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***OMESUBEL A UREOR: WORKFORCE DEVELOPMENT
IN PALAU FROM PRE-CONTACT TO 1999***

by

PATRICK UBAL TELLEI

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

University of San Diego

May 2005

Dissertation Committee

Robert Donmoyer, Ph.D., Chair
Fred McFarlane, Ph.D., Member
Kenneth Galea'i, Ph.D., Member

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DISSERTATION ABSTRACT

After being a ward of many nations for over 250 years, the Republic of Palau gained its independence on October 1, 1994. One of the many challenges facing this young nation is the workforce preparation of its people to engage in nation building. After many years of being subjugated by foreign governments, the people have developed a taste of material consumerism. This has driven people away from their subsistence way of life in favor of a market driven economy which calls for infrastructure development that cannot be accomplished if there is a nonexistent skilled workforce to undertake this challenge. To better understand the workforce context in Palau, this study examines the history of workforce development from pre-contact and continuing under four administering governments (Spain, Germany, Japan, and the United States) until Palau's declaration of independence in 1994.

The primary method of inquiry is a historical review of existing documents. A supplementary method was studying transcribed interviews of other elders for the purpose of triangulating written historical records. The study specifically sought to answer the following questions:

1. What workforce development policies existed under each administering government?
2. Were there differences in the way these policies were developed across these administering governments?

3. Were goals and objectives clear and evident and was there an established way to determine whether goals were met?
4. How did workforce policies fit with the overall orientation of the governing group during a particular era?

The benefits of this historical study include the following: 1. It will enable Palauan leaders to have a historical context from which to propose and enact legislation and policies that are not only meaningful, but will bring rewards to the nation in terms of self-sufficiency. 2. It will add new dimensions and an indigenous perspective to the field of workforce development and vocational education in a particularly small and geographically isolated island community.

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I am grateful for the support I received from I am indebted to my parents Adelbairureor Ubal Tellei and Ebilrekungiil Basilia Rdiall Tellei; my daughters Diliaur Lenore Tellei and Elsei Diane Tellei and my son Rdiall Leslie Tellei for their encouragement and daily "Dad Work on Your Dissertation" reminder. My sister Lucinda Tellei Christison, her husband Dale Christison and my nephew Andrew opened their Santee home for me whenever I needed a place to stay in San Diego and I am grateful. My wife Virginia Ruth Crockett Tellei was most helpful; she took care of the household when I had to be in San Diego, Saipan and other places to attend classes, seminars and/or collect information. She was also a great editor and I am indebted to her.

Finally, I am grateful to the leadership of Palau for seeing fit to chart a course of self governance when it seemed unpopular at the time and the United States of America for bringing democracy to Palau and for being its most trusted friend.

If there are errors and mistakes I am solely responsible. *Alsekum eng morngii a cheleuid, ngdiak el meral tekoi, terached ma tellemall el tial babier a uchul malechub eng morngii a duubech el otuub ma dellikik ea blachel a kmal di melutk er ngak e merkong.*

Ngiratudong Patrick Ubal Tellei

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The Problem

Workforce development refers to all programs that prepare people for meaningful and gainful employment in the public and private sectors in any community, county, state, or country. Workforce development programs include vocational education, career and technical education, cooperative education, on-the-job training (OJT), and school-to-work (STW) programs. In the Republic of Palau, this career-oriented function of education is frowned upon by many people; as a result parents spend much of their time and resources sending their children to private and parochial schools so that they can go on to college, often in the United States and its territories (Hezel 1984). This appears to have led to a decline in the number of indigenous workers available for the labor pool.

There is no denying that Palau needs lawyers, doctors, teachers, scientists and other white-collar professionals; however, Palau, as a young republic, can no longer continue on this path. The increasing number of non-resident workers, both skilled and semi-skilled, is alarming, while the unemployment of indigenous people is on the rise (Davis and Hart, 2002, p. 262).

