

Working Paper 2016/03

History of Education in New Zealand

Prepared to accompany the infographic:
*Timeline of significant events in the history
of education in New Zealand, 1867–2014*

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Title	<i>Working Paper 2016/03: History of education in New Zealand</i> This paper forms part of the Institute's TalentNZ project
Citation	Please cite this publication as: McGuinness Institute (2016). <i>Working Paper 2016/03 – History of education in New Zealand</i> . [online] Available at: https://www.mcguinnessinstitute.org/publications/working-papers [Accessed date]. Copyright © McGuinness Institute Limited, December 2016 ISBN 978-1-972193-94-5 (paperback) ISBN 978-1-972193-95-2 (PDF) This document is available at www.mcguinnessinstitute.org and may be reproduced or cited provided the source is acknowledged.
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TalentNZ: Timeline of significant events in the history of education in New Zealand, 1867–2014

EARLY CHILDHOOD

1889 First free kindergarten established in Dunedin.

1903 Sisters of Compassion in Wellington established first successful crèche.
1904 First kindergarten opened in Christchurch.
1906 First kindergarten opened in Wellington.
1906 Liberal Government started providing small per-child subsidy for kindergartens.
1907 Plunket established.
1910 First kindergarten opened in Auckland.

1941 First playcentre opened in Wellington.
1941 First government-supported nursery opened in Dunedin.
1947 *Report of the Consultative Committee on Preschool Education (Bailey Report)* published.
1948 First Labour Government started funding kindergarten teacher training.
1948 National Playcentre Federation established.

1960 Childcare Centre Regulations introduced.
1960s 200 Māori playcentres established in northern North Island.
1963 New Zealand Childcare Association (NZCA) established.
1963 First training course for set up.
1969–1970 Budget provided assistance for families paying for childcare (Pollock, 2012a).
1971 *Report of the Committee into Pre-Kindergarten Education (Report)* published.
1972 First Pasifika preschool (Taimaita a Samoa) established in roa.
1974 Subsidies made available for low income families for childcare.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY

1867 Native Schools Act 1867 passed.
1877 Education Act 1877 passed.
1881 Industrial and special schools established.
1883 New Zealand Educational Institute (NZEI Te Riu Roa) established.

1900 Manual and Technical Instruction Act 1900 passed.
1901 Inspector-General of Education, George Hogben visited Māori denominational boarding schools.
1901 Public School Teachers' Salaries Act 1901 passed.
1901 School leaving age raised to 14.
1902 Manual and Technical Instruction Act 1902 amendment passed.
1903 Secondary Schools Act 1903 passed.
1904 New curriculum for primary schools developed.
1907 *The School Journal* first published.
1912 *The Cohen Commission Report* published.
1914 Education Amendment Act 1914 passed.
1915 Secondary school curriculum diversified.

1920 Education Amendment Act 1920 passed.
1922 Correspondence School established.
1929 New curriculum (the Red Book) published.
1930 *Educational Reconstruction in New Zealand (Atmore Report)* published.
1931 New Māori education policy of adaptation introduced.
1936 Proficiency exam abolished.
1937 Free school milk scheme introduced.
1937 New Education Fellowship Conference held in New Zealand.
1939 Prime Minister Peter Fraser's statement on the first Labour Government's educational philosophy published.
1939 School Publications Branch established in the Department of Education.

1943 Rolling revision of curriculum reinstated.
1944 School leaving age raised to 15.
1944 The *Thomas Report* published.
1946 School certificate examination introduced.
1952 Post Primary Teachers Association (PPTA) established.
1955 National Committee on Māori Education convened.
1960 *Report of the Department of Education (Hunn Report)* published.
1962 *Report of the Commission on Education in New Zealand (Curtin Report)* published.
1964 Education Act 1964 passed.
1966 First *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies* published.
1967 Free school milk scheme ended.
1969 Management of Māori education transferred to regional Education Boards.
1975 Private Schools Conditional Integration Act 1975 passed.
1976 *Towards Partnership (Mackay Report)* published.

TERTIARY

1869 University of Otago established as New Zealand's first university.
1870 New Zealand University Act 1870 passed. University of New Zealand established.
1871 University of Otago opened to students including women.
1873 Canterbury University College the first college affiliated with University of New Zealand.
1878 Canterbury University College's School of Agriculture established (now called Lincoln University).
1883 Auckland University College established (Pollock, 2012b).
1886 Wellington School of Design established as New Zealand's first technical school.
1899 Victoria University College established.
1899 Scholarship Endowment Fund set up.

1904 University Degrees Act 1904 passed.
1907 *Starr Jordan Report* published.
1914 New Zealand University Amendment Act 1914 passed. Board of Studies, National Research Scholarships and University Bursaries established.
1925 Royal Commission into Universities established.
1926 University Amendment Act 1926 passed. Academic Board set up.
1928 Massey Agricultural College established in Palmerston North as a constituent college of the University of New Zealand.
1934 New Zealand Council of Educational Research (NZCER) established.

1946 Technical Correspondence School established in Wellington (now called the Open Polytechnic).
1948 Apprentices Act 1948 passed.
1948 University Grants Committee (UGC) established.
1949 New Zealand Trades Certification Board established.
1955 New Zealand Certificate in Engineering introduced.
1958 Technicians Certification Authority of New Zealand established.
1959 *Report of the Committee on New Zealand Universities (Parry Report)* published.

1960 University Grants Committee (UGC) reconstituted as a government-appointed committee.
1961 University of New Zealand disestablished. Colleges established as independent universities.
1964 Massey University of Manawatu (now Massey University) and University of Waikato established as autonomous universities.
1972 Educational Priorities Commission convened by the second National Government.

<p>lations</p> <p>s estab- nd.</p> <p>e Associa-</p> <p>r childcare</p> <p>tax allow- childcare</p> <p>e of Inquiry on (Hill</p> <p>(Lemali in Toko-</p> <p>e to low-</p>	<p>1980 <i>Early Childhood Care and Education Report</i> published by the State Services Commission (SSC).</p> <p>1982 Early Childcare Workers Union (ECWU) registered.</p> <p>1982 First Kōhanga Reo opened in Wainuiomata.</p> <p>1982 Te Kōhanga Reo National Trust established.</p> <p>1985 <i>Report of the Joint Ministerial Working Party for the Transition of Administration of Childcare from the Department of Social Welfare to the Department of Education</i> published.</p> <p>1985 Ministry of Education agreed to fund three-year Diploma of Teaching (ECE).</p> <p>1987-1989 Integrated three-year training in early childhood education introduced.</p> <p>1987 Early Childhood Convention held in New Zealand.</p> <p>1988 <i>Education to Be More (Meade Report)</i> published by Early Childhood Care and Education Working Group.</p> <p>1988 <i>Before Five</i> report published in response to the <i>Meade Report</i>.</p> <p>1990 Early Childhood Council (ECC) established from amalgamation of the Licensed Childcare Centres Federation and the Associated Childcare Council.</p> <p>1996 <i>Future Directions: Early Childhood Education in New Zealand</i> report published by the Early Childhood Education Project.</p> <p>1996 <i>Te Whāriki – Early Childhood Curriculum</i> policy statement published.</p>	<p>2000 TeachNZ scholarship programme introduced to increase the number of qualified Māori and Pasifika ECEC teachers.</p> <p>2000 Diploma of Teaching required for all ECE teachers.</p> <p>2002 <i>Pathways to the Future: Ngā Huarahi Arataki or Ngā Huarahi Arataki: Pathways to the Future, A Ten-Year Strategic Plan for Early Childhood Education</i> published by the fifth Labour Government.</p> <p>2002 Pay parity with primary school teachers achieved for kindergarten teachers.</p> <p>2003-2004 New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER) conducts first national survey of ECEC services.</p> <p>2007 20 hours free ECEC introduced for three- and four-year-olds in teacher-led services.</p> <p>2007 <i>Quality Public ECE: A Vision for 2020</i> published by NZEI Te Riu Roa.</p> <p>2009 Requirement for 100% qualified ECEC staff reduced to 80%.</p> <p>2010 ECE Taskforce established.</p> <p>2010-2014 Participation initiatives Intensive Community Participation Programme (ICPP) and Engaging Priority Families (EPF) established in areas of high need.</p> <p>2011 <i>ECE Taskforce: An Agenda for Amazing Children</i> report published.</p> <p>2012 <i>Early Childhood Education Sector Advisory Group Report – Sector-wide Quality</i> published.</p> <p>2012 <i>Improving Quality for Under Two Year Olds in ECE and Improving Sector Wide Quality</i> recommendations published by Sector Advisory Groups.</p> <p>2012 <i>Delivering Better Public Services: Supporting Vulnerable Children Result Action Plan</i> published.</p> <p>2014 Vulnerable Children Act 2014 passed.</p>
<p>at of Māori ned.</p> <p>on on Ed- ie Report)</p> <p>ssed.</p> <p>nal of</p> <p>ne abol-</p> <p>schools ion</p> <p>ional</p> <p>cCombs</p>	<p>1986 <i>Inquiry into the Quality of Teaching (Scott Report)</i> published.</p> <p>1987 <i>Government Management: Brief to the Incoming Government 1987 Volume II Education Issues</i> published by The New Zealand Treasury.</p> <p>1988 <i>National Curriculum Statement: A Discussion Document for Primary and Secondary Schools</i> published as a result of the 1987 curriculum review.</p> <p>1988 <i>Administering for Excellence: Effective Administration in Education (the Picot Report)</i> published.</p> <p>1989 <i>Tomorrow's Schools</i> published by the fourth Labour Government in response to the <i>Picot Report</i>.</p> <p>1989 Education Act 1989 passed. Department of Education and regional Education Boards abolished. Ministry of Education (MoE), Education Review Office (ERO) and New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) established.</p> <p>1989 School leaving age raised to 16.</p> <p>1990 Corporal punishment abolished by Education Amendment Act 1990.</p> <p>1990 Kura Kaupapa Māori (Māori language immersion schools) formalised in education legislation.</p> <p>1991 <i>Education Policy: Investing in People, Our Greatest Asset</i> published by the fourth National Government to build on <i>Tomorrow's Schools</i>.</p> <p>1991 Education Amendment Act 1991 passed.</p> <p>1993 <i>New Zealand Curriculum Framework</i> published.</p>	<p>2001 Hui Taumata Mātauranga held to consider a framework for Māori education aspirations.</p> <p>2002-2004 School certificate, university entrance, sixth form (year 12) certificate and university bursary replaced by National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA).</p> <p>2003 Teaching and Learning Research Initiative (TLRI) established.</p> <p>2007 <i>The New Zealand Curriculum</i> published.</p> <p>2008 <i>Ka Hikitia – Managing for Success: The Māori Education Strategy 2008–2012</i> published.</p> <p>2008 Education (National Standards) Amendment Act 2008 passed.</p> <p>2010 Administration of New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NZQF) transferred to New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA).</p> <p>2010 <i>Review of Special Education 2010</i> published.</p> <p>2010 <i>Success for All – Every School, Every Child</i> published.</p> <p>2013 <i>Ka Hikitia – Accelerating Success 2013–2017</i> published.</p> <p>2014 <i>Investing in Educational Success – Working Group Report</i> published.</p>
<p>mittee ern-</p> <p>aland ished as</p> <p>Manawatu l Uni- d as fully</p> <p>conference ional</p>	<p>1981 First modern wānanga (Te Wānanga o Raukawa) established in Ōtaki.</p> <p>1988 <i>Report of the Working Group on Post Compulsory Education and Training (Harake Report)</i> published.</p> <p>1989 Education Act 1989 passed. UGC and Department of Education abolished. Tertiary Education Commission (TEC), New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA), Education Council of Aotearoa New Zealand (EDUCANZ), Careers New Zealand and New Zealand Vice-Chancellors Committee (NZVCC) established.</p> <p>1990 Education Amendment Act 1990 passed.</p> <p>1991-1992 Limited funding made available to private training establishments (PTEs).</p> <p>1991-1992 <i>Tertiary Review</i> published by fourth National Government.</p> <p>1992 Student loan scheme introduced.</p> <p>1992 Education and Training Support Agency (later Skill New Zealand, now merged into the Tertiary Education Commission) established.</p> <p>1994 <i>Todd Task Force Report</i> published.</p> <p>1999 Education Amendment Act 1999 passed.</p>	<p>2000 Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (TEAC) established.</p> <p>2002 Limits placed on funding for private tertiary education providers. Centres of Research Excellence (COREs) established.</p> <p>2002-2003 Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) and Performance-Based Research Fund (PBRF) established by amendments to Education Act 1989.</p> <p>2002 <i>Tertiary Education Strategy 2002–2007</i> published by the fifth Labour Government.</p> <p>2006 Future directions for tertiary funding announced by the fifth Labour Government.</p> <p>2007 Colleges of education merged with universities.</p> <p>2009-2010 Youth Guarantee published by the fifth National Government.</p> <p>2009-2010 Limits placed on access to student loans.</p> <p>2011 Industry Training Act 1992 amended.</p> <p>2013 Youth Service established.</p> <p>2014 <i>Tertiary Education Strategy 2014–2019</i> published by the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment and the Ministry of Education.</p>

1.0 Purpose

The purpose of this working paper is to reflect on how education has been designed, delivered and funded in New Zealand. What has driven the changes over the past 140 years? How has the world changed as we advance into the twenty-first century? How is education and the models from which young people receive it preparing them to contribute and participate in a strong and sustainable New Zealand?

At the McGuinness Institute, it is our view that education, at its most fundamental level, is about growing talent so that people can live happy and rewarding lives. In other words, the primary focus should be on educating to live well rather than educating for employment. This is much broader than simply growing talent so that young people can get jobs. It means we need to focus on ways to develop character traits and teach skills and ethics that align with the challenges and opportunities ahead. We need to find ways to help young people navigate their future alongside the futures of their family, their iwi, their community and their country.

Working Paper 2016/03: History of education in New Zealand explores the history of change across each of the education sectors: early childhood, primary and secondary, and tertiary. We have sought to position education within its wider political, social and economic contexts. The research in this paper provides a historical record and a single source for future development and research on New Zealand's education system and can be used as a resource to contextualise New Zealand's future education policy.

This paper is intended to be read alongside the timeline titled *Significant events in the history of education in New Zealand*, which identifies key events that have occurred in the history of New Zealand's education system. Together, the paper and timeline highlight changes that have taken place over the last 140 years that have influenced present-day educational arrangements.

2.0 Terminology

This table reflects the Institute's interpretation of key terms used in *Working Paper 2016/03*.

Term	Description
College	Refers to the educational institutions that comprised the University of New Zealand (UNZ) set out in the University of New Zealand Act 1870.
Colleges of education	Refers to tertiary education institutions that teach education as a degree (previously called teachers' colleges).
Compulsory education	Refers to education that is required of persons, imposed by law.
Curriculum	Refers to the subjects comprising a course of study.
Early childhood education and care (ECEC)	Refers to the education and care of children from birth to school entry age (five years old). Note: the acronym ECEC is preferred over ECE (early childhood education) in this working paper because it encompasses a greater range of institutions. ECE is used only when directly quoted and/or used in an established name or title.
Education	Refers to any knowledge, skill or understanding received.

Intermediate education	Refers to the formal education of children between the ages of approximately 11 and 12 (years 7 and 8).
Primary education	Refers to the formal education of children between the ages of approximately five and 12 (years 1 to 8).
Schooling	Refers to education received at an educational institution.
Secondary education	Refers to the formal education of children between the ages of approximately 13 and 17 (years 9 to 13).
Tertiary education	Refers to formal education that occurs after secondary education. In this paper we have used the definition set out in the Education Amendment Act 1990 (no. 60), which defines tertiary education institutions (TEIs) as universities, institutes of technology and polytechnics (ITPs), wānanga, specialist colleges and colleges of education. The Act also describes private training establishments (PTEs) and industry-training organisations (ITOs)

3.0 Limitations

This paper aims to provide an overview of key moments throughout three main sectors of New Zealand’s education system in an easily digestible format. However, key dates have been chosen subjectively and were compiled entirely from secondary sources. It is possible that both the working paper and timeline have excluded events which are seen as significant to some; this paper is not a comprehensive overview of special education, adult education, Māori education, Pasifika education, or private education.

4.0 Methodology

The Institute has produced two key resources:

- A timeline of key events that have occurred in the history of New Zealand’s education system across early childhood, primary and secondary and tertiary education over the past 140 years.
- A working paper to provide a historical record and a single source for future research on New Zealand’s education system. The working paper expands on the key dates set out in the timeline.

The paper is structured in three main sections:

1. The history of early childhood education in New Zealand;
2. The history of primary and secondary education in New Zealand; and
3. The history of tertiary education in New Zealand.

5.0 Introduction

‘You tell me the aims of life and I’ll tell you the aims of education’ (Beeby, 1992, p. 300)

‘Social policies, including education, do not exist in a vacuum’ (Shuker, 1987, p. 19)

Put simply, education is about life and life is about education. This paper’s observations of the past 140 years show that when it comes to education, the questions we ask today are essentially the same as those from nearly a century and a half ago: what knowledge do we expect all young people to leave school with? What is the role of formal education in meeting both individual needs and those of the wider community? How might these

needs best be met, and how do we measure success in this?

