹² Again, while hostel rules for senior girls at Timaru Girls' High School were relaxed in 1968 on the principle that "... as young women, they must make their own rules and standards",¹⁹³ girls at New Plymouth Girls' High School were still subjected to a rigid system of discipline, which, in the opinion of an American teacher on the staff, "... widened the gulf between authority and the under-dog, and perhaps quickened the rebellion of youth in those days".¹⁹⁴ Pupils who were at New Plymouth Girls' High School in the 60's recalled "... the apparently pointless discipline I thought it was regimentation gone mad";¹⁹⁵ "... an inordinate fear of authority";¹⁹⁶ and "... teachers who played with their tongues. Some could be really cruel.

They taught by fear, and made some girls cry".¹⁹⁷ In spite of the efforts of some schools to adopt more enlightened discipline policies, the establishing of school councils, with their generally beneficial effects on pupil-teacher relationships, and the decrying of corporal punishment by P.P.T.A. officials (who asserted that it was "... in conflict with professional standards"),¹⁹⁸ it is doubtful whether the disciplinary practices of most schools in 1970 were very different from what they had been in 1960.

Segregation of the sexes; sex stereotyping

A number of factors combined in the 60's to break down further the segregation of sexes in secondary schools. Chief among these was the continuing shortage of teachers, which forced many adjacent schools to combine classes at senior level. In 1968, all upper sixth-form classes at New Plymouth Boys' and Girls' High Schools were combined, the Girls' School taking responsibility for the humanities subjects, and the Boys' School for mathematics and the sciences. The (Boys') School historian noted wryly that the experiment could not continue in 1969 since, "... assistance with travel costs promised by the Education Department was not forthcoming".¹⁹⁹ A much more durable system of senior school coeducation was evolved at the Whangarei High Schools, where the two principals worked together to combine sixth-form classes so that senior pupils could be given a much wider choice of subject options than either school could possibly have offered separately. The principals believed that boys and girls would derive real benefit from such an arrangement "... coming at that stage of their lives when [they] reached equality in social development, and could gain from their differing approach to intellectual problems".²⁰⁰ For the most part, schools also adopted a more liberal attitude in the

60's towards boys and girls associating outside of the classroom. Reference has already been made to the increasing frequency of combined drama productions;²⁰¹ in addition, combined sixth (and seventh-) form clubs were more numerous by the early 70's.²⁰² However, as late as 1969, there were still schools where quite rigid segregation of the sexes was being enforced.²⁰³

As has been shown in chapter 13, the introduction in the 60's of programmes of study providing for some pupil selection resulted in many girls taking subjects formerly regarded as suitable only for boys (technical drawing, agriculture, woodwork), while boys began studying subjects long regarded as the preserve of girls (home economics, typing). Sex stereotyping also came under attack in school sport. Girls' cricket teams were common by the 60's (a Waikato secondary schools girls' cricket competition was in place in 1966); girls began playing indoor basketball; the occasional school had a girls' soccer team; and Wellington High School produced its first harrierettes in 1965.²⁰⁴ As far as career options were concerned, some of the more conservative girls' schools maintained a restricted outlook based on traditional gender roles. As one girl who attended New Plymouth Girls' High School in the mid-60's put it: "... our futures seemed so narrow. We could teach, or nurse, or get married There seemed no other choices."²⁰⁵ In general, however, the actions and attitudes of secondary schools in the sixties reflected their growing recognition that true equality of educational opportunity and stereotyping by sex were totally incompatible bedfellows.

School dress

In the early 60's, most post-primary schools were still laying

great stress on pupils wearing a prescribed uniform, believing that this requirement "... aids esprit de corps, ... generally assists in building morale and the tone of the School, ... and is one way of ensuring that all pupils ... enter the School on an equal footing".²⁰⁶ When a National School Uniform Advisory Committee, representing both trade and school interests, was set up in 1962,²⁰⁷ it seemed likely that uniforms would persist indefinitely. Until the mid-60's, most amendments to school uniform regulations were concerned not with deletions but with changes, mainly to provide more appropriate schoolwear for the summer months. In many schools, the gym frock remained, though the hem line crept higher and higher. A minority of parents were strongly opposed to regulation uniforms; twenty of them petitioned Parliament in 1966, asking that "action be taken to limit the expenditure demanded of parents by boards for school uniforms".²⁰⁸ Although the Education Committee of the House had no recommendation to make on the petition, the Labour spokesperson for education (P. Amos) drew attention to "... isolated instances of principals who develop a somewhat dictatorial attitude over some of the more petty requirements of school uniforms ... even to the extent of prescribing the number of eyelets in boys' shoes".²⁰⁹