This nation must seek ways to prepare its young people so that they can participate in nation building, literally, from the ground up. Further reliance on non-resident and expatriate labor will lead to disintegration of the community and its identity,

a trend that is evident in Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands (Office of Insular Affairs Report on the Islands, 1999). The education and training role of schools in Palau must be examined so that appropriate policies can be adopted to help reverse this trend. One logical starting point for such an examination is a study of the policies employed in the past. Past policies frame and, to some extent, constrain current policy options.

Geographical Location

The Republic of Palau is an independent nation under a Compact of Free Association (COFA) with the United States of America. It is part of the Caroline Islands located in the western Pacific Ocean. Palau is comprised of more than two hundred islands forming an archipelago in the far western corner of the North Pacific Ocean. It lies between two (2) degrees and eight (8) degrees north latitude and 131 degrees and 135 degrees east longitude. Only nine (9) of the islands are inhabited. The nation is isolated from larger landmasses, the nearest being the Philippines (550 miles to the west), Papua New Guinea (410 miles to the south) and the Territory of Guam (813 miles to the northeast) (Appendix A).

The islands, which encompass 170.4 square miles of land, include four types of geological formations: volcanic; high limestone; low platform; and coral atoll.

Babeldaob is the largest island, occupying four-fifths of the total land area.

Ngerekebesang and Malakal Islands, both connected to Koror by causeways and bridges,

like a number of small neighboring islands in the northern half of the Palau reef, are of volcanic origin. The Rock Islands are of limestone formation. Peleliu and Angaur are low platform and reef islands. The Southwest islands of Sonsorol and Hatohobei are made up of reef coral flats resulting from geological uplift. Kayangel, located 28 degrees north of the northernmost part of Babeldaob Island, is a classic coral atoll.

Palau's climate is maritime tropical characterized by little seasonal and diurnal variation. The annual mean temperature is 82 degrees Fahrenheit, with an average daily temperature of 83 degrees Fahrenheit in the hottest months and 81 degrees Fahrenheit in the coolest months. Diurnal variation in temperature is about 0 degrees Fahrenheit. High rainfall occurs throughout the year. Heavy rainfall occurs from May to January. A slightly drier period extends from February to April. The short but torrential nature of the rainfall results in over 150 inches of precipitation annually. There is a relatively high humidity of 82 percent (Palau Community Action Agency, 1999).

Wild plant life is abundant throughout all the islands. In many places, islands are edged with dense mangrove swamps and forest. Food crops, especially fruit trees, are available in the wild, although cultivation has been practiced for the duration of the study period.

Marine life is abundant and varied with more than 1,500 different tropical fishes and 700 corals and anemones in the lagoons and reefs. Turtles and salt water crocodiles are also abundant, the later being found much closer to the mangrove swamps. Inshore

reef fishing is a major occupational and recreational activity for men as fresh fish are an indispensable part of the daily diet of the indigenous people.

Demography

Palauans have their own creation myths that are safeguarded and not very often shared with outsiders who in most cases are skeptical. That being the case, the demography being presented here is one that is acceptable to academia and scientific minds of the western world. The original settlers are assumed to have come to Palau as drift voyagers from the Asian land mass, possibly as early as 2,500 B.C. At the time of Captain Henry Wilson's shipwreck in 1783, Palau had a complex and highly organized social system with an extensive network of hamlets and an estimated population of between 40,000 and 50,000 persons. The advent of the Europeans led to a rapid decline of the population due to epidemics of contagious diseases brought by them and against which Palauans had no immunities. This rapid depopulation had a catastrophic effect on the social institutions, resulting in the abandonment of a number of hamlets and villages. By 1901, the German Administration estimated the population to be about 3,700 persons (Palau Office of Statistics, 2000).