The history of the curriculum in New Zealand's primary and secondary schools over the last 140 years reflects changing ideas as to what education is intended to achieve and what children need to learn. While it could be argued that the goal of equality of opportunity has been present since the Education Act 1877 was implemented, that opportunity was much more narrowly focused than it is today. Equality of opportunity as an aim in education was publicly articulated in 1939 by then Prime Minister Peter Fraser, and this has remained an underlying goal in subsequent statements of educational policy.

Reforms over the past 30 years have struggled to achieve a balance between meeting both the needs of the individual and the growing demands of a changing economy, largely owing to rapid changes in technology and society. Reforms continue to be focused on both personal fulfilment and the needs of the community, highlighted by the statement in the Ministry of Education's briefing to the incoming Minister of Education in 2014:

Education increases the range of life choices and opportunities open to New Zealanders. Better educated people are more likely to be healthy, prosperous and satisfied with their lives. Higher educational achievement leads to higher employment rates and higher average income levels, as well as increased productivity and a more competitive economy. The more qualified people are, the more likely they are to be in paid work and to earn more. Qualified people are better able to contribute in a meaningful way to the communities we live in and are stronger in their national and cultural identity. Education is key to our well-being, social cohesion, and citizenship (MoE, 2014a, p. 8).

However, the question remains as to what we can reasonably expect formal education to achieve in light of the many other factors that impact educational outcomes. We know, for example, that what happens in a child's pre-school years is critically important to their future learning. The past 30 years in particular have seen increased investment by governments in early childhood care and education, especially to improve the home learning environment.

Educational outcomes, particularly with regards to primary and secondary schooling, have been partly linked to the quality of leadership and teaching. Both leadership and teacher quality limit what we can realistically expect from the education system unless we are prepared to invest more or change the way we deliver education. For example, changes in digital technology are fundamentally altering education content as well as how it is taught and accessed. There are also innovative teacher education programmes, such as those delivered by Teach First NZ and Manaiaikalani Digital Teacher Academy (MDTA), which offer real potential in terms of improving teacher quality and educational results. Teach First NZ is a graduate programme that aims to lift the quality of teachers in low decile schools by taking graduates who are not enrolled in a teaching qualification on an intensive eight-week programme and then placing them with a mentor in a low decile school over the following two years (Teach First NZ, n.d.). The MDTA is a partnership between the Manaiaikalani Education Trust and the University of Auckland, which aims to produce teachers who are skilled at teaching in a digital world (Hipkins, Whatman & MacDonald, 2015).

There is no doubt that some of the institutional changes over the past 30 years have contributed to a broader range of possibilities in terms of student achievement. For example, *The New Zealand Curriculum* provides opportunities for tailoring teaching to the differing needs of communities and the individual interests of students. In the early twentieth century, the curriculum was heavily prescribed but also allowed for more practical and skill-based learning, whereas today's curriculum offers wide-ranging possibilities but is more heavily targeted towards academic progression.

6.0 History of early childhood education in New Zealand

Formal early childhood education and care (ECEC) in New Zealand dates back to the establishment of kindergartens in the 1880s. The development of ECEC was a product of societal changes in regard to the role of women, childhood development and the impact of a child's early years on future learning. During the early twentieth century, the welfare of children moved from being the private concern of families into the public sphere. By the mid-twentieth century, ECEC had become a matter of national importance. In New Zealand, this took the form of an increasing range of health and welfare services for children, predominately funded and managed by the state.

By the 1970s ECEC had become a focus of campaigns associated with women's rights, children's rights and Māori rights. A network of advocacy organisations for ECEC emerged, which gradually built its capacity for effecting change. The welfare of children was becoming increasingly politicised, which manifested in the introduction of childcare regulations and inquiries into ECEC. ECEC also became increasingly democratised – from the mid-twentieth century, childcare became an essential to every New Zealand child, which was reflected in the emergence of a growing number of Māori childcare facilities and increased ECEC subsidies for low-income families.

When the fourth National Government was elected in 1990, the focus of early childhood politics shifted from what Helen May describes as an 'equity gaze' to an 'economic gaze'; focus shifted to ECEC quality and government investment, which suggested that ECEC provided the foundational skills essential to the success of a knowledge-based economy (May, 2013, p. 18). If children did not attend ECEC they were deemed 'at risk' of future academic failure (Bushouse, 2008, p. 24). By the beginning of the twenty-first century, high-quality ECEC and the future success of New Zealand citizens were inextricably linked. The desire for increased participation in ECEC services was amplified, which encouraged engagement with various community groups in the attempt to involve all new entrants in quality ECEC.

Below we describe key events that have shaped the early childhood education system in New Zealand. The text in green can be found in the accompanying *Timeline of significant events in the history of education in New Zealand*.

6.1 Pre-1900s – 1900

1889 – First free kindergarten established in Dunedin.

The kindergarten was the first form of ECEC established in New Zealand. 'Based on the teaching of Friedrich Froebel, who established the first kindergarten in Prussia in 1837, kindergarten provided an alternative for young children to staying at home or going to school with older children' (Bushouse, 2008, p. 5). Froebel regarded the years between ages four and six as crucial; a child was not yet ready for school but needed more stimulation than what was provided by a mother at home (May, 2013, p. 144). He saw the kindergarten not only as an educational 'environment for children, but also as a training institution for mothers, governesses and teachers' (May, 2013, p. 148). The kindergarten curriculum was based on Froebelian principles of movement (the idea that children learnt through organised activity), but there was also a strong emphasis on influencing social behaviour, such as their play, eating, and domestic and self-help skills (May, 2013, pp. 144–145, 173).

The establishment of the first free kindergarten occurred in Dunedin in 1889 (Pollock, 2012a). Kindergarten for poor children was a kind of 'child rescue', highlighting society's move towards the view that moral reform of the poor might be achieved through educating the young (May, 2013, p. 118). The placing of a

kindergarten in one of Dunedin's worst slum areas was believed not only to help 'clear the streets' but also provide the opportunity for children to be 'trained in orderly ways and learn Christian values before they became wayward' and aimed to 'guard the children of Dunedin from thriftlessness, disease, pauperism, and crime' (May, 2013, p. 171).

6.2 1900 – 1920

1903 – Sisters of Compassion in Wellington established first successful crèche.

Growing acceptance that sometimes circumstance required mothers to earn a living through paid work led to the introduction of crèches, which were predominantly concerned with the health and welfare rather than the education of children during the working day (May, 2013, p. 216). The first crèche in New Zealand to be successful on a long-term basis was opened in Wellington in 1903 and was run by the Sisters of Compassion (Pollock, 2012a). In 1916, the Wellington crèche became one of the first Wellington institutions to adopt Truby King's Plunket mode of childcare practice routines (May, 2013, p. 216; MCH, 2016a).

1904 – First kindergarten opened in Christchurch.

(Pollock, 2012a)

1906 – First kindergarten opened in Wellington.

(Pollock, 2012a)

1906 – Liberal Government started providing small per-child subsidy for kindergartens.

(Bushouse, 2008, p. 5; May, 2013, pp. 181–182)

1907 – Plunket established.

Sir Frederic Truby King became a well-known New Zealand activist and, along with other contemporary activists such as Margaret McMillan, brought child welfare into the political sphere (May, 2013, p. 280). This was in part through The Royal New Zealand Plunket Society, which he established with his wife Bella King in 1907 and was originally called the Society for the Health of Women and Children (May, 2013, p. 291). King's rhetoric stressed the importance of raising healthy infants to form a healthy society; the Plunket approach to child rearing was to 'save the babies to save the nation' (May, 2013, p. 290). The nationhood rhetoric maintained by Plunket was reinforced by the anxiety surrounding the declining European population and tensions with the Māori population, and had a strong impact on New Zealand Pākehā families, as well as families in Britain, Australia and Canada (May, 2013, p. 280).

By the late 1920s, Plunket had '26 branches and 500 sub-branches, six Karitane Hospitals for sickly infants, mothercraft units and many city, suburban and small-town Plunket rooms' whose work were sponsored by the wives of New Zealand's elite citizens (May, 2013, p. 291). Plunket was also successful as a voluntary organisation and was seen as 'a voice for mothers' (Bryder, 2003).

King supported domestic science such as physiology and hygiene, but was actively opposed to university education for women, claiming that academic work would make them physically and mentally unfit for motherhood (Matthews, 2008, p. 24).

1910 – First kindergarten opened in Auckland.

By the early twentieth century, kindergartens had been established in Christchurch (1904), Wellington (1906) and Auckland (1910) in addition to Dunedin (Pollock, 2012a). Kindergarten associations were administered through charitable organisations and evolved independently from government (Bushouse, 2008, p. 5). It was not until 1906 that the Liberal Government began providing a small per-child subsidy, which was then cut in 1931 during the Depression and reinstated again in 1935 (Bushouse, 2008, pp. 5–6).

During the early twentieth century, early childhood care was promoted as a mission or calling rather than a means for women to become economically independent, and was often unpaid (May, 2013, p. 179). The kindergarten movement provided acceptable philanthropic work for the wives of wealthy men and provided further education and an occupation for unmarried daughters of ‘respectable families’ (May, 2013, p. 178). Home visits were part of the role of a kindergarten teacher and formed the basis of advice on the care of children at home through understanding of a family’s specific situation (May, 2013, p. 306).

During World War One, the majority of kindergartens remained operational. Owing to the demand for women to fill labour roles left vacant by men at war, some kindergartens even extended their hours and the age range of children that could attend. Despite this, there continued to be societal negativity towards the idea of women leaving their children in order to work. This attitude is summed up in the following statement by the president of the Auckland Kindergarten Association (who was also the Mayor of Auckland) John Allum in 1943:

Our members consider it is most undesirable that mothers of young children should be diverted from the primary task of looking after their families, and that they should be employed in war work only as a last resort, and that the stage of need to call on mothers of young families to do essential work has not been reached in New Zealand (May, 2013, p. 380).

Kindergartens did not cater for Māori children, who lived predominantly in rural areas at this time. The early childhood education of Māori was not seriously considered by the State until the 1960s when the playcentre movement took off and connected with Māori organisations.

6.3 1920 – 1940

6.4 1940 – 1960

1941 – First playcentre opened in Wellington.

The first playcentre was established in Wellington in 1941 and was supported by Beatrice Beeby, the wife of the Director of Education at the time, Clarence Beeby (Pollock, 2012a). When Beeby was appointed Director of Education in 1940, his brief from Prime Minister Peter Fraser was to design and manage a programme of educational restructuring in line with progressive ideals as outlined during the New Education Fellowship Conference (May, 2013, p. 347). Beeby prioritised the youngest children in his reforms and for the first time, early childhood education was included as part of the vision for education (May, 2013, p. 347). During the 1930s and 1940s the teaching of child psychology had begun, initiated in Great Britain by Susan Isaacs who was a speaker at the 1937 New Education Fellowship (NEF) conference held in New Zealand (May, 2013, p. 346; McDonald, 2002, p. 25). Isaacs provided advanced training for teachers, encouraged research and explored the connections between emerging psychological knowledge and the education and development of young children (May, 2013, p. 343).

1941 – First government-supported nursery opened in Dunedin.

In the late 1930s, a number of nursery schools were established in New Zealand based on developments in England. Nurseries were designed so that both parent and child enrolled in the same centre – children could play while parents were educated (May, 2013, p. 355). The first government-supported nursery was opened in Dunedin in 1941 and was assisted by both the Dunedin Free Kindergarten Association (DFKA) and the Plunket Society (May, 2013, p. 360).

The outbreak of the Second World War, and the requirement for many women to take on work, highlighted the need for women to have more support in childrearing, which coincided with increasing acceptance by educators and politicians that preschool education should be an integral part of the education system (May, 2013, p. 369). It is difficult to know how many childcare centres there were during the war because of a lack of documentation; centres did not have to be registered or regulated and generally only came to wider attention through scandal or other newsworthy events (May, 2013, p. 377).

1947 – Report of the Consultative Committee on Preschool Education (Bailey Report) published.

In 1947 the first Labour Government released its post-war outline for early childhood education, *Report of the Consultative Committee on Preschool Education (Bailey Report)*. It was based on an assumption that government was now responsible for a range of ECEC services. The *Bailey Report* was to ‘consider and report on educational services for children below school age, with special reference to the financing and control of such services and the training of personnel’ (May, 2013, p. 396).

Two of the report’s most significant recommendations were that the State should take over the operation of kindergartens, and that the government should fund teacher training (Bushouse, 2008, p. 6). The key shift resulting from this report was the political acceptance that preschool education could benefit three- and four-year-olds, as families were no longer believed able to provide the stimulation and education a child needed prior to their arrival at school (Bushouse, 2008, p. 6).

1948 – First Labour Government started funding kindergarten teacher training. (Bushouse, 2008, p. 6)

1948 – National Playcentre Federation established.

The 1940s saw the emergence of the playcentre movement in New Zealand and by 1943 there were 18 playcentres throughout Wellington, Palmerston North and Christchurch (May, 2013, p. 387). The objective of the playcentre movement was to combine ‘leisure for mothers’ with ‘opportunities for social development for children’ through ‘co-operative effort’ (May, 2013, p. 386). The origins of the playcentre movement were different from those of the kindergarten movement: playcentres began in wealthy suburbs, were supported by well-educated parents and unemployed mothers and operated as a mutual ‘self-help and self-financing service’ (May, 2013, p. 387). The movement became a federation in 1948, which allowed for regional variability (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016).

6.5 1960 – 1980

1960 – Childcare Centre Regulations introduced.

Issues in the 1950s involving poor care of children led to the introduction of Childcare Centre Regulations in 1960, which set minimum standards for childcare centres (Bushouse 2008, p. 8; NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). Childcare Centre Regulations were administered by the Division of Child Welfare, unlike kindergartens and playcentres, which remained under the control of the Department of Education even when the Division of Child Welfare was relocated to the Department of Social Welfare (Bushouse 2008, p. 8). This split in the administration and regulation of ECEC contributed to the perception that childcare centres were a second-best option to kindergartens or playcentres (Bushouse 2008, p. 8).

1960s – 200 Māori playcentres established in northern North Island.

The playcentre movement also connected with Māori organisations such as the Māori Women's Welfare League (Bushouse, 2008, p. 7). 'In the 1960s over 200 Māori playcentres emerged in the northern part of the North Island', driven by Lex Grey of the Māori Education Foundation (Bushouse, 2008, p. 7).

1963 – New Zealand Childcare Association (NZCA) established.

(Bushouse, 2008, p. 8)

1963 – First training course for childcare set up.

Demand for childcare centres increased in the 1960s and 1970s because they were able to accommodate the full-day childcare needs of working mothers that the short-session format of kindergartens and playcentres could not (Bushouse, 2008, p. 8).

The government's lack of focus on childcare teacher training (which lasted into the 1980s) led to the establishment of the New Zealand Childcare Association (NZCA) in 1963 as a 'membership association that advocated for raising the reputation and the quality of ECE[C] services' (Bushouse, 2008, p. 8). In 1963, NZCA set up the first childcare training course in New Zealand (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). NZCA, which has been called Te Rito Maioha Early Childhood New Zealand since 2015, continues to provide ECEC teacher education programmes and has a strong focus on tikanga Māori and Pasifika knowledge (ECNZ, 2016).

1969–1970 – Budget provided tax allowance for families paying for childcare.

'The 1969–1970 government budget provided tax allowances for families who paid for childcare services. Working women could claim up to \$240 per year (\$3,600 in 2011 values) for housekeeping or childcare fees' (Pollock, 2012a). Partial funding for childcare from the second National Government signalled a change in government attitude towards early ECEC.

1971 – Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Pre-Kindergarten Education (Hill Report) published.

The Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Pre-Kindergarten Education (Hill Report) published in 1971 noted the increasing need for childcare services and advocated the importance of training childcare workers (Meade & Podmore, 2002, pp. 9, 19; NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). However, the *Hill Report* rejected recommending government funding of those services and instead endorsed greater access to ECEC services, encouraging

‘kindergartens, playcentres, industry and business to meet the needs of childcare for solo mothers and mothers in employment’ (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 9). The report also suggested that workers in childcare centres should be able to access the same training provided to kindergarten and playcentre employees and have at least one member of staff be a registered ECEC teacher (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 9).

1972 – First Pasifika preschool (Lemali Tamaita a Samoa) established in Tokoroa.

Lemali Tamaita a Samoa in Tokoroa was the first Pasifika preschool in New Zealand (Pollock, 2012a). By the early 1980s, other centres had followed; however, many of the subsequent preschools encouraged education through the English language rather than Pasifika languages and cultures (Pollock, 2012a). ‘The Samoan A’oga Amata, which opened in Wellington in 1985 and later in other cities, was more Pacific-centred’ (Pollock, 2012a).

1974 – Subsidies made available to low-income families for childcare.

The third Labour Government introduced a childcare fee subsidy in 1974, which aimed to assist parents on low incomes (Bushouse, 2008, p. 13). For a child to be eligible for the subsidy, there was a minimum childcare attendance requirement of 25 hours per week (Bushouse, 2008, p. 13).