From about 1965 onwards, more and more schools began to relax their uniform rules. By the end of the decade, a large number of schools had phased out caps ("the real bane of the school lives of both boys and teachers")²¹⁰ and girls' hats. Within another two or three years, many schools had made the wearing of school uniform optional for seventh (and, in a few cases, sixth) formers. Others introduced a special dress code for senior pupils. The final step in the uniform deregulation process - allowing all pupils to come to

school in mufti²¹¹ - was taken in the 70's by at least three schools.²¹²

Sport

In its submission to the Currie Commission, the Department of Education made two very pertinent comments about the state of secondary school sport in the early 60's: "It is noteworthy that the range of school games is wider than it used to be, and that the national team games no longer completely dominate the picture."²¹³ Particularly prominent among the host of new sports established in the 60's were indoor basketball, badminton, and volleyball, all played by both boys and girls. Other sports taken up by many schools at that time included yachting, table tennis, fencing, and gymnastics, while a smaller number of schools introduced squash, small-bore rifle shooting,²¹⁴ rowing, golf, judo, cycling, and trampolining. All of the well-established sports continued, though there was a noticeable decline in the number of pupils taking part in Saturday sport by the end of the decade.²¹⁵ For one thing, fewer teachers were prepared to give up their Saturdays to looking after school sports teams; for another, the ready availability of transport (and of money) enabled many teenagers to engage in more exciting sports than the schools could offer, such as skiing, hang gliding, and, particularly, surfing.²¹⁶ One aspect of school sport in the 60's which struck a sad note was the almost total disappearance of overnight inter-school visits, an outcome of the high incidence of juvenile drinking, coupled with the billeting problems likely to be encountered in a permissive society.

Clubs and other extra-curricular activities

Throughout the 60's, club activities continued to capture the interest of a high proportion of secondary school pupils. As with sport, a feature of the decade was the diversification of the pursuits pupils undertook. Some of the new clubs (computer, business management) reflected developments in the curriculum; others (electronics, radio, film, astronomy) owed their origin to a widespread interest in technological advances; yet others (guitar, folk music) catered for new musical tastes. A growing concern about what was happening in the wider world resulted in the formation, in a number of schools, of United Nations clubs, while a national revival of interest in Maori culture from the mid-60's onwards led to the setting up of Maori clubs and concert parties in many schools. Among the more unusual club activities referred to in school histories were war games, clay pigeon shooting, slot-car racing, model railway building, Scottish piping, tree planting, and printing. The newer clubs and the more traditional groups (art, discussion, tramping, Christian fellowship, chess, scouts and guides, philately, photography) combined to provide pupils in almost all schools with a wide range of stimulating and rewarding activities which broadened their outlooks, as well as helping them to develop useful post-school leisure-time interests.

Cadets

The 60's witnessed the demise of cadet training in all but a handful of schools. Several factors contributed to school units being disbanded, the most significant of which were cutbacks in government expenditure on defence in the early 60's,²¹⁷ and a steady decline in the number of teachers prepared to serve as officers.²¹⁸ The critical

year was 1964, when the Defence Department issued a directive to cadet units requiring them to reduce drastically their numbers (third formers were to be excluded, and cadets who had completed three years in a unit could be retained only if they were non-commissioned officers), and introducing a substantially-changed syllabus of training emphasising field-craft, weapon training, map reading, and jungle warfare.²¹⁹ All specialist units, except the Air Training Corps and Sea Cadets, were to be discontinued. Many schools²²⁰ found these requirements too stringent, and disbanded their units forthwith. Others continued with cadet training, sometimes on a voluntary basis, but, by 1970, only a sprinkling of units remained.²²¹ The editor of the *Evening Star* (Dunedin) claimed that "... cadets were doomed because no one cared enough about them to do anything to rejuvenate the scheme".²²² However, there was more to it than that; closer to the mark was the opinion of the King's High School jubilee chronicler that, ultimately, cadet training fell "... victim [to] changing times, attitudes, and priorities".²²³