The population that started to grow steadily in the twentieth century increased rapidly during the Japanese era due to the major immigration of Japanese. In the 1920's and 1930's the Japanese greatly outnumbered the indigenous Palauans. After World War II, all Japanese people were repatriated back to their homeland. Almost a decade after

the Second World War, in 1957, the population was 7,726 which increased rapidly to 11,365 in 1967 and 12,473 in 1973, after which a decline of the annual population growth rate occurred. A preliminary count on a census carried out in March 1986 shows that the current population of Palau was 13,772, reflecting an annual growth rate of 0.6 percent since 1973. This decline in the annual growth rate is attributed to the continuous stream of Palauan people leaving home to seek education and employment abroad, specifically in the United States and its territories (The Palau National Committee on Population and Children, 1998).

Two distinct languages are spoken in Palau, namely, Palauan (spoken by the majority of the people) and Sonsorolese-Hatohobeian (spoken in the southwest islands of Sonsorol and Hatohobei). Palauan and English are the official languages in Palau (Constitution of the Republic of Palau, 1979).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this historical study was to examine workforce development practiced under all administering governments and in the modern day Republic of Palau. The study defines and describes differences in workforce development policies under each administration, namely: Pre-Contact Palau Era (from about 1783 to 1885), Spanish Era (1885 to 1899), German Era (1899 to 1917), Japanese Era (1917 to 1945), United States of America Era (1945 to 1980), and the Republic of Palau Government Era (1981 to 1999) (see Appendix B).

Study Objectives

The objectives of this study were to (1) provide a clear picture of workforce development policies in Palau from pre-contact through various administering authorities, (2) review policies in the course of establishing programs, and (3) describe workforce development programs in the context of each historical period.

Importance of the Study

There are not enough studies done in the region, specifically Palau, that examine workforce development as an integral part of the education process and nation building. Palau, as a young republic, needs to venture on its own efforts as a sovereign state. In doing so, its leaders must be able to rely on appropriate studies to make informed and logical decisions so that meager and finite resources are not squandered on futile endeavors.

This study will provide potential benefits to Palau. These benefits and outcomes of a first such historical analysis of workforce development include the following: (1) enable lawmakers and other elected leaders to have a historical context from which to propose and enact legislation and develop policies that are not only meaningful, but will bring rewards to the nation in terms of self-sufficiency; (2) add new dimensions and an indigenous perspective to the field of workforce development and vocational education,

in particular in a small and geographically isolated island community; (3) provide a historical context for both the Board of Education (for the Palau Ministry of Education) and the Board of Trustees (Palau Community College) from which to make informed decisions relating to K-12 education and post-secondary schooling in Palau as critical programs of workforce development; (4) provide leaders with historical information on which to base their decisions when they consider a fundamental question of education being a “right” as opposed to it being a privilege (Republic of Palau, Palau National Code Annotated, Title 22 - Education, 1995).

Research Questions

1. What workforce development policies existed under each administering government?
2. Were there differences in the way policies were developed across these administering governments?
3. Were goals and objectives clear and evident and was there an established way to determine whether goals were met?
4. How did workforce policies fit in with the overall orientation of the governing group during a particular era?

Implications of the Study

Palau as a young nation is over-governed and underdeveloped. It is also a nation that is overeducated, but regrettably, under trained. The relevance of education has to be

questioned or needs to be asked. Hezel, one of the most noted social scholars in Micronesia, asks these questions: "Education for what? And for whom? (Hezel 1984, p. 1).

There is an increasing perception that Palau is being developed for others. During the Spanish Administration, the schools were geared for the Palauan people to learn Spanish so that they could understand the missionaries. During the German Administration, the curriculum in the schools emphasized teaching German to the elites within each community so that they could be used as a vehicle for their messages and edicts. The Japanese administration focused on teaching Japanese language and those subjects that would make Palauans useful for commerce, with the goal of production for export to Japan. The United States Administration introduced a concept of education for all and a service economy that requires skilled labor, which indigenous people tend to ignore. A concern is increasingly being voiced about the alarming increase of non-resident workers who are filling the employment gaps, a trend which is beginning to legitimize this perception of Palau being developed for outsiders (Hezel, 1984).