6.6 1980 – 2000

1980 – Early Childhood Care and Education Report published by the State Services Commission (SSC).

(NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016)

1982 – Early Childcare Workers Union (ECWU) registered.

In 1980, the report of the *State Services Working Group on Early Childhood Care and Education* was released in the context of an increasing acceptance that the government should be actively involved in ECEC, as private and public sector divisions shifted (Bushouse, 2008, p. 21). The most radical recommendation from the report was that ‘funding be increased to a level that covered 50% of parents’ costs, and that funding should be equitable across services’, however, the third National Government failed to act on the working group’s recommendations (Bushouse, 2008, p. 20). The lack of government action led to the formation of the Early Childhood Workers Union (ECWU) in 1979, which was then officially registered in 1982 (Bushouse, 2008, p. 20; NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). The ECWU acts as a lobbying voice for changes in childcare (Bushouse, 2008, p. 20).

1982 – First Kōhanga Reo opened in Wainuiomata.

(Pollock, 2012a)

1982 – Te Kōhanga Reo National Trust established.

Te Kōhanga Reo National Trust was established for Māori families in 1982 after a national meeting of Māori tribal leaders in 1979. It aimed to manage the kaupapa (philosophy) of the Kōhanga Reo movement and facilitate partnership between the Māori people and government departments, in particular the Department of Māori Affairs. Two of the Trust’s main functions are:

- ‘To promote, support and encourage the use and retention of te reo Māori; [and]

- To promote and encourage the establishment and maintenance of Te Kōhanga Reo centres’ (Bushouse, 2008, p. 9).

‘The two main purposes of nga Kōhanga Reo (language nests) were – and still are – to strengthen and empower Māori families, and to save and maintain te reo Māori’ (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 12). The Department of Māori Affairs initially only funded a few Kōhanga Reo; however, many Māori were supportive of the movement and many Kōhanga Reo being established and funded by Māori communities (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 12). The Child Care Centre Regulations in 1960 also established guidelines for Kōhanga Reo, and from the 1980s, any policy change for childcare services had implications for Kōhanga Reo as well (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 12). ‘Two-thirds of the growth of childcare numbers from 1981 to 1985 was in licensed Kōhanga Reo’ (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 12).

1985 – Report of the Joint Ministerial Working Party for the Transition of Administration of Childcare from the Department of Social Welfare to the Department of Education published.

The main recommendations of the *Report of the Joint Ministerial Working Party for the Transition of Administration of Childcare from the Department of Social Welfare to the Department of Education* were to transfer childcare services, fund childcare staffing, training, advisory and support services and strengthen the focus on early childhood education in the Department of Education (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 16). In December 1985, the report was taken to a forum on ECEC, held at Parliament. The report resulted in the transfer of administration services to the Department of Education and the other recommendations were to be considered in the 1986 Budget (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 17).

1985 – Ministry of Education agreed to fund three-year Diploma of Teaching (ECE).

In 1985 the Ministry of Education ‘agreed to fund the development and delivery of three year Diploma of Teaching ECE programmes’ (Bushouse, 2008, p. 13). Previously, the programme had been a two-year initiative for kindergarten teachers and a one-year certificate for childcare workers (Bushouse, 2008, p. 13). Despite changes in regulation, it was not until 2005 that ECEC services were required to appoint a staff member with the Diploma of Teaching (ECE) (Bushouse, 2008, pp. 13–14).

1987–1989 – Integrated three-year ECEC training introduced over three years.

Starting in 1987, three-year integrated training courses were introduced in colleges of education for both kindergartens and childcare centres over a period of three years (Bushouse, 2008, p. 23; Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 19). The courses became a Diploma of Education (early childhood teaching), which was regarded as a ‘benchmark’ qualification for teachers in kindergartens and childcare centres (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 19). With this change, early childhood teachers were required to study for the same length of time as primary teachers (Bushouse, 2008, p. 23).

1987 – Early Childhood Convention held in New Zealand.

Research presented by David Weikart (based on his longitudinal *HighScope Perry Preschool Study* in the United States) at the 1987 Early Childhood Convention asserted that ‘for every \$1 invested in quality early education there could be as high as a \$7 social return’ (Bushouse, 2008, p. 23). The first Early Childhood Convention had been held in 1975, and was intended to create a forum to share ideas across early childhood providers. The convention and Weikart’s research represented growing international interest in the ‘importance of high quality early childhood education to improving educational and life outcomes’ (Bushouse, 2008, p. 23).

1988 – Education To Be More (Meade Report) published by Early Childhood Care and Education Working Group.

The Early Childhood Care and Education Working Group convened in 1988 with members from the Department of Education, the Department of Social Welfare, the Ministry of Women's Affairs, the New Zealand Treasury and the State Services Commission, as well as Māori and Pacific Island community representatives (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 14). Dr Anne Meade, who later became lead researcher at the New Zealand Childcare Association (NZCA, now Te Rito Maioha Early Childhood New Zealand), chaired the group, which aimed to advise government of its role and responsibility in providing equitable and accessible ECEC services (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 14).

The group identified the five areas in ECEC needing immediate improvement in their 1988 report *Education To Be More (Meade Report)*:

the low status of the early childhood care and education field; equity of access to services; tangata whenua (i.e. Māori determination and control over services for Māori children); the status of women; and, an uneven, inequitable, and inadequate funding structure for ECE (Bushouse, 2008, pp. 21–22).

Equity was one of the key concepts identified in the *Meade Report's* terms of reference, articulated as services that needed to be 'fair and equitable to children, parents and cultures' (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 15).

The *Meade Report* as laid out by Bushouse (2008) recommended major changes to ECEC policy and administration, including a new administrative model consisting of a charter developed in consultation with communities to cover curriculum objectives, staffing policy, staff development and parent education among other things (p. 22). The report also recommended the creation of a Ministry of Education with an Early Childhood Development Unit (p. 22). It recommended bulk funding of all ECEC services via a universal per-child hourly subsidy rate for centres and kindergartens, and property loans and discretionary grants for communities unable to fund the development of ECEC services (p. 22).

1988 – Before Five report published in response to the Meade Report.

Most of the recommendations from the *Meade Report* were included in the fourth Labour Government's follow-up report, *Before Five*. The *Before Five* report focused on equalising funding and the Government adopted four funding rates with funding also provided on a per-capita rate for each child, regardless of the childcare facility (Bushouse, 2008, p. 23). The report was met with objection from those who did not believe for-profit childcare centres should be funded at the same rate as community-based providers.

'The emphasis in the *Before Five* report on Māori self-determination reflected the growing recognition of the importance of the Treaty of Waitangi among early childhood advocates', as well as wider New Zealand society (Bushouse, 2008, p. 22).

1990 – Early Childhood Council (ECC) established from amalgamation of the Licensed Childcare Centres Federation and the Associated Childcare Council.

The Early Childhood Council (ECC) was formed in 1990 as a membership organisation that represented 'the interests of independent early childhood centres, and [promoted] the provision of quality early childhood education' (Bushouse, 2008, p. 15).

1996 – Future Directions: Early Childhood Education in New Zealand report published by the Early Childhood Education Project.

The report of the Early Childhood Education Project, *Future Directions: Early Childhood Education in New Zealand*, was published in 1996 (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). The Early Childhood Education Project, originally initiated by the NZEI Te Riu Roa, addressed continuing concerns around ECEC quality and inequities (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 22). The project included representatives from a broad cross section of early childhood providers. The main objectives of the report were to improve quality, access and funding of ECEC. As the 1999 election drew near, Linda Mitchell, one of the report's authors, called for a 'new debate about childhood' in which 'early childhood institutions [would] be conceptualised as community institutions playing an important role in fostering a democratic society' (Bushouse, 2008, p. 27).

1996 – Te Whāriki: Early Childhood Curriculum policy statement published.

In 1996, the first ECEC curriculum *Te Whāriki* was published. Sir Tamati Reedy, the Chief Executive and Secretary for the Māori Affairs Department from 1983 to 1989, translates te whāriki/te whaariki into English as 'a woven mat for all to stand on' (Beehive, 2011; Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 23). The curriculum had four overall principles: empowerment, holistic development, family and community, and relationships. Five strands would shape the outcomes for children: Well-being – Mana Atua; Belonging – Mana Whenua; Contribution – Mana Tangata; Communication – Mana Reo; and Exploration – Mana Aotūroa (MoE, 1996, pp. 14–16). The te whāriki (mat) concept recognises the diversity of early childhood education in New Zealand. Different programmes, philosophies, structures and environments were seen to contribute to the distinctive patterns of the whāriki (Meade & Podmore, 2002, p. 23).

6.7 2000 – 2020

2000 – TeachNZ scholarship programme introduced to increase the number of qualified Māori and Pasifika ECEC teachers.

2000 – Diploma of Teaching required for all ECEC teachers.

The election of the fifth Labour Government in 1999 and Trevor Mallard's appointment as Minister of Education saw ECEC firmly back on the Government's agenda (Bushouse, 2008, p. 29). The standards for early childhood employees, including those providing home-based services but excluding playcentres and Kōhanga Reo, were raised and they were now required to have a three-year Diploma of Teaching in ECEC (Bushouse, 2008, p. 29).

Raising ECEC teaching standards also involved increasing the number of qualified Māori and Pasifika ECEC teachers. Nearly half of Pasifika ECEC services did not have a teacher with an ECEC teaching qualification (Bushouse, 2008, p. 29). To assist in this transition a new scholarship programme, TeachNZ, was also created to encourage Māori and Pasifika students to become qualified ECEC teachers (Bushouse, 2008, p. 29).

2002 – Pathways to the Future: Ngā Huarahi Arataki or Ngā Huarahi Arataki: Pathways to the Future, A Ten-Year Strategic Plan for Early Childhood Education published by the fifth Labour Government.

In 2002, the first ten-year ECE strategic plan *Pathways to the Future: Ngā Huarahi Arataki* was published with recommendations to provide a robust infrastructure for delivering high quality, affordable ECEC

to all children (Mitchell, Meagher-Lundberg, Mara, Cubey & Whitford, 2011, p. 1). The plan had three overarching goals: 'to promote participation in good quality early childhood education (ECE); to improve the quality of ECE; and to enhance collaborative relationships between ECE services, parent support and development, schools, health and social services. Four supporting strategies underpinned these goals: to review regulations; review the funding system; undertake ongoing research; and involve the sector in ECE policy development' (Mitchell et al., 2011, p. 1).

Pathways to the Future: Ngā Huarahi Arataki also differentiated between teacher-led and parent-led ECEC services. This included the introduction of professional registration requirements for all teachers in teacher-led services, and the provision of support to parents and whānau (Mitchell et al., 2011, pp. 1, 4).

2002 – Pay parity with primary school teachers achieved for kindergarten teachers.

After a three-decade long campaign, the New Zealand Educational Institute (NZEI Te Riu Roa) finally negotiated pay parity for kindergarten teachers. This pay parity was secured for five years (2002–2006), and amounted to a 61% pay rise for kindergarten teachers (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016).

2003–2004 – New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER) conducts first national survey of ECEC services.

Between 2003 and 2004, the New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER) conducted the first National Survey of Early Childhood Services, which included kindergartens, playcentres, community-based and private centres, home-based and hospital services, but excluded Kōhanga Reo (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). Supervisors, teachers and parents provided information on aspects such as hours of operation, student-staff ratios, employment conditions, funding and curriculum (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). This survey provided a broad overview of ECEC services across the country (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016).

2007 – 20 hours free ECEC introduced for three- and four-year-olds in teacher-led services.

In 2007 the fifth Labour Government introduced its policy of 20 hours free ECEC for all three- and four-year-olds in services led by a qualified and registered early childhood teacher (Bushouse, 2008, p. 36; NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). There were mixed reactions to this policy; many argued that the introduction of free ECEC would increase parental choice by removing costs and would thus also increase participation (Bushouse, 2008, p. 36). However parent-led, whānau-led or private ECEC services exempt from funding were less enthusiastic about the 'teacher-led' requirement (Bushouse, 2008, pp. 36).

2007 – Quality Public ECE: A Vision for 2020 published by NZEI Te Riu Roa.

NZEI Te Riu Roa published *Quality ECE – A Vision for 2020*, which acknowledged 'increasing professionalisation, a national bicultural curriculum, the Ministry of Education assuming responsibility for the sector and the introduction of pay parity for teachers with their primary and secondary colleagues' (May & Mitchell, 2009, p. 11). However, it also expressed concerns about private providers, which represented a growing commercial, for-profit presence in the sector (May & Mitchell, 2009, p. 11). NZEI Te Riu Roa argued that growth of for-profit providers has come at the expense of quality, effective and efficient ECEC services (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2014, p. 4). NZEI Te Riu Roa argue that for-profit services tend not to have parental or community input and incentivise other ECEC providers to cut labour costs (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2014, pp. 4, 7).

2009 – Requirement for 100% qualified ECEC staff reduced to 80%.

The required percentage of qualified and registered ECEC staff dropped from 100% to 80% in 2009 amid concerns about the growing costs of ECEC (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). The fifth National Government argued that the drop to 80% qualified staff was due to overspending on ECEC in a time of financial hardship (immediately after the Global Financial Crisis), and an ‘assertion that eight teachers qualified out of ten was enough’ (Meade, Robinson, Smorti, Stuart & Williamson, 2012, p. 3).

2010 – ECE Taskforce established.

(May, 2014, pp. 154–155)

2010–2014 – Participation initiatives Intensive Community Participation Programme (ICPP) and Engaging Priority Families (EPF) established in areas of high need.

The fifth National Government identified ECEC participation as a key factor in supporting vulnerable children and set an increase in participation in quality early childhood education as one of its ten Better Public Services results, launched in 2013 (SSC, 2016). This target aimed to increase participation in quality early childhood education to 98% of all new entrants by the end of 2016 (SSC, 2016). Participation had increased over the preceding decade, and, in December 2015, 96.4% of new entrants to school had attended ECEC in the previous year (SSC, 2016).

The Intensive Community Participation Programmes (ICPPs) are community-led projects ‘established to address the specific reasons children are not participating in ECEC’ (MoE, 2013a, p. 3). Similarly, Engaging Priority Families programmes (EPFs) are intensive support programmes for three- and-four-year-olds and their families, aimed at increasing enrolment and participation in ECEC, as well as support for home-learning and transition into school (MoE, 2013a, p. 3). These programmes are targeted at communities where participation in ECEC is lower than average.

2011 – ECE Taskforce: An Agenda for Amazing Children report published.

An Agenda for Amazing Children was published in 2011 and contained 65 wide-ranging recommendations (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016).

2012 – Early Childhood Education Sector Advisory Group Report – Sector-wide Quality published.

The 2012 *Early Childhood Education Sector Advisory Group Report – Sector-wide Quality* defined quality early childhood care and education (ECEC) as:

[...] evidenced where all children experience learning and teaching interactions which lead to those learning outcomes valued by whānau. The ERO has found that it is the combination of many aspects of practice that underpins the quality of education and care provided, rather than one factor on its own. These relate to both structures and processes and include governance and management, professional leadership, philosophy, vision, relationships and interactions, teaching and learning, assessment and planning, professional qualifications and support, and self-review (CPAG, 2014, p. 3).

The group also reported that in 2011, ECEC services in poorer areas were over-represented in negative

Education Review Office (ERO) reviews, indicating that children in lower socio-economic conditions were more likely to receive poor quality ECEC (CPAG, 2014, p. 5).

2012 – Improving Quality for Under Two Year Olds in ECE and Improving Sector Wide Quality recommendations published by Sector Advisory Groups.

The recommendations of these two advisory groups in 2012 focused on improving the quality of ECEC services, particularly for children under the age of two (Beehive, 2012; NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). Education Minister Hon Hekia Parata stated that:

all of our children deserve high quality ECE[C]. The pre-school years are too critical in terms of learning and development to allow anything else. Parents need to be assured that their children are attending a quality service (Beehive, 2012).

2012 - Delivering Better Public Services: Supporting Vulnerable Children Result Action Plan published.

Delivering Better Public Services: Supporting Vulnerable Children Result Action Plan sought to help children and families, and contribute to the fifth National Government's 'overall priorities' by improving services and reducing avoidable expenditure in the justice, health and welfare systems, and helping to build a more competitive and productive economy (MSD, 2012, p. 4).

The Ministry of Social Development (MSD) asserted that:

We know there is a link between early childhood experiences and adult chronic illness, mental health issues, drug and alcohol abuse, poor educational outcomes and unemployment. Too many children are at risk of poor outcomes because they and their families and whānau do not get the early support they need. Māori and Pacific children, children from lower socio-economic backgrounds, and children with special needs or disabilities are over-represented in this group (MSD, 2012, p. 4).

Four of the plan's action points were to increase participation in quality ECEC, increase infant immunisation rates, reduce the incidence of rheumatic fever and reduce the number of assaults on children (MSD, 2012, p. 5).

2014 – Vulnerable Children Act 2014 passed.