Magazines and newspapers

Pupils continued to contribute substantially to the production of school magazines in the 60's, both on the editorial side and in providing copy. The people charged with writing school histories almost always looked to the annual magazines for "... a record of the changes and influences which came with the years".²²⁴ Therein, they found, as the Feilding Agricultural High School historian aptly put it: "... the main storehouse of news of the School ... a kind of historical library of events, opinions, and people."²²⁵

A growing number of schools published school newspapers at

irregular intervals during the year. Typically, these were entirely produced by pupils, usually seniors. In the early 70's, the education reporter of the *Christchurch Press* noted that Burnside High School and Shirley Boys' High School both had newspapers which carried uncensored pupil viewpoints, while Kaikorai Valley High School's *Mercury* had been appearing for some years. The reporter held that, as senior pupils became more numerous, there would inevitably be a demand for a printed forum for their opinion.²²⁶ Few school newspapers ran to more than four or five issues, though, while they lasted, they were generally well received by the school community.²²⁷ Occasionally, the editorial responsibility fell into the hands of radicals intent on promoting their own views, which tended to be highly critical of existing institutions and attitudes.²²⁸ When this happened, the days of the school newspaper in question were usually numbered, since it lost both the support of the bulk of its subscribers, and the approval of the school authorities.

Trips and overseas travel

Class and group trips lasting for up to ten days were sufficiently well established by the 60's to justify bus companies offering schools educational tours at special rates.²²⁹ Some of these trips were recreational, with visits to ski resorts being the most popular. Most, however, were field trips, carried out as an integral part of the geography or (less often) biology syllabus. Many North Island schools took parties of from thirty to fifty pupils on geography field trips to the South Island in the 60's, sometimes on a regular basis.²³⁰

The exchange of pupils with New Caledonia, and exchanges under

the American Field Service Scholarships scheme described in chapter 11, continued throughout the 60's. From 1962, the New Caledonia exchange pupils spent four weeks in each country. Some New Zealand secondary school pupils were awarded Rotary International exchange scholarships, which enabled them to attend a United States high school for a year.²³¹ Delegates were also chosen to take part in the annual World Youth Forum, held in New York.²³² Trips to Australia by school parties became quite common at this time. Many of these tours were of a semi-educational nature; others involved sports teams. Occasionally, something more ambitious would be organised, such as the month-long tour of Asia in 1967 by a party from Kelston Boys' High School,²³³ or the safari trip to the outback of Australia undertaken by a group from Waitaki Boys' High School in 1966.²³⁴ These opportunities to experience another culture, even briefly, made pupils more aware of New Zealand's relative isolation, developed their tolerance of differences, and encouraged them to learn from the traditions, attitudes, and beliefs of their host countries.

Overseas links

Apart from the regular exchange schemes already discussed, many New Zealand secondary schools had links, in the 60's, with schools overseas. Some New Zealand schools built up a tradition of their pupils working with the Volunteer Service Abroad organisation,²³⁵ while boarding schools, in particular, frequently provided places for overseas pupils.²³⁶ In 1963, Christchurch Girls' High School adopted a Japanese sister school; two years later, it established an inter-class link with a Nigerian school.²³⁷ Each year, Otago Girls' High School accepted about six (from upwards of twenty) applicants for admission from South East Asian countries.²³⁸ Queen's High School had

a girl from Tanganyika in the sixth form in 1962, and one from Sabah in 1967.²³⁹ Overseas pupils added colour and variety to school life, and their different perspective on local and national issues was of great benefit to the New Zealand pupils with whom they came into contact.

Hostels

Economic conditions were sufficiently buoyant in the 60's to ensure that most school hostels were fully booked. Fees remained reasonably stable during this period, standing at \$150-\$160 a term in the early 70's, compared with about £55 a term in 1965. The older-established schools continued to look on their hostels as the 'heart' of the school,²⁴⁰ with boarders making a contribution to school life out of all proportion to their numbers.²⁴¹ During the 60's, changing circumstances obliged schools to revise their hostel administration policies: fewer teachers were in residence; cooks were replaced by caterers; leave provisions for boarders were extended. In the early 70's, Feilding Agricultural High School had to abandon a tradition maintained for fifty years, and admit to its hostel some boys who were not taking the agriculture course.²⁴² Most boys and girls adapted reasonably well to hostel-life, judging from comments recorded in school histories, though there were probably more than a few who, like a boarder at New Plymouth Boys' High School in the late 60's, found the atmosphere "... over-regulated, over-closeted, and at times overpowering".²⁴³