Limitations of the Study

During the course of this study, the following problems occurred.

Pre-Contact era. Virtually no written records exist with the exception of George Keates' account of the "Pelew" islands in 1788. A few other references are found on ships logs but are too sketchy to be relied upon.

The Spanish era (1885-1899). Most published and available documents relate to church history. Other documents have not been translated into either Palauan or English, making review and comparison both difficult and challenging.

The German era (1899-1914). A limited amount of documents are accessible locally and some have not been translated. The section on this era will be based mostly on what is available in the Palau Community College's Micronesia-Pacific Collection.

The Japanese era (1914-1945). There are numerous records, however, the challenge is to obtain translated documents. This is an ongoing process, but a bit slow. Perspectives are overly one-sided in favor of the Japanese government as an administering authority.

The United States era (1945-1980). The challenge facing the researcher was the sheer number of documents. Therefore, the challenge was to review only the most relevant historical records and materials.

The Republic of Palau era (1981-1999). There are minimal limitations in terms of availability of materials, although, formal studies and other evaluative materials are still written predominantly by non-indigenous writers through 1999.

Definition of Terms Used in the Study

Although different countries using the English language might define or explain them in different ways, as these terms appear in this study the following definitions will prevail.

Apprenticeship Training refers to training programs in recognized trades that combine classroom learning and full-time on-the-job training. Normally associated with organized unions and community colleges, the beginners are called apprentice while the program completers are referred to as journeyman (person). The length of training normally ranges from 4,000 to 5,000 hours or four years in length. Program completers usually receive a certificate sanctioned by the United States Department of Labor and the International Labour Organization (ILO), which certifies to any industries and nations that the holder of the certificate is qualified to perform such duties and therefore should be compensated accordingly. The current pay for a carpenter apprentice, for instance, ranges from a low of \$7.50 per hour in Guam to a high of \$35.00 per hour in Hawaii.

Career Education is a systematic, comprehensive to cohesive plan of learning organized so that all youths at all grade levels in public schools will have continuous and abundant learning opportunities to acquire useful information about all occupational clusters. This program gives young people an opportunity to select or at least identify a future “career” of choice.

Cooperative Education refers to programs that involve cooperation between the schools and participating non-school entities (Palau 2000 Task Force, 1994). The non-school entity is usually a business, another government office or agency and not-for-profit and non-profit organizations (or “NGO’s”, non-governmental organizations). Cooperative education programs are usually and traditionally reserved for high school seniors whose specific vocational or career training needs can no longer be accommodated by their school.

Economic Realities, as used in this study, refers to financial conditions of the islands inclusive of import/export information.

Education and Workforce Policies, as used in this study, refers to any aspect of rules, guidelines, statutes, and regulations that related directly to schooling and training.

Background describes the beginning of each administration. It answers the question: How did each government rise to obtain its right to administer the islands?

Leadership Structure, as used in this study, describes the leadership and governance structure of each administering authority and the reconstruction of Palauan *Klobak* (traditional leadership) during each succeeding government.

Mokko is a nickname given to the first and only vocational and apprenticeship-training center, *Mokko Totei Yojeijo*, established by the Japanese South Seas Government in Palau in 1926 (Yanaihara 1940).

Non-Resident and Expatriate Workers means non-resident workers who are not citizens of Palau and were brought to Palau to work under limited-term contracts. Non-Resident is used mostly to refer to workers who are not United States citizens, predominantly from the Philippines, Bangladesh, Indonesia, and China.

Overall Policy of Administration refers to the process in which each government rules and administers the islands as a mandate, protectorate, or strategic trust.

Pre-Contact in this study will refer to the time in Palau's history from the beginning of time until 1885. This means that the Account of Pelew Islands and Prince Lee Boo's trip to England in 1783 are included in pre-contact.