On 1 July 2014 the Vulnerable Children Act passed into law. The Act formed a significant part of other legislative measures to 'protect and improve the wellbeing of vulnerable children and strengthen our child protection system' (Children's Action Plan, 2015). For the first time, five chief executives of government agencies were jointly accountable for developing and implementing a plan to protect New Zealand children from harm by working with whānau and communities (Children's Action Plan, 2015). The legislation also required 'all new employees working with children to be vetted and all existing employees to be subject to on-going safety checks' (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). In 2014, 70.1% of teaching staff in privately owned education and care services were qualified, compared with 95% of kindergarten teachers and 99.3% of home-based coordinators (MoE, 2014b, p. 27).

7.0 History of primary and secondary education in New Zealand

Compulsory education in New Zealand formally began with the arrival of the Europeans and followed a British model. There was distinct separation between Māori schools and settler schools in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries but they were connected by similar teachings. To ensure the future success of the colony, all New Zealand children were to learn English, have Christian values instilled and be taught 'moral' habits.

By the early twentieth century, education had become broader in scope. 'Special' schools and technical high schools were introduced and children on the right side of class and gender based divisions, whose family had the financial capability, were increasingly encouraged to stay in formal education. In addition, there was increased demand for more structured administrative arrangements to underpin the education system. Despite the desire for equitable access to education, the early twentieth century continued to differentiate between children thought capable enough to continue with further education and those who should be directed towards alternative pathways.

There have been several attempts to broaden the curriculum across primary and secondary schooling, but how well these changes were actually embedded appears to be dependent on the willingness and ability of the teaching workforce to implement change, as well as support for them to do so. Attempts to give the curriculum a broader focus were also thwarted by the demands of the economy and businesses for schools to turn out suitably qualified individuals. For instance, around the turn of the century when he was the Inspector-General of schools, George Hogben attempted to change both what was taught in schools and how it was taught. However, Hogben had only partial success due to constraints imposed by the quality and adaptability of the teaching workforce at the time and the fact that the public tended to judge the success of the system by the number of students passing their examinations. In a similar vein Beeby noted that, in hindsight, the education department had not been able to give principals and staff the support needed to successfully implement structural changes to the system in the 1940s and 1950s (Beeby, 1992, p. 253).

From the mid-twentieth century, there was increased interest in how investment in education might better serve society as a whole. The New Education Fellowship Conference (NEF) held in New Zealand in 1937 arguably set the course for new approaches to education over the next three decades in New Zealand. NEF promoted the creation of a socially relevant curriculum that was more capable of meeting individual needs. Māori disadvantage was also recognised, while the government agreed to undertake regular curriculum revisions and new examination initiatives were introduced to encourage children to remain in school.

Elected in 1984, the fourth Labour Government embarked on a broad programme of market liberalisation reforms, which aimed to create a more competitive economy and resulted in the education sector becoming a target for reform. Focus shifted to the economics of education and the opportunity costs of government investment in education in comparison to other investments that might better serve society. The affordability of education policy changes had always been a factor in earlier policy decision-making and from 1984, a focus on the efficiency of the institutional delivery of education saw schools competing against one another for students, funding and, ultimately, results. The idea that education was part of the market economy and that the government should view education in terms of its effectiveness and 'profitability' characterised the language from 1980s onwards. Students became referred to as consumers, the government as an investor and schools as providers with vested interests.

By the early twenty-first century, although the economics of education were still seen as important, Labour and National governments had identified the importance of tailoring curricula to best suit the individual needs of each child. The emphasis on student achievement and encouraging investment in education to enhance future opportunities underpins the current education system – the mantra ‘success for all’ emanates throughout current administrative and legislative programmes. The current curriculum places emphasis on what is taught, how it is taught and how success is measured.

Below we describe key events that have shaped the primary and secondary education systems in New Zealand. The text in pink can be found in the accompanying *Timeline of significant events in the history of education in New Zealand*.

7.1 Pre-1900s – 1900

1867 – Native Schools Act 1867 passed.

The Cabinet Government established a school system for Māori as early as 1867 when it passed the Native Schools Act. ‘Native schools’ were required to teach only in English and, as the twentieth century progressed, speaking Māori in schools was banned (Calman, 2012). The word ‘native’ was not replaced by the word ‘Māori’ until 1947 (Matthews, 2008, p. 38).

The dominant policy at the time was one of assimilation. This approach involved educating Māori to abide by the habits of the European population by actively discouraging Māori language, belief systems and culture. The emphasis on ‘Europeanising’ was made clear to teachers at the schools in the 1880 Native Schools Code:

Besides giving due attention to the school instruction of children, teachers will be expected to exercise a beneficial influence on the natives, old and young; to show by their own conduct that it is possible to live a useful and blameless life, and in smaller matters, by their dress, in their house, and by their manner and habits at home and abroad, to set the Maoris [*sic*] an example that they may advantageously imitate (Matthews, 2008, pp. 37–38).

The ‘native school’ system ran parallel to the state system until 1969 and Māori had the choice of attending either ‘native’ or state schools (Matthews, 2008, p. 38). However, the schools were not expected to teach beyond primary school age; Māori were deemed to belong ‘[living] off the land’ and after standard 6 (year 8) no state-funded Māori secondary schooling was available (Matthews, 2008, pp. 38, 40). Prior to the establishment of Māori District High Schools in 1941, Māori students wishing to pursue education after primary school had only two options available to them. They could attend a district high school where Māori pupils were uncommon or attend a Māori denominational boarding school, the fees for which might be paid by a parent or through a Department of Education scholarship (Matthews, 2008, p. 38).

The Church’s objective in establishing Māori boarding schools was to identify Māori who were intellectually capable and place them in a European setting. These pupils would then take their learned European values back home where it was hoped the teaching of these new ideas would accelerate the assimilation of Māori into Pākehā society (Matthews, 2008, p. 38). Māori girls in particular were identified as worthy of attention. Missionaries believed that Christian education would encourage Māori girls to conform to a ‘model of ideal womanhood’ and become the ‘future guardians of morality through their roles as wives and mothers’ (Jenkins & Matthews, 1998, p. 88).

1877 – Education Act 1877 passed.

The Education Act 1877 marked the beginning of a free, secular, compulsory state education system for all New Zealand children seven to 13 years of age (Swarbrick, 2012).

Sir Charles Bowen, an early New Zealand civil servant, makes clear that despite the introduction of the 1877 Bill, education beyond 13 years of age was only suitable for a limited number of children:

It is not intended to encourage children whose vocation is that of honest labour to waste in the higher schools time which might be better devoted to learning a trade, when they have not got the special talent by which higher education might be made immediately useful (Shuker, 1987, p. 44).

Secondary schools were not covered in the Act, which allowed them to ‘pursue undisturbed their socially exclusive and severely academic educational ambitions’ (Campbell 1941, p. 62). The Act therefore made a significant distinction between primary and secondary school; primary education was recognised as a universal right, but secondary education was strictly limited (Shuker, 1987, pp. 48–49). The Act did, however, provide for a number of scholarships to be made available to talented primary school pupils in each Board district to attend secondary school free of charge (Shuker, 1987, pp. 48–49). It also allowed for the establishment of district high schools, which were primary schools in rural areas with a senior class studying secondary subjects (Shuker, 1987, p. 49).

The bill which in an adapted form became the Education Act 1877 also provided for a Department of Education with a Minister of Education and twelve regional Education Boards (Campbell, 1941, p. 46). The Boards were paid a per-child subsidy for all primary and secondary students in their region, less any endowments they received (Campbell, 1941, p. 46). The objective of the Act was to make local boards the administrators of the system within a national framework administered by the Department. The Department, however, was given the power to regulate and control the funding of local Boards. Within their financial limits, Boards had considerable autonomy: building schools, engaging and dismissing teachers and, where possible, arranging teacher training (Campbell, 1941, p. 47). A system of school inspectors was also appointed and charged with monitoring teachers and their adherence to the prescribed curriculum.

The curriculum set out in the 1877 Act followed in the British tradition of the ‘three Rs’ (reading, writing and arithmetic) together with history and geography, sewing and needlework for girls, and military drill for boys (Swarbrick, 2012). The focus was on providing a uniform standard of education and the regulations allowed for little variation in teaching practice.

The issue of staffing primary schools when the Education Act 1877 was passed was an immediate concern; training was needed, as was a way of classifying teachers and paying them. During the early 1880s; teachers’ colleges were established in Dunedin, Auckland, Wellington and Christchurch (Pollock, 2012b). However, the number of teachers attending training college was small. This was, in part, because often pupil teachers were employed, who were normally students aged thirteen or fourteen and learned on the job, and thus were not only cheaper to employ (enabling Education Boards to save money in times of financial constraint) but they also made improving the teaching abilities of adult teachers more difficult (Campbell, 1941, pp. 77–79).

1881 – Industrial and special schools established.

‘Industrial schools’ for neglected and delinquent children and ‘special schools’, for children with physical and/

or intellectual disabilities were set up from 1881 (Archives New Zealand, 2009). Some industrial schools became 'special schools' and the difference between the two was not always clear, although the Neglected and Criminal Children's Act 1867 did make a distinction between 'neglected and delinquent children' (Archives New Zealand, 2009). Responsibility for 'special schools' remained with the Department of Education under a Special and Industrial Schools Branch and then the Child Welfare Division in 1925 (Archives New Zealand, 2009). The provision of policies, resources and services for 'young people with special learning and developmental needs' remains the responsibility of what is now the Ministry of Education, and is supported by the work of the Ministry of Social Development (MoE, 2016a).

1883 – New Zealand Educational Institute (NZEI Te Riu Roa) established.

In 1883, the New Zealand Educational Institute (NZEI Te Riu Roa) was formed as a national organisation to provide teachers with a forum for expressing their views on issues such as the curriculum, staffing and training (NZEI Te Riu Roa, 2016). As 'New Zealand's largest education union,' it continues to promote the interests of teachers, resolves disputes should a teacher be treated unfairly and promotes a higher standard of education (NZEI Te Riu Roa, n.d.a). As the organisation became more established, it regularly involved itself in debates over teachers' issues such as salaries, superannuation and training (NZEI Te Riu Roa, n.d.b).

7.2 1900 – 1920

1900 – Manual and Technical Instruction Act 1900 passed.

(Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004)

1902 – Manual and Technical Instruction Act 1902 amendment passed.

In 1900, the Manual and Technical Instruction Act was passed (and amended in 1902) and provided for the funding of technical subjects in existing secondary schools (Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004). The Acts intended to provide vocational training to students once they left primary school because vocational and technical training were regarded as directly relevant in the lives of New Zealand students.

1901 – Inspector-General of Education, George Hogben visited Māori denominational boarding schools.

In 1901, George Hogben who was appointed Inspector-General of Education in 1899 visited the Māori denominational boarding schools. He recommended these schools strengthen their teaching in English and introduce manual and technical instruction such as carpentry, metalwork, cooking, sewing, hygiene and military drill (Jenkins & Matthews, 1998, p. 94).

Hogben also wanted them to abandon their studies of Latin and Euclid because manual training was:

[...] more important than bookish forms of instruction which might tend to unfit Māori boys and girls for the simple life of the pā and give them no training that would enable them to perform willingly and intelligently the work that had to be done in connection with their homes (Matthews, 2008, p. 41).

The advocacy of a more practical curriculum was designed to keep Māori in their own communities, rather than competing with Europeans for professional jobs (Jenkins & Matthews, 1998, p. 94).

1901 – Public School Teachers’ Salaries Act 1901 passed.

The Public School Teachers’ Salaries Act was passed in 1901 and provided a uniform salary scale throughout the country (Campbell, 1941, p. 58). The Act handed the control of setting salaries to the Department of Education rather than regional Education Boards (Campbell, 1941, p. 58). This Act helped improve both the status and quality of primary and secondary school teachers.

1901 – School leaving age raised to 14.

Under the Education Act 1877 all New Zealand children were legally required to attend school between the ages of seven and 13, but children could attend between five and 15 if their families preferred (Swarbrick, 2012). However, Inspector-General of Schools George Hogben increased the school leaving age to 14 in 1901 (Swarbrick, 2012).

1903 – Secondary Schools Act 1903 passed.

In 1903 the Secondary Schools Act was passed, making secondary school free for those who obtained a certificate of proficiency at the end of primary school (Ewing, 1970, p. 118). This Act led to a steady increase in the number of children going on to secondary education. Secondary schools continued to follow a traditional curriculum based on the requirements of the matriculation exam for enrolment in university. This curriculum followed the British university system and had no relationship to either the primary school curriculum or to the needs of the community (Ewing, 1970, p. 118).

1904 – New curriculum for primary schools developed.

In 1904 Hogben wrote and introduced a revised primary school curriculum that set out, for the first time, aims and objectives and suggested teaching methods (Openshaw, Lee, G. & Lee, H, 1993, p. 100). Hogben believed that modern education methods should assess the academic and practical abilities of students and then, based on that assessment, prepare them for their future citizenship in a democratic society (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 100). This ‘social efficiency thesis’, as it was known, assumed that ‘by applying the standardised techniques of industry to the business of schooling, waste could be eliminated, and the curriculum [...] could be made more directly functional to the adult life roles that [New Zealand’s] future citizens would occupy’ (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 100).

The new curriculum introduced a ‘broad, formal syllabus’ covering morals and the formation of good habits and manners (tidiness, punctuality, kindness to animals, modesty and perseverance), civics (patriotism, loyalty and duty to others) and health, alongside regular primary school subjects such as reading, writing and mathematics (Ewing, 1970, p. 107; Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 100). In addition, Ewing (1910) outlines the expectations of schools to introduce nature study into other subjects such as reading, geography and drawing (p. 107). Ewing also describes the teaching of health, which included lessons on breathing, exercise, infectious diseases and first aid, while the teaching of science was based on discovery through experiment (p. 107). The final page of the syllabus encouraged teachers to timetable subjects in a coordinated way so that connections between subjects could be made and linked ‘to the facts and needs of children’s daily life’ (Ewing, 1970, pp. 107–108). This made for a broad curriculum that was beyond the scope of the training and experience of many teachers. Furthermore, a teacher’s success was measured by their ability to get children through the proficiency exam, and this remained the focus of most teachers until the exam was abolished in 1936 (Ewing, 1970, pp. 275–276).

1907 – The School Journal first published.

The School Journal was first published in 1907 to provide school children with free New Zealand-based reading material on subjects such as history, geography and civics and was led by Inspector-General of Schools, George Hogben (McGuinness & White, 2012, p. 60; MCH, 2015a). The *Journal* strongly reflected Hogben's theories of education, and 'material relating to "proper" civic conduct, the responsible discharge of citizens' and workers' duties and obligations, and "great men"', appeared regularly in the *Journal* (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 101).

1912 – The Cohen Commission Report published.

Speaking to the Cohen Commission in 1912, set up to consider issues of cost, administration and the curriculum, Hogben stated:

I strongly believe in vocational training right through the school life [...] By 'vocational training' I mean that the subjects of the training should be chosen so that they have some bearing on the future life of the pupil. I hold that if you are going to teach the pupil in the best way you must consider his present environment and his future life (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 101).

Hogben argued that an academic curriculum in post-primary schools was necessary only when the great majority of students intend to pursue university study. However, considering that in 1900-1901 only about 5% of secondary school and district high school students went onto further education, he argued that the academic curriculum was not closely related enough to the future vocational requirements of the large majority of post-primary school students (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 103). Hogben intended technical high schools to take on students who were 'practically-minded' which would in turn encourage urban secondary schools to review their curricula (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 105). However, many parents did not support Hogben's views; parents (especially those of children in rural high schools) still wanted their children to be able to access an academic-focused curriculum, so that they could 'compete on equal terms for high status white-collar and professional vocations' (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 103). In fact, Hogben believed that the development of technical high schools held the key to reforming the post-primary school sector (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 105).

1914 – Education Amendment Act 1914 passed.

The Education Amendment Act 1914 has been described as:

[...] the resultant of three forces: an agitation by primary teachers [...] for a national grading scheme and a centrally controlled inspectorate; a vague yet powerful public opinion in favour of local control [...]; and the powerful opposition of secondary school interests to unified local control over the three main branches of school education (McLintock, 2009a).

However, despite the recommendations of the Cohen Commission, the Education Act 1914 did not unify local control of primary and post-primary education. In fact, the powers of education boards were diminished and more power was consolidated in the Department of Education.

During this time, Minister of Education Josiah Hanan believed democracy and citizenship were linked to vocational instruction (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 114). His objective was to draw close links between primary schooling and post-primary schooling using the school curriculum to achieve 'specific social, civic and vocational outcomes' (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 114).

Hanan's prescription for alleviating society's problems is described as:

[...] the whole tendency at the present time in the most advanced countries is to make secondary as well as technical education more and more vocational – that is, more and more directed towards fitting each for his or her vocation [...] to train him for complete citizenship – for his work, his physical and moral nature, for the improvement of his tastes, for his civic duties, for complete citizenship, and in New Zealand we are setting this aim before us (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 114).

1915 – Secondary school curriculum diversified.