School and community

Community links

For the most part, schools worked hard in the 60's to strengthen the community links which they had forged in the 50's. They tried to break away from their former isolation, and become a part of the community by multiplying the occasions when community members came to the school, and the school went out into the community. On the one hand, 'meet the teachers' evenings, and evenings devoted to discussing pupils' reports became much more common, and were widely supported; elderly people were invited to the schools to be entertained; knowledgeable community members were coopted to assist with senior school general studies and electives programmes; and school facilities were increasingly made available to community organisations. On the other hand, pupils presented programmes of music and drama at community venues; school Red Cross groups helped at local hospitals; schools provided collectors to assist with charitable appeals; and pupils taking work experience courses were employed in the community. This building up of strong school-community relationships was a feature of the 60's. Many a newly-established school, in particular, found that, by meeting the community half way, it was assured of the support it so desperately needed in its early days.

Parents, and parent-teacher associations

Many secondary schools experienced a quickening of parent interest in the 60's, brought about partly by the desire of parents to draw on the assistance of the schools with the difficult task of bringing up teenagers in a society where long-established values and principles often seemed to be under siege. It was significant that,

in this period, parent-teacher associations were formed for the first time in a number of older schools.²⁴⁴ The stated aims of one of these (Feilding Agricultural High School) included "to iron out personal problems and difficulties in the parent-teacher-pupil relationship", and to provide "a forum for the exchange of ideas on school affairs and on general topics of educational interest".²⁴⁵

Although fund-raising remained prominent among parent-teacher association activities, other tasks were also undertaken. The associations often hosted 'meet the teachers' evenings, arranged familiarisation evenings for the parents of incoming third formers, and provided a service for parents by organising second-hand school uniform sales. They were also frequently called on to provide refreshments - for visiting sports teams, for parents' days, for socials, for the cast of school productions, and so on.²⁴⁶

Secondary schools were in more need of extra money than ever in the 60's, since much of the new equipment and facilities required in a technological age was very expensive. As usual, parent-teacher associations all over the country rose to the occasion superbly. Fairs, galas, raffles, and other fund-raising ventures brought in large sums, often in a remarkably short time; moreover, members had no sooner provided the money needed for one school amenity than they were repeating the campaign for something else. The energy and enthusiasm displayed by the parent-teacher associations of some of the newer schools were breathtaking. The association at Shirley Boys' High School, formed within a month of the School's opening in 1957, immediately began raising funds for a swimming pool. It was in use within two years. Efforts were then directed towards providing the

School with a gymnasium. It was opened before the School was five years old.²⁴⁷ At Lytton High School, opened in February, 1961, the parent-teacher association had financed a cafeteria by August,²⁴⁸ while the Upper Hutt College association raised £13,500 for a school gymnasium within twenty months.²⁴⁹

The uses to which the money raised by parent-teacher associations was put were extremely varied. Large building projects (swimming baths, gymnasia, sports pavilions, squash courts, cafeterias), though prominent, were by no means the only legacies of parent-teacher association enterprise. Long before the Government made provision for ancillary staffing in secondary schools, at least one school was able to employ a school nurse with financial support from the parent-teacher association.²⁵⁰ In other schools, parent-teacher associations supplied teaching aids and equipment not covered by departmental grants, sound systems for new halls, sports gear, and outdoor education equipment. They also donated orchestral instruments and works of art to their school, made grants to the prize fund, and gave books to the library. All of these contributions were of immense help to the schools in enhancing the quality of the educational opportunities they were able to offer their pupils.

Past pupils' associations

The objectives and activities of most past pupils' associations in the 60's were much the same as they had been in the 50's. Many groups found it harder to attract members as more women joined the work force, and former pupils developed other interests. In the larger centres, some association members found their loyalties divided when their own children began attending the newer schools. At one

school, the Old Pupils' Association was superseded by a School and Community Association, the aims of which were "... to foster interest in the school, its activities, and in education generally, and to help maintain a spirit of warm and friendly cooperation between school, home, and community".²⁵¹

Except at times of special significance, such as jubilees and centenaries, most past pupils' associations tended to have a relatively small membership base. However, this "dedicated service given by a few stalwarts"²⁵² still enabled the associations to accomplish a great deal on behalf of their schools. Their gifts and services may have been more modest than those provided by parent-teacher associations, but they were none the less worthwhile. Proof of the value of the "active loyalty"²⁵³ which characterised these associations was the fact that very few schools were without one.