School-to-Work is a system of educational reform that has its roots in the U.S. School-To-Work Opportunities Act (STOWA) of 1994. This system has two distinct characteristics that are uniquely different from any previous school and workforce

reform. The major components are: School-Based Learning Activities and Connecting Activities. The system calls for an active participation of the business community in partnership with the schools and other educational enterprises. Examples of current efforts under STOWA are Career Academies, Schools Within Schools, Based Enterprises and Cooperative Education Programs with a more stringent set of parameters. San Diego Union-Tribune in its Sunday, July 5, 1998 edition, referred to one aspect of School-To-Work as "Schooled in Service".

Vocational Education refers to all programs that prepare young men and women in secondary and post-secondary schools for the purposes of preparing them for purposeful and gainful employment at both public and private sectors. For the purpose of this study, the definition covers the following: (1) Agricultural Education (including Plants and Animals), (2) Business Education (including Accounting, Computers and Office Procedures, (3) Health Occupations (Nursing, Laboratory Technician, EMS and EMT), (4) Home Economics Education (Food and Textiles), (5) Industrial Arts Education (Crafts, Carving, Cabinet Work), (6) Technology Education (Computer Repair, Small Engine and Appliance Repair), and (7) Trades and Industrial Education (Construction, Mechanical and Electrical Fields).

Vocational education is defined in this dissertation as a generic term that includes all public, private and parochial school curricula, both secondary and post-secondary, that

have as their goal the preparation of youths and adults for gainful and useful employment.

Workforce Development refers to any system that combines training and methodological programs both traditional and revolutionary, that promotes transfer of skills from one entity to the next with an ultimate goal of making the recipient qualified and skilled to engage in meaningful gainful employment (WIA 1998 and Palau 2000). The Manpower Development Training Act (MDTA), Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA), Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA), and Workforce Investment Act (WIA) are covered under this definition unless further defined during the course of this study.

Design of the Study

Each section covers a historical era which includes a format with the following elements: (1) Background, (2) Leadership Structure, (3) Educational and Workforce Development Systems (4) Contributions and (5) Summary. Source documents support each unit of analysis and the sections are arranged in chronological/historical era order.

Chapter 1 includes the introduction consisting of the question, geographical location, and demographics of the Republic of Palau. This chapter includes the purpose of the study, study objectives, importance of the study, research questions, limitations, definitions, implications of the study, and design of the study.

Chapter 2 contains the review of literature. This chapter reviews pertinent primary and secondary source materials including books, newspapers, journals, government documents, reports, private documents, unpublished manuscripts, theses and dissertations. These materials were perused for themes and subjects relating to workforce development policies and other significant information necessary for “telling the story.”

Chapter 3 details the methodology of this study. It includes an introduction, describes procedures for analyzing written documents, reviews the available resources, and discusses procedures for generating and analyzing interview data.

Chapter 4 investigates each historical era in chronological order: (1) Pre-Contact Palau to 1885. In this section, traditional Palau will be recreated so that a complete story can be told from the beginning. (2) The “Spanish Administration” from 1885 to 1899. This is followed by (3) the German Administration of Micronesia with emphasis on Palau from 1899 to 1914. (4) The next section reviews the events and policies under the Japanese Administration of Palau under the League of Nations. (5) The United States Administration from 1945 to 1980. The United States Administration will be reviewed under two separate timelines, namely the United States Navy and U.S. Department of the Interior administering Micronesia as a Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands under the auspices of the United Nations Trusteeship Council. (6) The last section of the historical review addresses the modern nation of the Republic of Palau. This is where the creation of the constitutional government will be studied including the “break away” from the rest

of the Trust Territory. This section also addresses the hardships Palau had to endure until its Declaration of Independence on October 1, 1994.

The final chapter, Chapter 5, is the summary, findings, discussion and conclusion of the research. This chapter contains recommendations to the leadership of Palau and at the same time proposes recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER 2

Review of Literature

Introduction

This chapter focuses on key documents in the history of Micronesia in general and the Republic of Palau in particular; and key documents in the history of workforce development and vocational education.