Between 1915 and 1935, debates continued over the post-primary curriculum, specifically the excessive focus given to academic subjects and the matriculation exam (for university entrance) over a broader range of subjects. As Campbell noted, 'the typical secondary school is a highly organised oligarchy in which life is closely ordered from above and in which the plain citizen has little or no voice in matters of real importance', a state of affairs seemingly accepted by teachers, parents and the general public (Campbell, 1941, p. 135). He further noted that the main influence allowing for this 'seems to be the public school tradition, with its overwhelming emphasis on conformity' (Campbell, 1941, p. 136). In this period, the curriculum began to diversify with the introduction of technical subjects such as typing and accounting (Swarbrick, 2012). In 1917, home science in forms three and four (years 9 and 10) became compulsory for girls, and all children in forms three and four at district high schools had to study agricultural and dairy science (Swarbrick, 2012).

7.3 1920 – 1940

1920 – Education Amendment Act 1920 passed.

The Education Amendment Act 1920 provided for a national approach to staffing based on salary scales (Shuker, 1987, p. 57). As a result, the numbers of men entering the profession increased and the ratio of women-to-men reduced from 2:1 in 1925 to less than 1.5:1 in 1935 (Campbell, 1941, p. 100). The outbreak of World War Two reversed this trend as women were forced to enter the workforce while men were at war.

1922 – Correspondence School established.

A correspondence school was started in 1922 to extend primary education to remote parts of New Zealand, and, within ten years, lessons were being posted to over 1,100 New Zealand primary pupils (Ewing, 1970, p. 161).

Further institutional changes took place during the 1920s, as intermediate schools were created. Borrowing from the American tradition of junior high schools, they were slow to take off as educationalists debated their merits. Beeby, the first director of the New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER) when it was established in 1934 and the Director of Education in 1940, made the case for intermediate schools.

Beeby stated:

The strongest single argument for the intermediate school is that it can offer all the advantages of consolidation: ability-grouping, differentiated courses, specialist teaching, more generous equipment, better social and sport facilities, more efficient exploration of aptitudes – all are made possible by the fact that the intermediate school is a consolidated school (Campbell, 1941, pp. 139–140).

He went on to add:

The intermediate school caters for an age-group that has educational needs different from those of the age-groups immediately below and above [...] it can reduce the gap between primary and post-primary school on the one hand, and between school and work on the other (Campbell, 1941, p. 140).

1929 – New curriculum (the Red Book) published.

A new 223-page curriculum was published in 1929 (known as ‘the Red Book’ because of its colour) and ‘opened with a section on character-training which supported incidental teaching rather than “set moral lessons”’ (Ewing, 1970, pp. 180–181). The curriculum supported flexibility in terms of approach and was described as having a ‘liberal spirit’ (Ewing, 1970, pp. 183–184). It was also the first curriculum to fully apply to Māori schools and included emphasis on skills that were thought to be of use to Māori such as woodwork and housecraft (Ewing, 1970, p. 183).

1930 – Educational Reconstruction in New Zealand (Atmore Report) published.

The *Atmore Report* was published in 1930 and was a ‘substantial review of the system’ (Ewing, 1970, p. 187). The report supported the expansion of intermediate schools and advocated for closer links between the primary and secondary school curricula (Ewing, 1970, p. 189). It also recommended a unified teaching service for primary, secondary and technical schools, and the abolition of the numerical grading system for teachers. However, these recommendations were not implemented largely due to the impact of the Great Depression (Ewing, 1970, p. 189).

While cuts to education funding curtailed the expansion of extracurricular school activities during the early 1930s, the election of the first Labour Government in 1935 and the hosting of the New Education Fellowship Conference in 1937 prompted further focus on a broad-based primary school curriculum that was suited to the needs of every child.

1931 – New Māori education policy of adaptation introduced.

In 1931 a policy of adaptation (later referred to as integration) was incorporated into Māori schooling and sought to encourage Māori pupils attending ‘native schools’ to further their knowledge of their culture (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 60). Although by the 1930s most of the teachers in native primary schools were qualified, teachers were mostly non-Māori and had little understanding of what they were teaching (Openshaw et al., 1993, pp. 63–64). Peter Fraser took steps to encourage Māori pupils to become qualified teachers and arranged for a quota to be fixed for teachers wishing to teach in Māori schools (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 63).

1936 – Proficiency exam abolished.

Minister of Education Peter Fraser abolished the proficiency exam in 1936 and instead granted primary-school leaving certificates which entitled all children to free secondary-schooling (Ewing, 1970, p. 192; Shuker, 1987, p. 61). This represented the end of the selective approach to secondary schooling and meant that primary schools no longer had to focus on teaching to a specific examination curriculum, which helped increase the breadth of the school curriculum (Ewing, 1970, p. 275). The abolition of the exam also saw the merging of district, technical high and secondary schools into a single system of post-primary schooling, which then needed its own common core curriculum.

1937 – Free school milk scheme introduced.

As the Minister of Education, Fraser ensured a continued focus on children's physical and mental wellbeing and in March 1937 he initiated the free milk in schools scheme under which each primary school child received half a pint of milk daily (McGuinness & White, 2012, p. 80; MCH, 2016b). The scheme was a world first and, by 1940, milk was available to over 80% of school children (MCH, 2016b). For a few years during the Second World War, pupils also received an apple a day.

1937 – New Education Fellowship Conference held in New Zealand.

A key event that set the course for new approaches to education over the next three decades was New Zealand hosting the New Education Fellowship (NEF) conference in 1937 (May, 2013, p. 345). The NEF had been formed in 1921 as an organisation to promote new educational ideas throughout Europe, the United States, Asia and later Australia and New Zealand (May, 2013, p. 343). The NEF spread ideas of social reform and education, supporting the view that education must 'release the creative powers of individuals and awaken their social conscience' (May, 2013, p. 344). The group supported the views of John Dewey, an educational psychologist, who believed that through the development of a socially relevant curriculum, a child-centred pedagogy (method and practice of teaching) was more capable of effectively meeting individual needs (May, 2013, pp. 248, 344). Dewey's ideas had been picked up by George Hogben, but had been dropped during the war and following years. Consequently, for the most part, teaching in the mid-1930s continued to be based on rote learning and teaching to prescribed tests and standards.

The 1937 NEF conference was organised by Beeby while he was the director of the New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER) and supported by the Minister of Education, Peter Fraser (May, 2013, p. 345). The conference was one of New Zealand's biggest education events with 6000 delegates enrolled, up to 20,000 people attending study sessions and some lectures broadcast on national radio (May, 2013, p. 345). Fraser arranged for primary schools to be closed for the duration of the conference and attended many of the meetings himself (May, 2013, p. 345).

The conference enabled teachers to access the latest thinking in educational development, a novelty at a time when few teachers had travelled overseas or been exposed to alternative ideas. Presentations included topics such as:

- the importance of the individual child;
- criticisms of examinations;
- plea for more activity in curriculum and classrooms;
- the overcentralisation of educational administration and the need for more public participation;
- distrust of the role of inspectors in schools; and
- concerns regarding the teacher grading system (Beeby, 1992, p. 104).

1939 – Prime Minister Peter Fraser's statement on the first Labour Government's educational philosophy published.

When Peter Fraser was made Minister of Education in the first Labour Government in 1935, his first act was to reverse the cutbacks that had occurred during the Depression (Shuker, 1987, pp. 60–61). He embarked on a three-year plan for the construction of schools, reopening two of the four teacher-training colleges that had been closed during the depression and restoring teacher salaries.

The first Labour Government adopted the theme of equality of opportunity that had resonated at the 1937 NEF Conference in the aims for education that Peter Fraser reported to parliament in 1939:

The Government's objective, broadly expressed, is that every person, whatever the level of his academic ability, whether he be rich or poor, whether he live in town or country, has a right as a citizen to a free education of a kind for which he is best fitted and to the fullest extent of his powers (McDonald, 2002, p. 26).

The statement continued with the observation that the structure of the schooling system in New Zealand had been based on a 'principle of selection' which favoured either the wealthy or the brilliant and penalised the poor, especially those who lived outside urban centres (Beeby, 1992, p. 124).

1939 – School Publications Branch established in the Department of Education.

By the late 1930s, the Department of Education had extended its administration and professional efforts in secondary schools, and also encouraged the development of services that could help teachers cope with curriculum change (Shuker, 1987, p. 62). 'These included the Museums Education Service (established in 1937 [...]), the National Film Library (1942), the School Library Service (1938)', and, in 1939, the Schools Publications Branch (Shuker, 1987, p. 62). For Beeby, a 'programme of school publications was central to any educational reform' (Shuker, 1987, p. 62).

7.4 1940 – 1960

1943 – Rolling revision of curriculum reinstated.

When Beeby was appointed Director of Education in 1940, more effort was put into integrating learning across the educational spectrum. Changes made during Fraser's time as Prime Minister included a complete review of the primary curriculum and teaching, as well as implementation of rolling reviews within subject areas (Maharey, 2003). Rolling reviews had first been implemented during the 1920s under T. B. Strong but were abandoned during the Depression (Ewing, 1970, p. 208).

The rolling revision of the primary curriculum was announced by the Department of Education in 1943 (Ewing, 1970, p. 208). The significance of these new revision procedures was in their incorporation of Beeby's desire for a close relationship between the Department of Education and teachers (Ewing, 1970, p. 208). Over a period of about twelve years, separate committees representative of the Department, primary, secondary and technical training colleges, and sometimes also private schools revised each subject in the curriculum and produced a draft syllabus (Ewing, 1970, p. 208).

1944 – School leaving age raised to 15.

The first Labour Government raised the school leaving age from 14 to 15 in 1944 although some children were still permitted to leave school at 14 under strict conditions (Swarbrick, 2012). This eliminated the final barrier for young people whose parents did not want them to engage in further education, usually because they were compelled for financial reasons to enter the workforce as soon as possible (Swarbrick, 2012).

1944 – The Thomas Report published.

In 1943, the Thomas Committee was set up to advise the first Labour Government on changes that should be made to the school certificate examination and the secondary school curriculum. Following the

recommendations of the 1944 *Thomas Report*, the school leaving age was raised to 15 and a common core secondary curriculum was established (Ewing, 1970, p. 206; Openshaw et al., 1993, pp. 170–171).

The core of the curriculum included English language and literature; social studies (preferably an integrated course of history and civics, geography and some descriptive economics); general science; elementary mathematics; music; a craft or one of the fine arts (or home craft for girls); and physical education (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 171).

Rex Mason, Minister of Education at the time of the *Thomas Report's* publication, was firmly committed to the idea that the citizenship training of adolescents was central to the preservation of democracy. However, the Government was not prepared to advocate for total state control over post-primary curricula (mindful of the threat to democracy offered by the recent emergence of totalitarianism) and instead put 'its faith in teachers as being agents of adolescent socialisation' (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 175).

The understanding that children in a typical class vary hugely in ability and that this should influence what they were taught was a major milestone in curriculum development at this time, which required different approaches that teachers were not always capable of implementing (Ewing, 1970, p. 275).

1946 – School certificate examination introduced.

The new school certificate examination introduced in 1946 and sat at the end of fifth form (year 11) proved a popular qualification. Between 1946 and 1967, students sitting school certificate increased by 405.9% (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 222). At the same time, the numbers of students in fifth and sixth forms (years 11 and 12) increased by 256% and 411.3% respectively, threatening the scarcity value of school certificate (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 222). This led to the introduction of single-subject passes so that the pass rate remained around 50% and the certificate maintained its value as a secondary school-leaving qualification, although after 1967 it was applied to single subjects rather than as an aggregate mark (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 223).

The growth in numbers of students staying on at school into the sixth form (year 12) led to the creation of a sixth form certificate in 1969 as an alternative qualification to the university entrance exam (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 224). However, as the number of students continuing their education increased, an endorsed school certificate or university entrance obtained in the final year of secondary school after the sixth form certificate came to be the most highly prized school leaving qualification (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 221).

1952 – Post Primary Teachers Association (PPTA) established.

The New Zealand Post Primary Teachers' Association (PPTA) was formed in 1952 from a unification of the Technical School Teachers' Association and the Secondary Schools Association (PPTA, 2014a). The PPTA started with approximately 2000 members and grew rapidly as secondary schooling expanded to accommodate the post-war baby boom. Policy matters were initially addressed at an annual conference attended by about 200 teachers representing individual schools, but in 1961, responsibility was divided among 24 regional organisations, which continue to operate today (PPTA, 2014a). The PPTA is a voluntary trade union and professional association that advocates for teachers and students to advance the cause of education (PPTA, 2014b).

1955 – National Committee on Māori Education convened.

In 1955 a National Committee on Māori Education was convened by the Department of Education and, for the first time, comprised a majority of Māori leaders (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 70). The Committee put forward 15 resolutions and 14 recommendations to the Department of Education, the majority of which were related to primary education. The Committee also recommended an increase in the number of secondary scholarships to enable Māori from rural district high schools access to a wider range of subjects (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 71).

The Committee agreed unanimously that the ‘long-term policy of government [should] be the development of a uniform system of administrative control of primary schools’ (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 71). Interestingly, the Committee did not discuss the language barriers that many Māori students experienced, nor did they touch upon employment options for Māori school leavers (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 71). Some historians have argued that the Committee’s reluctance to ‘make recommendations concerning pre-vocational and trade training for Māori reflected the widely held belief that few Māori would be able to reach the educational standard required for acceptance into apprenticeships’ (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 71). However, within the following five years government officials acknowledged that Māori education was in crisis, and finding a solution to this became the main goal of the *Hunn Report* (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 71–72).

7.5 1960 – 1980

1960 – Report of the Department of Māori Affairs (Hunn Report) published.

The 1960 *Report of the Department of Māori Affairs (Hunn Report)* concluded that Māori were a ‘depressed ethnic minority’, and education had a ‘major role to play in the economic and social advancement of Māori’ (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 72). In the 1960s, a very small number of Māori were attending post-compulsory education (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 72). As a result, the *Hunn Report* recommended the establishment of a Māori Education Foundation, which would provide financial assistance to Māori students to attend secondary schools and university (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 72). This proposal was accepted by the second Labour Government and initiated in 1961 (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 72). The *Hunn Report* identified Māori disadvantage and recommended that the policy of assimilation be abandoned in favour of a policy of integration (Calman, 2012; Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 72).

1962 – Report of the Commission on Education in New Zealand (Currie Report) published.

The 1962 *Report of the Commission on Education in New Zealand (Currie Report)*, which followed the *Hunn Report*, drew attention to the education gap between Māori and non-Māori in terms of retention rates and achievement levels. The *Currie Report* rejected the notion of a difference in intellectual potential between Māori and Europeans, instead regarding Māori pupils as ‘the greatest reservoir of unused talent in the population’ (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 74).

The position of the Commission was summed up in the following sentence:

Too many [Māori children] live in large families in inadequately sized and even primitive houses, lacking privacy, quiet, and even light for study; too often there is a dearth of books, pictures, educative material generally, to stimulate the growing child (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 74).

The Commission also singled out the recruitment of teachers and teacher training as areas of special concern

(Beeby, 1992, p. 249). Notwithstanding the emergency one-year course, the main educational qualification for prospective primary school teachers was a pass in school certificate. This was followed by a two-year training course. Secondary teachers were able to teach with a university degree and no training. However lifting teacher quality in the 1960s was problematic due to population demographics: the number of live births had dipped during the Depression to 27,216 in 1935 (Beeby, 1992, p. 249). While numbers increased strongly pre-war to 39,324 births in 1941, they dropped to 34,761 births in 1943 (Beeby, 1992, p. 249). After the war there was a dramatic rise to 47,647 in 1946 and 61,869 births in 1959 (Beeby, 1992, p. 249). This meant that by the early 1960s the teaching profession was struggling to recruit sufficient numbers and lengthening the primary training course to three years or lifting the entrance criteria was not an option. The same constraints applied to making post-primary training at teachers college a universal requirement.

According to Beeby, in-service training worked better in primary schools than post-primary schools and was the best way to get teachers to adapt to the new demands of Peter Fraser's Department of Education (Beeby, 1992, p. 251). Post-primary schools faced more teacher shortages, varied in their opinions as to the value of the reforms and were confronted with a whole group of pupils they had not previously had to deal with following the increase in the school leaving age to 15. Reflecting on his time in the Department 30 years later, Beeby conceded that principals at the time struggled to cope with the multitude of changes and needed more help in restructuring than the Department was offering (Beeby, 1992, p. 253).

1964 – Education Act 1964 passed.

Arnold Everitt Campbell succeeded Beeby as Director of Education in 1960 and had also previously succeeded him as the Director of the New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER). In a submission to the Commission on Education (the Currie Commission) reviewing educational developments in New Zealand, he identified four characteristics of modern education:

An effort to provide educational opportunity in the fullest sense of the word; an effort to give pupils at all stages a richer and better-balanced education than they have had in the past; an effort to improve personal relationships in the classroom, and to relate the business of schooling more closely to modern knowledge of the nature and needs to children and adolescents; and an effort to seize the educational opportunities, and to meet the educational demands of our own changing society and the changing world (Ewing, 1970, p. 272).

Campbell had a major part in the review of educational legislation, which ultimately led to the passing of a new Education Act in 1964 (Ewing, 1970, p. 272). This Act, unlike previous Education Acts, consolidated educational legislation and the curriculum.