Evening classes

Evening classes, especially of the non-vocational (hobby) type, were in such strong demand in the 60's that newly-established schools were sometimes offering them as soon as they opened. Kuranui College ran two evening classes in its first year (1960); by the next year, ten classes were available at the College.²⁵⁴ Some of the older schools catered for substantial numbers of adults in these classes. In 1968, Whakatane High School had more than five hundred evening class students;²⁵⁵ at Wellington High School, in 1969, over three thousand people were enrolled in 150 evening classes.²⁵⁶ Altogether, forty-two thousand adults were attending 2,900 evening classes throughout the country in 1970; seventeen hundred of these classes were in the domestic arts (cooking, woodwork, millinery, dressmaking,

etc.), while a further six hundred were in arts and crafts (pottery, art, leatherwork, bookbinding, etc.).²⁵⁷ Examination-oriented classes in subjects like English and mathematics were much less popular; generally, only the larger city schools received enough enrolments to justify offering such classes.²⁵⁸ At least two schools, in the 60's, had evening class orchestras, one of which was reported to be making a "significant contribution to the musical life of the community".²⁵⁹

Even though evening classes constituted a community service, the Government progressively withdrew its support for non-vocational classes from 1967 onwards. A cut in the capitation grant for some evening classes, which took effect from February, 1971, was followed a year later by a further reduction in the grant, and a requirement that schools recover from evening class students (by raising tuition fees) one third of the cost of tutors' salaries. The result of this move, as a nation-wide P.P.T.A. survey showed, was that non-vocational evening class enrolments fell from 38,266 in 1971 to 24,732 in 1972 (a drop of 35.4 per cent), while the number of such classes in operation in 1972 was 730 fewer than it had been the previous year. On the other hand, there were very few changes in respect of vocational classes over the same period.²⁶⁰ This short-sighted, penny-pinching policy cost the Government far more in lost goodwill than it ever saved them in money terms. As a correspondent to the *P.P.T.A. Journal* so aptly put it, one can only wonder what Dr Beeby would have said.²⁶¹

Boards of governors

The composition of most school boards underwent some changes in

the 60's. With the abolition of government appointees to boards in the early 60's, the places thus vacated were usually allocated to additional parents' representatives. Legislation was also introduced allowing a number of schools to have a representative of their past pupils' association on the board.²⁶² During the 60's, the P.P.T.A. continued its campaign to include teacher representatives on boards. A 1967 conference remit requesting the Government to amend the Education Act to provide for such representation was, however, firmly rejected by the Minister, who considered that "the point of view of assistants in a school can be properly communicated to a board by the principal".²⁶³ Women chairpersons of secondary school boards were beginning to appear by the end of the decade.²⁶⁴

In some cases, existing boards continued to act as interim controlling authorities of newly-established schools. Both Kamo High School (opened in 1960) and Tikipunga High School (1971) were initially under the control of the Whangarei High Schools' Board. However, most schools moved towards independent control as soon as they could. Central Hawke's Bay College, established in 1959 under the Hawke's Bay Education Board, had its own board by May, 1961.²⁶⁵ Where one board controlled a boys' school and a girls' school, it was sometimes alleged that the board tended to favour the boys' school. The chronicler of Christchurch Girls' High School evidently believed this to be the case: "A 1959 petition for a tuck shop - such as the one the Boys' High School, needless to say, already had - was declined [by the Board]"²⁶⁶ Similarly, the Waitaki Girls' High School historian lamented the fact that "... substantially more food was allowed for the boy boarders than for the girls". She went on to say, however, that "... no doubt, this bias only reflected the public view".²⁶⁷

The need for a good understanding between the principal and the board became even more important as school administration grew more complex. The chairperson of the board of one of the newer schools expressed the essence of this relationship succinctly: "Although much ultimate responsibility rests with the board as a statutory body, in fact there is always a delicate interplay between it and the principal as to actual decision making."²⁶⁸ If good relations between board and principal were not maintained, an intolerable situation could soon develop. At Napier Boys' High School, in the early 60's, there was disagreement between some members of the Board and the principal concerning the management and control of the School and hostel. When letters complaining about the Board's attitude were sent to the Minister by the Parents' League, the Old Boys' Association, the principal, and the school staff, a ministerial enquiry was ordered. The outcome was that changes were made to the system of managing the hostel, resulting in a considerable lessening of tension.²⁶⁹ With the potential for such conflict never very far below the surface, both boards and principals had to work hard to ensure that all of their actions and decisions were governed by what was best for the school.