Because this is a historical study, this chapter is not like the literature review chapters in most dissertations. It does not describe in detail the content of the historical literature referenced in this chapter, since this is the essence of what will be done in the remainder of a dissertation. Rather it will simply list the literature to be used in making sense of the various historical periods and workforce policies operating during these periods and provide a rationale for why these sources should be used in this study.

Pre-Contact Era

Francis Hezel's First Taint of Civilization (1980) is the most informative written text on the pre-contact period as it uses primary source material to construct the picture of Palau as seen through the eyes of sea captains and other visitors. Visitors included people like Sir Francis Drake (1579), Captain Francisco de Padilla (1710), Captain Don Bernado (1712), and Captain Wilson of the East India Company (1783). This work covers the wreck of the American whaler, Mentor (1882), and other Western commercial trading visits such as visits by Andrew Cheyne (1863-1881), Edward Woodin (1861-1863),

Alfred Tetens (1862-1868) and David O'Keefe (1871-1875). The First Taint of Civilization further describes the acceptance by Pope Leo XII of the Spanish claim to Palau in 1885. Based on the narratives provided by different records kept by these sojourners and traders, this researcher began to recreate how Palau existed during that time. Another book which was useful in making sense of the pre-contact era will be Spoeher's Among the Savages of the South Seas-Memoirs of Micronesia, 1862-1868 (1958). This book contains entries from the log of sea captain Alfred Tetens, in which he shares his views and feelings about Micronesia and the Western Pacific. This memoir gives us a glimpse of that era through the eyes of a famed sea captain who traded, and, for a short time, lived with the people. This memoir is not extensive, but it is be important in terms of linking the pieces together about events and phenomenon occurring during the pre-contact period.

Another text, and probably the oldest surviving about pre-contact Palau, is George Keate's Account of the Pelew Islands (1788). In this account, George Keate is credited for being the first person to describe in writing the Palauan local customs, traditions and politics. This work was constructed from the journals of Captain Henry Wilson of Antelope, a ship belonging to the famed East India Company that was shipwrecked in Palau in 1783. The Englishmen were stranded in Ulong, an island belonging to the Koror Federation in Palau, for almost eight months. During that time, the Englishmen worked side by side with the indigenous people to build a new vessel for a voyage back to England. During their stay, marooned sojourners were allowed to participate in the daily

lives of the people. Their account provides the earliest glimpse of what Palau was almost 230 years ago.

John McCluer's Journal of a Voyage to the Pelew in the HC Snow Panther (1792) and Hockin's A Supplement to the Account of the Pelew Islands (1803) documents first hand information about Palau. These two authors kept a careful record of voyages that were sent by the Honourable East India Company. These two voyages were undertaken to inform Paramount *Chief Ibedul* that his son, *Prince Lee Boo*, and the first Palauan to travel abroad, had succumbed to smallpox and died. In these accounts, careful observation and records were kept. This was the beginning of a long relationship between the people of Palau and Her Majesty's People. Karen Nero's dissertation, *A Cherechar a Lokelii: Beads of History of Koror, Palau 1783-1983* (1989), looked at the political history of the island of Koror where the Englishmen were stranded and noted what has remained the same and what aspects of the culture has changed over 210 years after the fateful night on the reef. Nero's work is supported in part by Alkire's *An Introduction to the Peoples and Cultures of Micronesia* (1960). In a chapter devoted to Palau, Alkire identifies customs of the people and how their culture survived the test of time.