The creation of a Curriculum Development Unit in the Department of Education in 1963 brought a new expertise to curriculum planning, and the unit worked closely with teachers at all levels (Ewing, 1970, p. 209). Teachers were to have regular input into subject revisions within the curriculum. The author Ewing noted that, despite the broad curriculum, there remained a tendency towards a uniform approach to teaching rather than taking advantage of the flexibility the curriculum offered (Ewing, 1970, p. 276).

1966 – First New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies published.

The first volume of the *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies* was published in 1966, following the *Currie Report* in 1962 (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 276). During the 1970s and 1980s the journal was a major platform for the distribution of educational research within New Zealand (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 275).

1967 – Free school milk scheme abolished.

In 1967, under the second National Government, delivery of free milk in schools ended, largely owing to its cost to the State, and because some people were sceptical about the health benefits (MCH, 2016b).

‘In 2012, New Zealand’s largest dairy company, Fonterra, introduced a pilot “Fonterra Milk for Schools” scheme in Northland offering free milk to all primary school aged children in the region’ (McGuinness & White, 2012, p. 103). Fonterra’s scheme is now in 70% of New Zealand primary schools (Fonterra, 2016).

1969 – Management of Māori schools transferred to regional Education Boards.

The number of Māori in mainstream schools began to surpass those in Māori schools after 1945, due to Māori population growth and increasing urbanisation (Calman, 2012). Although many Māori communities resisted change, in 1969 all Māori schools were transferred to the control of the regional Education Boards as per the recommendations of the *Hunn Report* in 1960 (Calman, 2012).

In 1955, 95.9% of Māori and 75.9% of non-Māori left school without any qualifications (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 74). By 1960, 11.8% of non-Māori left school with University Entrance or higher, whereas only 1.4% of Māori left with the same qualification (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 74).

1975 – Private Schools Conditional Integration Act 1975 passed.

A notable development during the 1970s was the granting of state funding to private schools that chose to integrate into the state school system in an attempt to cope with the growth of secondary school rolls in the state system (Openshaw et al., 1993, pp. 244–245). Government assistance to private schools had been an ongoing debate since the passing of the Education Act 1877, which provided funding only for secular state schools. The debate had intensified during the Fraser era, with Catholic schools having financial difficulties upgrading their school buildings in keeping with state standards and passing the cost of this on to the Catholic community (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 248). On the other side of the debate, more frequent concerns were raised from the 1980s that many integrated schools were well resourced, while many state schools were underfunded and had school buildings in need of maintenance (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 248).

1976 – Towards Partnership (McCombs Report) published.

By the 1970s, concerns were raised regarding the role of the Department of Education. *Towards Partnership (McCombs Report)* published in 1976 identified what it called ‘serious flaws in existing structural arrangements for education’ (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 274). It noted in particular the concentration of power in the Department of Education, the isolation of Boards from their constituencies, the segregation of lay and professional interests and the lack of real parental involvement (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 274). These themes were picked up in the late 1980s when structural and institutional arrangements for schools underwent further radical change.

7.6 1980 – 2000

1986 – Inquiry into the Quality of Teaching (Scott Report) published.

The mid-1980s saw debates around the degree to which teacher training should be practically based in the classroom. In 1986 Noel Scott chaired an *Inquiry into the Quality of Teaching (Scott Report)*. The report made

the following statement in relation to teacher training prior to placement in a classroom:

[...] agencies providing teacher education should cooperate on research to identify the essential theoretical and practical components or common core of teacher education across all levels of teaching, and that required teaching skills and competencies should be clearly identified (Openshaw & Ball, 2006, p. 115).

1987 – Government Management: Brief to the Incoming Government 1987 Volume II Education Issues published by The New Zealand Treasury.

Changes to educational administration dominated the reforms of the 1980s and 1990s. In 1987 the New Zealand Treasury published *Government Management: Brief to the Incoming Government* (the second term of fourth Labour Government). The entirety of *Volume II* was dedicated to education.

Treasury's position on education was made clear in the following statement:

Education is never free as there is always an opportunity cost to the provider. Those who provide the inputs to formal education naturally seek to defend and develop their own interests. Hence, formal education is unavoidably part of the market economy and the Government can afford to be no less concerned with the effectiveness and 'profitability' of its expenditure on education, in relation to the state's aims, than private providers would be in relation to their own (New Zealand Treasury, 1987, p. 133).

1988 – National Curriculum Statement: A Discussion Document for Primary and Secondary Schools published as a result of the 1987 Curriculum Review.

In the 1970s and 1980s, school-based curriculum development (SBCD) was being presented as a solution to many of the problems of school education. Issues included the perception that centrally-based curricula failed to keep pace with social and educational developments (Bolstad, 2004, p. 1). Many people argued that 'new national curriculum statements were needed to provide coherent direction for the goals and purposes of school education', and that teachers should be developers, rather than simply communicators of curriculum (Bolstad, 2004, p. 5). Work on a national curriculum had been underway for a number of years, but recommendations failed to be implemented until *The New Zealand Curriculum Framework* in 1993 (MoE, 2007a).

1988 – Administering for Excellence: Effective Administration in Education (Picot Report) published.

The Treasury analysis formed the backdrop to a number of reviews commissioned by the fourth Labour Government when it was returned to office in 1987. Prime Minister David Lange contracted Brian Picot, a businessman and education reformer who served as the pro-vice chancellor of the University of Auckland in the 1990s, to review the administration of primary and secondary schooling which led to the publication of the *Picot Report* in 1988. The *Meade Report* on early childhood education and the *Hawke Report* on tertiary education were also the result of the Labour Government ordered reviews.

The Picot task force was set up by the Government in July 1987 to review the school system, producing the report *Administering for Excellence: Effective Administration in Education (Picot Report)* in 1988. The report recognised significant flaws in the existing education system: 'overcentralisation of decision-making; complexity; lack of information and choice; lack of effective management practices; and feelings of

powerlessness' (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 268). These feelings of powerless stemmed mostly from debates of the balance between central and local control, which it seemed, was not satisfying anyone (Openshaw, 2014, p. 2). The report suggested a new structure where, from October 1989, 'learning institutions [would become] the basic "building block" of education administration' and each school would be largely independent and governed by a Board (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 268). The report also recommended that the Department of Education be abolished and replaced by a Ministry of Education that would provide policy advice, administer property and handle financial activities. The Government accepted many of these recommendations in their response *Tomorrow's Schools*, which became the basis for educational reform in New Zealand starting in 1989 (Openshaw et al., 1993, p. 269).

1989 – *Tomorrow's Schools* published by the fourth Labour Government in response to the Picot Report.

(Sullivan, 1993, p. 151)

1989 – Education Act 1989 passed. Department of Education and regional Education Boards abolished. Ministry of Education (MoE), Education Review Office (ERO) and New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) established.

Following on from *Tomorrow's Schools*, the Education Act 1989 decentralised education administration – the Department of Education and regional Education Boards were abolished, and a much smaller Ministry of Education was set up to deal with policy (Education Act 1989, No. 80, pp. 204–205). The Tertiary Education Commission (TEC), Education Review Office (ERO), New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA), Careers New Zealand and Education Council of Aotearoa New Zealand (Education Council) were also established (Education Act 1989, No. 80, pp. 251, 360, 398, 426, 523). As a result, administration became the responsibility of schools, governed by boards of trustees consisting of the principal, a teacher and parents elected by their local community (Openshaw et al., 1993, pp. 268–269).

The underlying philosophy of these changes was the belief that implementing self-management of schools would improve administration and educational outcomes, creating a 'free market of education' dependent on results and accountability (Sullivan, 1993, p. 156). The belief was that creating competition between schools would improve the quality of education because schools that were not achieving the results expected by parents would lose pupils and therefore funding, while the opposite would be the case for schools that were achieving the desired high results (Connew, 2003, p. 49). However, little thought appears to have been given as to how each school, on its own, could achieve its aims in the absence of relationships beyond the school (Wylie, 2009, p. 11).

Following the 1989 education reforms, debate focused on the need for professional standards for teaching and there were multiple reviews of teacher training during the 1990s looking at what form it should take. Professional standards (Practising Teacher Criteria) were introduced in 2006 and teachers are now required to submit a portfolio to their principal every three years (when they reapply for teacher registration) to show they are meeting these standards (Education Council, n.d.).

1989 – School leaving age raised to 16.

In 1989 the school leaving age was raised to 16, reflecting the view that children needed a solid secondary education before continuing on to further training or work. In the 1950s and 1960s, leaving school without a qualification mattered little because unemployment rates were low. However, by the late twentieth century, it was becoming increasingly obvious that students would need qualifications to engage in the labour market (Swarbrick, 2012).

1990 – Corporal punishment abolished by Education Amendment Act 1990.

Corporal punishment was abolished in 1987 but legislation was not changed to reflect this until 1990 (Swarbrick, 2012).

1990 – Kura Kaupapa Māori (Māori language immersion schools) formalised in education legislation.

Throughout the 1980s, many Māori communities believed they were being let down by the state education system, and so they embarked on their own programme of educational reforms. In 1985, the Māori community in Henderson, West Auckland established the first Kura Kaupapa Māori outside the state system (Calman, 2012). Kura Kaupapa Māori 'gained recognition in the Education Act 1989 and from 1990 the Ministry of Education supported the creation of new kura' (schools) (Calman, 2012). Kura Kaupapa Māori became state schools that function within a whānau-based Māori philosophy and deliver the curriculum in te reo Māori (Calman, 2012).

In 1999, the Education (Te Aho Matua) Amendment Act 1999 substituted section 155 of the Education Act 1989 No. 80, requiring all Kura Kaupapa Māori to make te reo Māori the principal language of instruction and to adhere to the principles of Te Aho Matua (a document of Kura Kaupapa Māori, which sets out the principles and guidelines for kura) (Education Act 1989, No. 80, pp. 217–220). The amendment also recognised Te Runanga Nui o ngā Kura Kaupapa Māori as the kaitiaki (guardians, caretakers and architects) and therefore the most suitable body responsible for determining the content of Te Aho Matua and ensuring that it is not changed to the detriment of Māori (Education Act 1989, No. 80, p. 219).

Annual meetings are held in different Kura Kaupapa regions each year to discuss issues affecting these schools. In 2015, there were 17,842 children in Kura Kaupapa Māori, and a further 154,722 studying Māori language in English language schools (Education Counts, 2016).

The period from the 1980s to the present day illustrates the determination of Māori to take greater control of their education and language. They have established early childcare centres, primary and secondary schools and tertiary institutions that enable Māori to learn in and protect their own language and operate within their own educational paradigm.

1991 – Education Policy: Investing in People, Our Greatest Asset published by the fourth National Government to build on Tomorrow's Schools.

When the fourth National Government was elected in October 1990, it carried out additional educational reviews through the publication of *Education Policy: Investing in People, Our Greatest Asset* (Sullivan, 1993, p. 151). This report initiated further modifications to the structure of education reform, which decentralised management, and gave Boards much more managerial responsibility (Sullivan, 1993, p. 155–156).

1991 – Education Amendment Act 1991 passed.

The Education Amendment Act 1991 abolished zoning, establishing freedom of choice for parents in their child's schooling and putting schools in competition with each other for enrolments and the corresponding funding (Connew, 2003, p. 49). Supporters of this policy believed that removing zoning would improve the education system and educational achievement; parents would enrol their children in the best schools and withdraw their children from schools that were not performing, thus sending a signal to schools about their performance (Connew, 2003, p. 49).

By the end of the 1990s enrolments had increased in high decile schools and decreased in low decile schools. Low decile schools, in some cases, struggled to attract and retain experienced principals (Wylie, 2009, p. 18). The 1990s brought little improvement in terms of student achievement or any reduction in the gap between the highest and lowest achieving students in primary schools or across socio-economic divisions. In an attempt to address this, school zoning was reintroduced in 2000 (LaRocque, 2004, p. 3).

1993 – New Zealand Curriculum Framework published.

The *New Zealand Curriculum Framework* was published in 1993 and announced eight curriculum statements with outcomes described in terms of broad achievement objectives, indicating a policy shift from ‘a focus on content, experiences and activities to curriculum policy based on outcomes’ (Wylie, 2009, p. 16).

The *New Zealand Curriculum Framework* was effectively what Hogben and others had envisaged in previous decades: an integrated curriculum that would guide inquiry based learning and produce students who left school with the knowledge they needed to become responsible citizens (MoE, 2007b, p. 4). The framework provided an overarching statement that represented an innovative approach to curriculum development in New Zealand and changed the face of New Zealand’s school curriculum.

7.7 2000 – 2020

2001 – Hui Taumata Mātauranga held to consider a framework for Māori education aspirations.

In 2001, the first hui (assembly) to consider a framework for Māori aspirations for education (Hui Taumata Mātauranga) was held (Durie, 2004, p. 2). The hui resulted in 107 recommendations based around whānau, te reo and tikanga Māori, quality in education, Māori participation in education and the purpose of education (Durie, 2004, p. 2). Further hui were subsequently held and aimed to ‘view success from different perspectives and from different generations, and to consider how Māori and the Crown, together, might make a difference for future generations’ (Durie, 2004, p. 2).

2002–2004 – School certificate, university entrance, sixth form (year 12) certificate and university bursary replaced by National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA).

Between 2002 and 2004, school certificate, university entrance and bursary exams were replaced by the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) (Swarbrick, 2012). Trials undertaken from 1987 to 1989 on standards-based assessments had shown that teachers had to be clearer and more focused about ‘what students should gain from their learning and how student work could demonstrate this’ (Wylie, 2012, p. 154). Wylie suggests it is the results of these trials that help explain how it was possible for the introduction of NCEA to start to improve secondary school student performance (Wylie, 2012, pp. 154–155). However, there was a disconnection between the introduction of NCEA and the new curriculum because each was undertaken separately.

2003 – Teaching and Learning Research Initiative (TLRI) established.

The Teaching and Learning Research Initiative (TLRI) was a fund established by the fifth Labour Government to ‘enhance the links between educational research and teaching practices to improve outcomes for learners’ (TLRI, n.d.). TLRI continues to undertake collaborative research about teaching and learning in the early childhood, primary and secondary, and tertiary education sectors. The TLRI community now includes more than 400 researchers and practitioners, 125 projects, and around 100 published research reports, publications and presentations (TLRI, n.d.).

2007 – The New Zealand Curriculum published.

The New Zealand Curriculum was published in 2007 and articulated what the fifth Labour Government deemed important in education. It sought to create a ‘vision of our young people as lifelong learners who are confident and creative, connected, and actively involved’ (Sewell in MoE, 2007b, p. 4). It incorporated a clear set of principles on which to base curriculum decision-making. It set out values to be encouraged, modelled, and explored, and emphasises lifelong learning. In addition, learning languages was included to ‘encourage students to participate more actively in New Zealand’s diverse, multicultural society and in the global community’ (MoE, 2007b, p. 4).

The curriculum specified eight learning areas: English, the arts, health and physical education, learning languages, mathematics and statistics, science, social sciences and technology. The learning associated with each area is part of a ‘broad, general education and lays a foundation for later specialisation’ (MoE, 2007b, p. 16).

The curriculum also established eight statements within the following areas that teaching should be consistent with:

- High expectations;
- cultural diversity;
- inclusion;
- coherence;
- future focus;
- Treaty of Waitangi;
- community engagement; and
- learning to learn (MoE, 2007b, p. 9).

The curriculum did not intend to prescribe what should be taught but instead intended to provide resources for teachers to use within each learning area. It encouraged schools to construct their own curriculum by working with their communities to identify a core set of values within the national framework (MoE, 2007b, p. 16).

2008 – Ka Hikitia – Managing for Success: The Māori Education Strategy 2008–2012 published.

In 2008, the Ministry of Education published *Ka Hikitia – Managing for Success: The Māori Education Strategy 2008–2012*, a document that laid out an education strategy for Māori. This strategy set the direction for improving education outcomes for Māori learners. The document aimed to ‘get away from the concept of failure of Māori learners, to how the system can and will maximise Māori potential’ (MoE, 2009, p. 10). It emphasised that the system has to adapt to meet the needs and interests of all New Zealand learners, rather than New Zealand learners having to change for the system (MoE, 2009, pp. 9–10).

2008 – Education (National Standards) Amendment Act 2008 passed.

Concerns about a decline in literacy and numeracy standards throughout New Zealand prompted the drafting of the Education (National Standards) Amendment Act 2008 (Openshaw & Walshaw, 2010, p. 125). This legislation was passed in 2008, and schools were required to implement it from the beginning of 2010. This Act required regular numeracy and literacy assessment of every primary school student, with the results measured against national standards to determine the progress of each learner.

Cathy Wylie suggests that the introduction of these standards could have provided the basis for the kind of connections and shared responsibility across schools needed to help build knowledge of effective teaching and improve student achievement (Wylie, 2012, p. 202). However, she argues that these opportunities were lost owing to the way the standards were hastily implemented (Wylie, 2012, p. 202).

2010 – Administration of New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NZQF) transferred to New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA).