In 1960, the Department, in its submission to the Currie Commission, stated that "... post-primary boards are functioning with few, if any, exceptions efficiently and responsibly, and they have shown themselves well able to conduct the business that has been entrusted to them".²⁷⁰ There was no evidence to suggest that the position was any different in 1970.

Conclusion

Even though a few schools clung tenaciously to the patterns of the past (at Christchurch Boys' High School, "... during the 60's, the overwhelming impression was that of a timeless tradition"),²⁷¹ most were, in many respects, quite different places in 1970 from what they had been in 1960. Some older city schools, as has been shown already, experienced considerable changes in the ethnic composition of their rolls; others found that, since they were situated in areas where the density of population was constantly increasing, the breadth of their catchment areas was reduced, leading to less diversity of contacts and experiences among their pupils.²⁷² Moreover, sheer size made it difficult to maintain the "feeling of corporate unity",²⁷³ which had characterised so many schools in earlier years. Secondary schools also assumed new responsibilities in the 60's, acting as social agencies to a greater extent than ever before.²⁷⁴ More significant than anything else was the growing recognition that schools existed to provide a service for pupils, and that policies and practices had to be determined in accordance with this principle. Almost all of the schools newly established in the 60's accepted this criterion from the start.

The 60's was a decade when the arts flourished in secondary schools. One boys' school chronicler reported that performances by pupil musicians at assembly were "accorded a degree of attention and appreciation which pointed to a growing sense of discrimination in music on the part of the whole school".²⁷⁵ Another boys' school staged an annual arts festival, which embraced house drama and debating, school oratory, two musical evenings at which the choir and

band performed, and static displays of stamp collections, art, and photographs.²⁷⁶ It was also a time when opportunities were provided for pupils to widen their horizons. Educational exhibitions which toured the country in 1965 included an Australian presentation on the peaceful uses of atomic energy, and an exhibition on space science mounted by the American National Aeronautics and Space Administration.²⁷⁷ In addition, school parties were able to attend performances by the distinguished actor Emlyn Williams (reading excerpts from Dickens), and the eminent French mime artist Marcel Marceau.²⁷⁸

Towards the end of 1970, a random sample of five thousand pupils from 119 secondary schools took part in an international research project on achievement in science, literature, and reading comprehension. Conducted under the auspices of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (I.E.A.), this survey involved groups of fourteen-year-olds, as well as sub-sets of form 7 pupils.²⁷⁹ Although the science study "proved disappointing as a means of evaluating the relative efficacy of different teaching conditions and methods of instruction",²⁸⁰ the literature and reading comprehension results both placed the New Zealand pupils ahead of all others in overall achievement. This authoritative reassurance that the schools (reinforced, in many instances, by home background factors) were doing well in these two areas was welcome. Further, in reading comprehension, there was less variability of achievement across schools in New Zealand than in most other countries, a factor which, as Elley pointed out, "must please our egalitarians".²⁸¹ New Zealand secondary schools also observed a National Education Week in July, 1970, as part of the International Year of Education.

Activities organised by schools to mark this occasion ranged from open days and workshop evenings²⁸² to assemblies conducted in a different language each day.²⁸³

An aspect of school administration which was of universal concern throughout the 60's was shortage of money. During the decade, costs, which had been relatively stable for some time, rose sharply, with the result that, by 1969, some principals were claiming that they were unable to run their schools on the existing incidentals grant.²⁸⁴ Raising money for school amenities became an integral part of school life in the 60's, as school after school found that, in order to provide its pupils with a quality education, it had to become a "successful money-making machine".²⁸⁵ A number of schools, in this period, helped themselves by setting up educational trust funds.²⁸⁶ These provided a source of income not subject to government control, which the trustees could use as they saw fit for the benefit of the school.