Douglas Osborne's *The Archeology of the Palau Islands: An Intensive Survey* (1966), provides the most complete discussion of archeological findings in Palau and, based on artifacts recovered, Palau's past was reconstructed at least through the eyes of archeologists Gumereman, Synder and Masse. *An Archeological Reconnaissance in the Palau Archipelago, Western Caroline Islands, Micronesia* (1981) supports Osborne in his

reconstruction of Palau's past using archeological evidence. Richard Parmetier's Sacred Remains: Myth, History and Polity in Belau (1987) uses folklore, myths and stories to create Palau's political history, and tells how each event is, in fact, a documented occurrence captured by many regional historians. D.R. Smith's Palauan Social Structure (1983) provides the researcher with an account of an area of Palau which has been largely untouched by contemporary civilization and, consequently, provides some sense of the way things might have been in pre-contact times.

Among the giants of Palau history and reconstruction of the past are German ethnographers who spent considerable time in Palau. Writings from the turn of the last century include Kubary's Die Palau-Inseln in der Sudsee (1873), Kramer's Ergebnisse der Sudsee Expedition (1917) and Semper's Die Palau-Inseln im Stillen Ozeanne (1873). These writings document every possible aspect of Palau's world before (and also during) the Spanish Administration of Palau. Kubary was so welcomed that he was bestowed the fifth title in *Melekeok* in Palau (*Sacheruliong*). By virtue of receiving this title, there is reason to believe that many of his writings represented the past accurately. Kubary documented the destruction of grand *Abais* (Traditional Meeting Places) in *Melekeok* (a Northern Confederation Under Paramount Chief Reklai) which were bombed out of existence during an intervillage war between Koror and Melekeok in which the British Navy sided with the Koror Confederation. Because these historical and ethnographic accounts by Kramer, Kubary and Semper were written in great detail, it was possible to construct glimpses of training, the community workforce and transfer of knowledge in the most traditional setting. Interviewing local elders, many of whom are familiar with

the traditional reality passed to them through the oral tradition, was used to triangulate these reconstructions written mostly by non-indigenous authors.

In order to understand land and water usage in Palau the researcher began with Mary McCutcheon's doctoral dissertation, Resource Exploitation and the Land Tenure and Sea in Palau (1981). In this study the author records in detail both traditional and contemporary issues related to ownership and usage of natural resources. R.E. Johannes's Words of the Lagoon: Fishing and Marine Lore in the Palau District of Micronesia (1981) describes beliefs associated with the use of ocean resources. These are a necessary part of this study because the ocean and land are *Olngetungel el Kall* (the reason for existence) in Palau.

Of the works authored by indigenous agencies and people, the most prominent is the Palau Community Action Agency's (PCAA) three-volume History of Palau (1974). In these volumes, the elders of Palau in 1970 were asked to reflect about pre-contact Palau with the hope that the tape recordings would assist the future generations of Palau to embark on writing their own histories. This history covers the origin, the lifestyle, the economics and the leadership of pre-contact Palau with a heavy emphasis on politics, competition and social structure. The Palau Society of Historians released the two volumes entitled Rechuodel (1996) (literally translated as Ancient Past). In this work the members of the historical society attempted to answer once and for all what Palau was like in the olden days with a major emphasis on cultural aspects that are still practiced.

The rationale was to create a body of knowledge so the neo-Palauans can understand their past before they venture into the future.

The importance of the work discussed in the previous paragraphs in understanding pre-contact Palau should not be underestimated. Neo-Palauans believe that they are the original inhabitants of Palau, the group of islands they call their home. This is best defined in the Constitution of the Republic of Palau, which states, “in exercising our inherent sovereignty, we the people of Palau, proclaim and reaffirm our immemorial right to be supreme in these islands of Palau, Our homeland” (Preamble-Palau Constitution, 1979). In the pre-contact era, prior to 1885, the most important information is what the indigenous people of Palau hold as part of their oral tradition. This history was passed from generation to generation through folklore and storytelling in formal and informal educational settings. Heine (1974), one of the few historians of Micronesia to actually come from the region, addresses the significance of this oral tradition as well as the problems with relying solely on written historical accounts:

One Micronesia I knew was the one conveyed to me through the oral tradition. Yet from the time I was taught to read, and especially during the last fifteen years, I came to discover, through a considerable amount of literature written by non-Micronesians, another Micronesia. And I came to realize that the Micronesia of the oral tradition and the Micronesia of the written literature are not the same and that, although the assessment of the “outside observer” was nice to have, most of the time it was not a true reflection of the real Micronesia I thought I knew (p. ix).