The New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NZQF) was designed to enhance ‘the recognition of educational achievement and its contribution to New Zealand’s economic, social and cultural success’ (NZQA, 2016, p. 2). In 2010, the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) took on the management of the NZQF (NZQA, 2016, p. 2). NZQA continues to be the primary source for information about tertiary and senior secondary school qualifications and qualifications open to international students (NZQA, 2016, p. 2).

2010 – Review of Special Education 2010 published.

In February 2010, the New Zealand public were asked to contribute their views on ‘special education’, and more than 2,000 responses were received by the closing date of 19 March 2010 (MoE, 2010a, p. 6). Approximately 40% of respondents wanted ‘improved internal systems and processes within schools, emphasising strong leadership, governance and whole-school professional development’, and about 20% asserted the need to ‘improve the professional development opportunities available to teachers’ aides’ (MoE, 2010a, p. 8). The *Review of Special Education* aimed to ensure that ‘policies and processes were fair, consistent, reach those most in need, provide choices for families and make the best use of Government funding’ (MoE, 2010a, p. 14).

2010 – Success for All – Every School, Every Child published.

Success for All – Every School, Every Child was the fifth National Government’s four-year plan to ‘achieve a fully inclusive education system’ (MoE, 2010b). It built on the views expressed in the submissions to the *Review of Special Education* (2010), and was also supported by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and the New Zealand Disability Strategy (MoE, 2010b). The vision of *Success for All* was to improve New Zealand’s ‘world-class education system’ by ‘building on what is working well and improving what is not [...] to create a full inclusive education system of confident schools, confident children and confident parents’ (MoE, 2010b).

2013 – Ka Hikitia – Accelerating Success 2013–2017 published.

The fifth National Government’s *Ka Hikitia – Managing for Success: The Māori Education Strategy 2008–2012*, which was originally published in 2008, was updated in 2013 with the publication of *Ka Hikitia – Accelerating Success 2013–2017* (MoE, 2013b, p. 9). This strategy was designed to build on what had previously been achieved, and focused on creating an effective supply of teachers for Māori language in education. Accompanying *Ka Hikitia* is *Tau Mai Te Reo*, a Māori language strategy that was initiated in 2013 (MoE, 2013b, p. 52).

2014 – Investing in Educational Success – Working Group Report published.

The most recent government initiative announced in 2014, *Investing In Educational Success*, intended to improve outcomes for all students by encouraging more cooperation between schools through what is called

Communities of Schools (MoE, 2014c, p. 1). Communities of Schools aimed to encourage collaboration between school governance and teachers to improve their practice and deliver shared achievement objectives, and create better teaching and leadership pathways and support teacher-led innovation of practice (MoE, 2014c, p. 1). In addition, a group of expert teachers and principals were to work with struggling schools and principals. \$359.246 million was to be invested in the programme over the first four years and then \$154.830 million a year thereafter (MoE, 2014c, p. 5).

8.0 History of tertiary education in New Zealand

From the late nineteenth century through to the mid-twentieth century there were two main streams of post-secondary education: academic and non-academic. Debate in the early years of New Zealand's tertiary education sector revolved around the structure and balance of power between the now disestablished University of New Zealand (UNZ) and its subsidiary 'colleges' (UNZ was disestablished in 1961 resulting in four independent universities and two associated agricultural colleges: the University of Otago, the University of Canterbury, University of Auckland, Victoria University of Wellington, Canterbury Agricultural College and Massey Agricultural College). Based on a British model, the early academic tertiary education system in New Zealand was primarily targeted at men. Non-academic forms of tertiary education, such as polytechnics and technical colleges, began to be established in the late nineteenth century and catered to those who had entered the workforce immediately after leaving school. Throughout the early twentieth century, technical education became increasingly professionalised and was imperative if a person wished to go into a trade.

Changing beliefs about tertiary education's role for both the individual and society resulted in two significant phases of reform taking place after the election of the fourth Labour Government in 1984 (Crawford, 2016, p. v). The main drivers of tertiary education reform came from the growing perception that providers were unresponsive to change. Dissatisfaction was made more pressing by the high rate of unemployment resulting from economic restructuring; it became increasingly obvious that higher education was needed for individuals to secure financial stability (Crawford, 2016, p. v). The demand for skills (already evident in the 1970s) was growing, as was the realisation that skill requirements were 'likely to evolve over an individual's working life' (Crawford, 2016, p. v). This accordingly resulted in an increase in the perceived value of participation in tertiary education by New Zealanders.

The first phase of reform was implemented as a uniform, volume-driven funding system across all sectors of tertiary education (Smyth, 2012). The reform centred around increasing autonomy for tertiary providers, increasing funding to encourage participation and facilitating students to move between different parts of the education system (Smyth, 2012). The student loan scheme set up in 1992 was also designed to encourage New Zealanders to engage in further education (Smyth, 2012). As a result of the 'light-handed' system, there was growth among groups who had traditionally experienced low participation in the tertiary education sector, such as Māori and older age groups (Smyth, 2012). However, the tertiary education sector experienced over-enrolment, which created problems for government expenditure (Smyth, 2012).

The fifth Labour Government initiated the second phase of post-1984 reforms (2000–present) following its election in 1999. The 2000s saw a significant shift in education funding priorities in favour of universities. This shift included managing affordability for students through sharing costs between government and students, loan interest concessions and fee setting controls (Smyth, 2012). The second wave of reforms also focused on forging a strategy to articulate national goals for tertiary education – the Government attempted to steer the tertiary education system to align with national priorities, while still enabling institutions to maintain their autonomy (Smyth, 2012). The Government did not want to stifle demand for tertiary education, but

instead aimed to manage the fiscal implications more carefully (Smyth, 2012). There has been ongoing debate throughout the twenty-first century over the relative contribution that should be made by government and students towards the cost of tertiary education, given the perceived private and public benefits that education provides.

The early twenty-first century also saw an increase in the promotion of alternative forms of tertiary education, highlighting ways to help students engage in post-compulsory education and move between different sections of the tertiary education system. More recently, there has been a push to increase participation in tertiary education, especially by Māori and Pasifika. Although the number of Māori and Pasifika students attending tertiary education is increasing, they are still significantly under-represented at these higher levels of study.

Below, we describe key events that have shaped the tertiary education system in New Zealand. The text in blue can be found in the accompanying *Timeline of significant events in the history of education in New Zealand*.

8.1 Pre-1900s – 1900

1869 – University of Otago established as New Zealand’s first university.

(Pollock, 2012b)

1870 – New Zealand University Act 1870 passed. University of New Zealand established.

(McLintock, 2009b)

1871 – University of Otago opened to students including women.

Women were able to attend university from the opening of the University of Otago in 1871 (Else, 2011). Other colleges followed this trend; however, women were not given the right to take degrees until after 1874. The first woman graduate in the Commonwealth with a BA was Kate Edger from Canterbury University in 1877, while Emily Siedeberg and Ethel Benjamin from the University of Otago became the first New Zealand woman graduates in their respective fields of medicine and law in 1896 and 1897 (Brown, 2013; Kirkman, 2011; MCH, 2015b). By 1900 there were 805 students enrolled across all four colleges, of whom 305 (37.8%) were women (Pollock, 2012b).

1873 – Canterbury University College the first college affiliated with University of New Zealand.

(Pollock, 2012b)

1878 – Canterbury University College’s School of Agriculture established (now called Lincoln University).

(Pollock, 2012b)

1883 – Auckland University College established.

(Pollock, 2012b)

1886 – Wellington School of Design established as New Zealand’s first technical school.

In 1878 Canterbury University College’s School of Agriculture was established (now called Lincoln University) and in 1886 the first technical school opened in Wellington called the Wellington School of Design (Pollock, 2012b). Other technical schools followed throughout New Zealand – ‘by 1904, 13,700 students were enrolled at technical classes in around 50 towns and cities’ (Pollock, 2012b). Technical schools

were administered by local education boards and provided trades training in the evenings aimed at those who had entered the workforce immediately after primary school (Pollock, 2012b).

1899 – Victoria University College established.

In 1870, the New Zealand University Act established the University of New Zealand (UNZ) and New Zealand's first tertiary institutions were university colleges that subsequently became affiliated with it (Pollock, 2012b). The first of these was Canterbury College in 1873, and then the independently founded University of Otago in 1874 (Pollock, 2012b). Auckland University College and Victoria University College followed in 1883 and 1899 respectively (Pollock, 2012b).

1899 – Scholarship Endowment Fund set up.

(McLintock, 2009c)

8.2 1900 – 1920

1904 – University Degrees Act 1904 passed.

The authority to confer vocational degrees was granted by the University Degrees Act 1904 (Archives New Zealand, 2009). The University of New Zealand (UNZ) was governed by a Senate and had responsibility for setting exams and granting degrees, whereas the colleges were responsible for teaching (Pollock, 2012b). University syllabuses closely followed the British model and, until 1939, exams were sent to the United Kingdom for marking to ensure high standards and fairness (Pollock, 2012b). Scholarships were also provided through a Scholarship Endowment Fund that was set up in 1899 (McLintock, 2009c).

Most students attended university on a part time basis, many of whom were training to be teachers. Entry into university was not restricted, provided prospective students could pass an entrance examination set by UNZ (Pollock, 2012b).

1907 – Starr Jordan Report published.

In 1907 Professor D. Starr Jordan of Leland Stanford Junior University produced the *Starr Jordan Report*, which recommended improvements to university courses, administration and the examination system (McLintock, 2009d). The *Starr Jordan Report* led to the creation of a University Reform Association in 1910, headed by a group of Victoria University College professors (Campbell, 1941, p. 162). The Association wanted a greater share of self-government for the colleges, more freedom for teachers, the abandonment of external examinations and better teaching conditions (Campbell, 1941, p. 162). The University Reform Association also asked for a Royal Commission into university affairs (Campbell, 1941, p. 162). At this time, all four universities worked to the same agreed syllabus for every subject taught (Beeby, 1992, p. 53).

1914 – New Zealand University Amendment Act 1914 passed. Board of Studies, National Research Scholarships and University Bursaries established.

The New Zealand University Amendment Act was passed in 1914 to strengthen the structure of the university system. The Board of Studies was established to make recommendations to the Senate regarding degrees, diplomas, scholarships, prizes, courses of study, and the appointment of examiners (New Zealand University Amendment Act 1914, No. 68, pp. 321–323). University National Scholarships were awarded to students of either sex who were under the age of 19, and the scholarship lasted three years (New Zealand University

Amendment Act 1914, No. 68, pp. 323–324). National Research Scholarships were awarded to university graduates, enabling them to carry on independent research in ‘any branch of physical, natural or applied science’ (New Zealand University Amendment Act 1914, No. 68, pp. 327–328). University Bursaries were also established to help students with their tuition fees (New Zealand University Amendment Act 1914, No. 68, p. 327).

8.3 1920 – 1940

1925 – Royal Commission into Universities established.

After petitions from the University Reform Association, a Royal Commission was set up in 1925 and led to further changes to New Zealand’s tertiary education system (McLintock, 2009e). The Commission centred on a specific issue – the reorganisation of the University of New Zealand (UNZ) into four independent universities (McLintock, 2009e). However, demand for independence was not unanimous – the University of Otago wanted reform but not the disestablishment of UNZ, while Auckland University College desired total autonomy (McLintock, 2009e). The Commission was persuaded against the dissolution of UNZ and establishment of four independent universities, and instead focused on the appointment of an academic head or principal of UNZ (McLintock, 2009e). By 1925, there were 3850 university students: 54% were part-time, 32% full-time and the remaining 14% were attending teachers’ college (Pollock, 2012b).

1926 – University Amendment Act 1926 passed. Academic Board set up.

The New Zealand University Amendment Act 1914 and the 1925 Royal Commission led to the New Zealand University Amendment Act 1926 (Archives New Zealand, 2009). The Act established the Academic Board (superseding the Board of Studies), which advised on courses of study and exams (McLintock, 2009f; Pollock, 2012b). Writing in 1941, university lecturer A. E. Campbell stated:

The struggle of the immediate future lies between those who want the University to conform closely to the British pattern and those who would let geography push it into a shape somewhat similar to that of the American state university (Campbell, 1941, p. 170).

Campbell explained that common ground between the parties included agreement that the number of full-time students should be increased, but that degrees and diplomas should not be devalued as a result. The broader debate centred on the role of the university in society, and the extent to which tertiary study should be the preserve of the elite few or broadened to include a wider range of talent (Campbell, 1941, pp. 170–171).

Campbell concluded by stating:

A democracy cannot rest satisfied so long as some children leave school for good at thirteen or fourteen and so long as the professions requiring prolonged full-time training at the university are largely recruited from a restricted social group that has no monopoly of talent (Campbell, 1941, p. 181).

1928 – Massey Agricultural College established in Palmerston North as a constituent college of the University of New Zealand.

(Massey University, 2016a)

1934 – New Zealand Council of Educational Research (NZCER) established.

The New Zealand Council of Educational Research (NZCER) was established in 1934 and became New Zealand's independent, statutory education, research and development organisation (NZCER, n.d.). NZCER continues to carry out research and provide information and advice, often in collaboration with public and private sector clients (NZCER, n.d.).

8.4 1940 – 1960

1946 – Technical Correspondence School established in Wellington (now called the Open Polytechnic).

(Pollock, 2012b)

1948 – Apprentices Act 1948 passed.

The 1940s were a period of importance for advanced vocational training. The Apprentices Act 1948 required apprentices to attend trade classes for the first time, asserting that training should be taught away from the workplace (Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004). With the establishment of the Technical Correspondence School in 1946 (which became the Open Polytechnic in 1990), students were no longer limited by geographic location and could undertake technical and vocational study towards apprenticeships (Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004).

1948 – University Grants Committee (UGC) established.

A University Grants Committee (UGC) was appointed by the University of New Zealand Senate in 1948 to negotiate with the first Labour Government over funding for universities based on student and staff numbers (McLintock, 2009g). There was concern at this time that staff salaries were not sufficiently high to attract 'men of good quality to the understaffed colleges' (McLintock, 2009g).

1949 – New Zealand Trades Certification Board established.

In 1949 the New Zealand Trades Certification Board was established to oversee the development of trade training in New Zealand, prescribe courses, set standards and conduct exams (Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004). The Board was a significant step, positioning New Zealand ahead of the United Kingdom for vocation-based training (Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004). In the 1950s, the majority of British apprentices became tradesmen on completion of their apprenticeship placement without sitting examinations for formal qualifications (Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004).

1955 – New Zealand Certificate in Engineering introduced.

The New Zealand Certificate in Engineering was introduced to provide a recognised qualification for technicians. This Certificate proved to be the significant shift that led to the establishment of a number of tertiary-level vocational education and training institutions in New Zealand (Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004). Although initially only a small number of full-time students took the Certificate courses, growth in numbers was steady (from 40 in 1955 to 1,120 in 1958) (Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004). Certificate courses were later established in trades such as building, architecture and land surveying (Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004).

1958 – Technicians Certification Authority of New Zealand established.

As the number of students studying for technical certificates increased, the Technicians Certification Authority of New Zealand was established to prescribe courses and syllabuses and to conduct national examinations (Abbott & Doucouliagos, 2004).

1959 – Report of the Committee on New Zealand Universities (Parry Report) published.

Discontent with the state of universities continued into the 1950s. The Committee on New Zealand Universities was set up in 1959 and produced *Report of the Committee of New Zealand Universities (Parry Report)* recommending that universities be granted full autonomy (Beeby, 1992, p. 191; McLintock, 2009h). The report drew attention to staff shortages, the inadequate state of university buildings and the shortage of graduates in a number of fields, including teaching (McLintock, 2009h; Picton, 1961, p. 24). The Committee heading the report argued that more ‘highly educated and imaginative,’ university-qualified citizens would be needed to advance New Zealand’s economic development (Picton, 1961, p. 23). The report recommended the dissolution of the UNZ and the reconstitution of UGC as a government-appointed committee, with more attention focused on research, especially in science and technology (McLintock, 2009h). The report also proposed collaboration with employers and the non-university sector, although this recommendation was disregarded (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, p. 34). The second Labour Government’s acceptance of a number of these recommendations from the *Parry Report* produced a ‘strong and flexible’ university system that could handle significant changes such as the rapid population growth of the 1960s and slower economic growth from the mid-1970s than anticipated (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, p. 34).

8.5 1960 – 1980

1960 – University Grants Committee (UGC) reconstituted as a government-appointed committee.

Based on the recommendation of the *Parry Report*, the second Labour Government reconstituted the University Grants Committee (UGC) as a government-appointed committee, alongside the Universities Entrance Board, a Curriculum Committee and, separately, a Scholarship Committee and a Research Committee (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, p. 34). The new UGC was tasked with managing universities’ accountability to government and introduced the equivalent full-time student (EFTS) as a metric used to allocate funding under a five-yearly system (Crawford, 2016, p. 2). The University Grants Committee also emphasised the importance of physically building the universities. As a result, the universities became major institutions in the mid-twentieth century, a complete contrast to the small colonial colleges of the early-twentieth century (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, p. 35).

1961 – University of New Zealand disestablished. Colleges established as independent universities.