Conclusion (Part Four)

The 60's will be remembered, above all else, as a decade when persistent staff shortages beset every post-primary school in the country. The scarcity of teachers, coupled with the opening of so many new schools, led to constant staff changes, as well as to an alarming growth in the proportion of younger, inexperienced teachers, and part-time and relieving teachers, on the staffs of most schools. To make matters worse, many of those recruited as teachers at this time were also poorly qualified.²⁸⁷

The economic climate of the 60's was another factor which often seemed to work against what the schools were trying to achieve. It was a time of relative affluence, when, except for a brief period in 1967, employment prospects for juveniles were bright.²⁸⁸ This being the case, adolescents were under little pressure to do well at school, though, by the second half of the decade, girls seeking work, particularly in areas outside the main cities, found that many employers were demanding higher qualifications than had been the case a few years earlier.²⁸⁹ National prosperity also gave rise to social problems, which the Director-General considered could be "... more complex than the simpler, though serious, ones of poverty, illiteracy, and disease".²⁹⁰ To meet this new situation, the schools were obliged to divert some of their resources into counselling work. Moreover, by the 60's, New Zealanders had become a highly mobile people, a phenomenon which affected the schools in two ways: it inevitably brought about a great deal of pupil movement from school to school; and it reduced the number of adults in a given community who already had a link with the local secondary school.²⁹¹ Fry's description of the period as "the restless sixties"²⁹² was particularly apposite.

However, in spite of the problems created by teacher shortages, economic trends, and changing social attitudes, the secondary schools did not stand still in the 60's. On the contrary, the decade was one of considerable experimentation and innovation,²⁹³ especially in the areas of curriculum development, teaching techniques, and teacher-pupil relationships. Codd claimed that the resultant changes had little lasting effect on the quality of teaching and learning,²⁹⁴ but there was evidence that, in the 60's, parents and pupils were valuing education more highly, and that schools were having more success in

catering for pupils' needs, interests, and aptitudes than they had experienced in the 50's. Increasing numbers of pupils were staying at school for longer periods, while there was a decline (by 1967) in the number of applications for exemption from further attendance at school.²⁹⁵

With respect to school organisation, the chief characteristic of the 60's was the almost total acceptance of the concept of the comprehensive school. The Director maintained, in 1960, that, by adopting a policy of free secondary education for all, New Zealand had committed itself to a comprehensive-type school.²⁹⁶ During the decade, the few remaining technical schools became largely multilateral, so that, by 1970, virtually every secondary school was offering a complete range of courses. School administration also underwent a shift in emphasis in the 60's, with much more stress being placed on principals and senior staff acquiring leadership and management skills through specific training programmes.²⁹⁷ Also evident in the schools at this time was a distinct change in the locus of power. Tendencies towards greater centralisation of decision making and the multiplication of regulations, along with the vastly-increased influence of teachers, meant that the authority previously wielded by school boards and principals was gradually passing into the hands of the Department of Education and teachers.

A notable feature of the 60's was the extent to which education entered the public arena, a phenomenon which was by no means confined to New Zealand. In his inaugural lecture, delivered at the University of London in 1963, Professor R.F. Peters drew attention to the fact that education, "... previously ... something that was prized or taken

for granted by those few who had it, but not widely discussed", had now become "a subject for public debate and theoretical speculation".²⁹⁸ In New Zealand, the activities of at least two well-organised, nation-wide education pressure groups,²⁹⁹ the regular appearance of editorials on education in the larger daily newspapers,³⁰⁰ and the fact that, by November, 1969, education had "surged to the forefront as an election issue",³⁰¹ all gave credence to John Brown's claim that education, "... pursued into the 70's by a public more aware, more interested, and hopefully more involved than ever before, ... has become everyone's business".³⁰²

Summary (Part Four)

Part 4 (chapters 12-15), covering the period from 1960 to 1970, begins with an examination of the *Report* and recommendations of the Commission on Education in New Zealand, referring especially to their impact on the post-primary sector. A consideration of the initiatives taken by the Government in the 60's to further the cause of education follows. It includes a review of legislative enactments; the further decentralisation of educational administration; the Curriculum Development Unit; consultative bodies; increased and additional financial commitments; state aid to private schools; vocational guidance services; Colombo Plan and UNESCO undertakings; and the Committee of Enquiry into the Uses of Television in Education. The next section discusses five themes which were of major significance in the development of post-primary education in this period: staffing the schools; the teaching profession; rural education; the education of the Maori and Pacific Islander; and curriculum organisation and development. Finally, the study surveys the schools, looking

particularly at such questions as school buildings, technical schools, the Correspondence School, examinations, teaching methods, the pupils themselves,³⁰³ school and community, and boards of governors.