The *Parry Report* in 1959 had recommended the dissolution of UNZ and in 1960 and 1961 the second National Government passed a series of Acts transferring power to the individual colleges and reforming them as universities (McLintock, 2009h; Pollock 2012b).

1964 – Massey University of Manawatu (now Massey University) and University of Waikato established as fully autonomous universities.

When the University of New Zealand was dissolved, Massey Agricultural College was renamed Massey College and associated with Victoria University (Massey University, 2016b). In 1963, the Massey College formed Massey University College of Manawatu when it amalgamated with Palmerston North University College and in 1964 it was granted full autonomy and renamed Massey University of Wellington (Massey University, 2016b; Massey University, 2016c). In 1966 the name was shortened again to Massey University and the University expanded with campuses in Wellington and Auckland through the 1990s (Massey University, 2016c; Massey University, 2016d).

The University of Waikato also opened in 1964 after several attempts by Hamilton locals to establish a university in their area, including the formation of the University of South Auckland Society (University of Waikato, n.d.).

Owing to high birth rates during the 1960s, as well as the first-generation of university entrants from families of post-war immigration, university rolls grew during the 1960s (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, pp. 37–38, 61). As a result, the share of government resources devoted to the tertiary sector had increased much faster than the rate of spending across other parts of the education sector (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, p. 37). Despite this, there was little in the way of curriculum innovation and research funding and university lecturers Butterworth and Tarling, claimed that ‘systematic knowledge in almost every area of society and sector of government activity was severely deficient’ (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, pp. 62–63).

1972 – Educational Priorities conference convened by the second National Government.

In 1972 the second National Government convened the Educational Priorities Conference and discussed topics including the integration of tertiary education. Concern over expenditure put the focus of the conference firmly on determining where funding would be most concentrated in the education sectors. Some of the debate centred on the possibility of a ‘user pays’ scheme, especially considering that a university education was seen to confer significant private benefit on the consumer of that education (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, p. 43). However, Prime Minister John Marshall drew on former Prime Minister Peter Fraser’s aims for education, stating:

As one who had neither money nor influence [...] I am grateful for the opportunities which were mine. I would want to see all young people have that kind of opportunity where the only limitation was their own capacity (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, p. 42).

University economist Albert Brownlie also recalled Fraser’s sentiments, asserting:

Superior skill or intelligence is undoubtedly more economically useful than the absence of it, but discriminating in favour of it by fiscal subsidisation will not necessarily produce a more democratic and poverty free or egalitarian society. A greater element of ‘user pay’ in educational finance would seem warranted, at least by the well to do for university education (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, pp. 42–43).

Open entry to universities would not be abandoned. Although the question was sometimes raised as to whether tertiary education was a suitable choice for some students, open entry to university was deeply entrenched in New Zealand’s egalitarian tradition and the voices of concerned economists were over-ruled (Butterworth & Tarling, 1994, p. 43).

8.6 1980 – 2000

1981 – First modern wānanga (Te Wānanga o Raukawa) established in Ōtaki.

Wānanga were established during the 1980s to provide post-school training for Māori. The first wānanga, Te Wānanga o Raukawa (also known as the ART Confederation, which had been active in educating Māori since the establishment of Ōtaki Māori College in conjunction with the Anglican church in the 1900s), was established in Ōtaki in 1981 and became an incorporated body in 1984 (Te Wānanga o Raukawa, 2014). Wānanga were fundamental to the advancement of Māori education. The establishment of wānanga was followed by the Māori Language Act 1987 which recognised te reo as an official New Zealand language.

The Act also set up the Māori Language Commission, to promote the use of Māori as a living language and as an everyday means of communication (Te Taura Whiri i Te Reo Māori, 2015). Wānanga were officially recognised as tertiary institutions after the Education Amendment Act 1990, marking the beginning of New Zealand's efforts to become officially a bicultural country (Pollock, 2012b). Te Wānanga o Aotearoa saw its student population grow from 3127 students in 2000 to 66,756 students in 2004, becoming the largest tertiary education institution in New Zealand (Te Wānanga o Aotearoa, 2015). Currently, around 60% of the students enrolled in wānanga are Māori and approximately 21% of Māori engaged in tertiary study are studying at a wānanga (NZPC, 2016, pp. 9, 41).

1988 – Report of the Working Group on Post Compulsory Education and Training (Hawke Report) published.

The fourth Labour Government commissioned the *Hawke Report*, also known as the *Report of the Working Group on Post Compulsory Education and Training*, in 1988. The working group that produced the report was convened by Professor Gary Hawke, Director of the Institute of Policy Studies, and was tasked with giving advice on the 'present and possible future role of tertiary education in the social and economic life of New Zealand', as well as providing a framework for policy action by the Government (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 20). The *Hawke Report* critically engaged with post-compulsory education and training, and encouraged lifelong learning (Middleton, 2013). The *Hawke Report* recommended increased autonomy for tertiary institutions, an expansion in funding and participation through government engagement, as well as higher tuition fees and a student loan scheme (Crawford, 2016, p. v).

The *Hawke Report's* most progressive recommendations focused on post-compulsory education; the report recommended the establishment of alternative educational pathways for young people after the end of compulsory schooling (15 years of age at the time) (Middleton, 2013). As a result, senior secondary schools were situated alongside other forms of post-compulsory education institutions such as polytechnics, universities and on-the-job training as key areas for educational reform (Middleton, 2013). The *Hawke Report* also spurred the development of a national qualifications framework, under the jurisdiction of a National Education Qualifications Agency (NZQA), which later emerged as the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) (Middleton, 2013).

1989 – Education Act 1989 passed. UGC and Department of Education abolished. Tertiary Education Commission (TEC), New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA), Education Council of Aotearoa New Zealand (EDUCANZ), Careers New Zealand and New Zealand Vice-Chancellors Committee (NZVCC) established.

The passing of the Education Act 1989 established the legal framework for New Zealand's entire education system (MoE, 2016b). The Act replaced the Department of Education with the Ministry of Education

and abolished the University Grants Committee (UGC), but set up the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC), New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA), Education Council of Aotearoa New Zealand (EDUCANZ), Careers New Zealand and New Zealand Vice-Chancellors Committee (NZVCC) (Crawford, 2016, p. 3; MoE, 2016b). The establishment of NZQA in particular was intended to bring the management of qualifications from various different sectors of education under one authority (Crawford, 2016, p. 7).

In 2015, the Ministry of Education consulted on updating the Education Act 1989, asking the public for ideas to help bring the Act up to date (MoE, 2016b). One of the most significant changes suggested is to make it clear in law that children and young people, and raising their achievement, are a priority (MoE, 2016c).

1990 – Education Amendment Act 1990 passed.

Debate in the 1990s focused on how to make a more competitive and successful education system. The Education Amendment Act 1990 implemented many of the recommendations made throughout the 1980s. The Act defined tertiary education institutions (TEIs) as universities, polytechnics, colleges of education, specialist colleges and wānanga, placing all tertiary education institutions on equal footing (Pollock, 2012b). The abolition of UGC in 1989 allowed the Act to grant government the ability to introduce bulk funding for all institutions (Pollock, 2012b). The Education Amendment Act 1990 also established a new source of revenue for the tertiary sector by increasing international students' fees (Pollock, 2012b).

1991–1992 – Limited funding made available to private training establishments (PTEs).

Under the Education Act 1989, private training establishments (PTEs) were defined as 'an establishment, other than [a public tertiary education] institution, that provides post-school education or vocational training' (MoE, 2006, p. 10). These included privately owned providers, and those operated by iwi, trusts and other organisations. PTEs were not funded on the same level as TEIs, but were given some limited funding by the fourth National Government between 1991 and 1992 (Crawford, 2016, p. 3). Although funding for PTEs continued to be an ongoing issue, they did gain equal funding with TEIs for qualifications at level 3 and above in 1998 and 1999 (Goedegebuure, Santiago, Fitznor, Bjørn & van der Steen, 2008, p. 105).

1991–1992 – Tertiary Review published by fourth National Government.

(McLaughlin, 2003, p. 22)

1992 – Student loan scheme introduced.

The balance between public and private tertiary education funding was a contentious issue when the fourth National Government announced their education policies in July 1991, at the start of the first reform period (1989–2000) (Crawford, 2016, pp. v, 3, 4; McLaughlin, 2003, p.22). The policies included points on institutions setting their own fees, funding based on the EFTS metric, allowances for students under the age of 25 based on parental income, and a student loan programme with income-contingent repayments through the tax system (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 22; Pollock, 2012b). Allowing educational institutions to set their own fees opened the tertiary education market to new private sector providers and the balance between public and private funding continues to be a subject of debate (Crawford, 2016, p. 13).

1992 – Education and Training Support Agency (later Skill New Zealand, now merged into the Tertiary Education Commission) established.

The Education and Training Support Agency (ETSA) was set up by the fourth National Government in 1992 to administer labour market and industry training arrangements, taking over roles previously undertaken by the Department of Labour (Long, Ryan, Burke & Hopkins, 2000, p. 4). ETSA became Skill New Zealand in 1998, and was then merged into the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) at the beginning of 2003 (Crawford, 2016, pp. 3–4; MoE, n.d., p. 4). When the Industry Training Act 1992 was passed, ETSA took over responsibility for funding industry-training organisations (ITOs) (MoE, n.d., p. 9). Numbers of both employers and employees engaged in training increased significantly over the next decade, as did the cost.

1994 – Todd Task Force Report published.

The *Todd Task Force Report* was published in 1994, and suggested that ‘all New Zealanders would require tertiary education and training in the 21st century’ (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 23). The *Report* recommended the expansion of Private Training Establishments (PTEs) through public funding; however, the taskforce was divided on the appropriate balance of public and private funding (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 23). The *Todd Task Force Report* resulted in private contributions increasing to an average of 25% of costs (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 23). In addition, involvement in tertiary education continued to grow as new programmes and institutions were added to the tertiary landscape and polytechnics created degree programmes (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 23).

1999 – Education Amendment Act 1999 passed.

The passing of the Education Amendment Act 1999 allowed funding in TEIs to become entirely demand-driven without funding caps, but also raised issues of the balance between quality and quantity. The Amendment Act also put PTEs on the same level as TEIs for funding of qualifications at level 3 and above.

Owing to increased funding from private contributors, coupled with a demand-driven system of public subsidies to institutions, participation in tertiary education in New Zealand increased during the late 1980s and 1990s (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 6). New Zealand shifted from having relatively inexpensive tertiary education and universal student allowances to a situation in the early 2000s where students were charged fees, allowances were increasingly targeted by income and the use of student loans had become the norm (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 6). Maureen McLaughlin argues that ‘government policy moved from subsidising a smaller number of students at a higher rate – often referred to as an elite system – to subsidising a larger number of students at a lower amount per student – often referred to as a mass system of tertiary education’ (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 6). As a result of demand-driven funding there was growth in lower level qualifications, which had low labour market returns, and was also destabilising to fiscal planning because loans were large and costs were difficult to control (Smyth, 2012).

8.7 2000 – 2020

2000 – Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (TEAC) established.

(Crawford, 2016, p. 4)

2002 – Limits placed on funding for private tertiary education providers. Centres of Research Excellence (COREs) established.

(Crawford, 2016, p. 4)

2002–2003 – Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) and Performance-Based Research Fund (PBRF) established by amendments to Education Act 1989.

The fifth Labour Government began using special-purpose funds to incentivise tertiary education institutions to align their work more closely with the Government's goals (Crawford, 2016, p. 8). While Professor Gary Hawke had recommended a separate fund for research in the 1988 *Hawke Report*, tertiary education institutions (TEIs) were expected to integrate research with teaching (Crawford, 2016, p. 9). The recommendations of Hawke and TEAC, an advisory body established in 2000, led to the establishment of a Performance-Based Research Fund (PBRF) and Centres of Research Excellence (CoREs) (Goedegebuure et al., 2008, p. 105).

Between 2002 and 2005, 'amendments to the Education Act 1989 gave effect to many of the TEAC proposals, including the creation of the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC)' (Crawford, 2016, p. 4). TEC integrated and expanded operations previously carried out by the Ministry of Education and Skill New Zealand and made provisions for fee stabilisation and control (Crawford, 2016, p. 4).

2002 – Tertiary Education Strategy 2002–2007 published by the fifth Labour Government.

In 2002, the fifth Labour Government published a *Tertiary Education Strategy* for 2002–2007 to ensure better alignment of the tertiary education sector with national priorities in return for funding (Crawford, 2016, p. 8). The statement of priorities included maintaining the competitive nature of the tertiary education system, but also shaping funding allocation with a more regulated approach (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 53). While the *Tertiary Education Strategy* was broad in its goals, several of its aims related to access and opportunity of education. Despite demands from universities for increased control, the strategies did not intend 'to reduce institutional autonomy' (Crawford, 2016, p. 8). Instead, the intention was 'to define broad directions that would "steer" the system and allowing [sic] self-government within those parameters' (Crawford, 2016, p. 8).

2006 – Future directions for tertiary funding announced by the fifth Labour Government.

High, unpredictable university costs and complex planning and funding systems characterised the tertiary education system leading up to the next phase of reform undertaken by the fifth Labour Government (Smyth, 2012).

In a 2006 release, Tertiary Education Minister Dr Michael Cullen announced the abandonment of demand-driven funding and a move away from the simplistic EFTS metric (Cullen, 2006). This highlighted an attempt to focus on outcomes and target funding into high-priority areas as decided by the Government (Cullen, 2006). It also announced the intentions of the Government to better define distinctive parts of the tertiary education sector in order to stop fragmented operations (Cullen, 2006).

2007 – Colleges of education merged with universities.

By the 1970s 'there were nine teachers' colleges in New Zealand: seven training primary teachers, one training secondary teachers, and one training both primary and secondary teachers' (Openshaw & Ball, 2006, p. 112). Before 2007, colleges of education, previously called teachers' colleges, were not required to amalgamate with a principal campus (although many of them had). 'By 2007, all colleges of education were merged into universities to strengthen links between research, pedagogy and practice' (Bushouse, 2008, p. 18). For example, The Dunedin College of Education (established 1876) merged with the University of Otago in January 2007 to form The University of Otago College of Education (University of Otago, n.d.).

2009–2010 – Youth Guarantee published by the fifth National Government.

In 2009 youth unemployment had increased, which ultimately led to a greater demand for tertiary education. Overall school achievement had also escalated, which intensified pressure on higher-level education enrolments. As a result, the fifth National Government invested in youth training and post-compulsory education, reviewing vocational and on-the-job training schemes.

Under the Youth Guarantee, between 2009 and 2010 the Government ‘consolidated and added to a number of sometimes long-standing programmes that aim[ed] to provide alternative vocational learning pathways for young people aged 16 to 19 years’ (Crawford, 2016, p. 10).

Two aspects of the Youth Guarantee initiative were:

Two years of fee free learning in tertiary institutions (polytechnics, PTEs and wānanga) for eligible students and eligible programmes of learning; [and] additional roll-driven operational funding for schools to enable their senior students to explore vocational pathways (i.e. Secondary Tertiary Alignment Resource) (Crawford, 2016, p. 10).

2009–2010 – Limits placed on access to student loans.

Between 2009 and 2010, limits such as an academic performance test were placed on access to student loans to focus the provision of loans on those more likely to succeed in, and gain value from, tertiary education (Crawford, 2016, p. 5).

2011 – Industry Training Act 1992 amended.

Between 2000 and 2010, an average of 53% of industry trainees and 36% of modern apprentices achieved no credits, although their training was government subsidised (MoE, n.d., p. 22). As a result, between 2011 and 2015, industry training was reviewed and the Industry Training Act 1992 was amended. The outcome of this review was the integration of modern apprenticeships into general apprenticeships as well as simplification of the role of ITOs and the exposure of them to the possibility of greater competition to provide government supported training in their industry (Crawford 2016, pp. 5, 10). A further review of some of the operational components of industry training took place in 2010 and, at the same time, NZQA led a targeted review of qualifications to simplify and combine a number of qualifications below degree level from around 4600 to approximately 1250 (Crawford, 2016, p. 10).

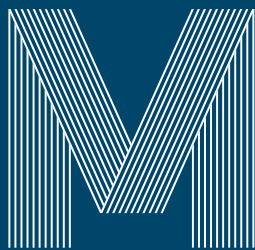
2013 – Youth Service established.

‘Complementing the Youth Guarantee, the [fifth National] Government established the Youth Service in 2013, administered by the Ministry of Social Development (MSD) through contracted providers’ (Crawford, 2016, p. 11). The Youth Guarantee replaced previous inconsistent initiatives and sought to engage, encourage and support 16 to 19-year-olds not in employment, education and training (known as NEETs) to undertake further study towards recognised qualifications (Crawford, 2016, p. 11).

2014 – Tertiary Education Strategy 2014–2019 published by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment.

In March 2014, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment published the *Tertiary Education Strategy 2014–2019*. The *Strategy* outlines six strategic priorities: delivering

skills for industry, getting at-risk young people into a career, boosting achievement of Māori and Pasifika, improving adult literacy and numeracy, strengthening research-based institutions and growing international linkages (MoE, 2014d, p. 1).



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