Charles Hubert's Essays on Palau (1976) is the first academic work about traditional life in Palau by an indigenous writer. The writer submitted this work as a partial fulfillment for a Masters Degree in divinity, which essentially cast the work as focusing on those aspects of religious life in Palau. A closer reading will show that this is not the case and in fact, as son of a local *shaman* studying to become an Evangelical preacher, Hubert did an astonishing job of depicting traditional life in Palau. This work is extremely important as he hails from a clan that was tasked with guarding sacred knowledge. This is the first time, in the researcher's opinion, that this knowledge had been written. The transfer of knowledge is especially critical to this study as "the door has been opened" and will allow this researcher to do likewise.

Spanish Era

Some of the work cited above covers the Spanish Administration of Palau, however, one of the most important documents is Francis Hezel's Winds of Change (1980). In this work Hezel details the first landing of Capuchin Missionaries and the establishment of the Catholic Mission in Palau. This, along with other church documents, is essential because Spain's presence in Palau was rather brief although they were in the Pacific region for over 300 years.

O.H.K. Spate's The Spanish Lake Volume I (1979) provides a comprehensive review of the Spanish Administration in the Pacific including Micronesia and Palau. This volume supplements other records to be selected and reviewed in the course of this study.

Hezel's History of the Catholic Church in the Western Caroline Islands (Yap and Palau) (1980), provides a glimpse of what Palau was like in the few years under the Spanish Administration. All past and contemporary writers of this era rely heavily on Catholic Church historical documents and this study did the same. During this era in Palau, Catholic Church history was synonymous with the Spanish Government history of Micronesia and specifically Yap and Palau. In addition to the written church documents, Kramer, Kubary and Semper were living in Palau at the time and therefore, their work, which was mentioned above, will be used to analyze and triangulate data from other source including church history.

German Era

In order to understand Germany's policies in the Pacific, the researcher began by reviewing A. Knoll and L. Gann's Germans in the Tropics: Essays on German Colonial History (1987). This edited work is a collection of different interpretations of Germany's history in the Pacific including Micronesia and Palau. It is important to understand that Germany had major economic interests in the greater Pacific of which Micronesia was a component.

A chapter in Palau Community Action Agency's (PCAA) History of Palau (1974) possibly best captured the history of German administration in Palau. The writing of this history involved the process of bringing to Palau for the first time translated copies of Kramer, Kubary and Semper who also wrote about their fatherland when Palau and the rest of Micronesia was sold to Germany by Spain for \$3 million dollars. Hezel's Catholic

Missions in the Caroline and Marshall Islands (1980), provides a description of the transition from the Spanish Administration to the new administering authorities and this is especially crucial as Spanish missionaries were allowed to remain and continue their work, thus continuing to document events as they unfolded during that time.

A number of secondary sources were useful in understanding the German era. Barnett's Palauan Society (1949), for example, provides an opportunity for the researchers as seen through the eyes of an American anthropologist who reviewed documents from past eras - including the German era – in order to construct what he believed then was the reality of a Palauan society. Roland Force's Leadership and Cultural Change in Palau (1960) looked at leadership and how it has changed under different administering authorities, including the Germans. In this dissertation, Force meticulously describes leadership in the 1960's and at the same time draws parallels from the experiences of Palauans who lived during other eras. Francis Hezel and Maria Teresa del Valle's Early European Contact with the Western Carolines (1972) further analyzes the role of the Spanish and German administration in Palau and Yap. Kramer's Ergebnisse der Sudsee Expedition (1917) and Kubary's Die Palau – Inseln in der Sudsee (1914) allow the historian the opportunity to see the German Administration through the eyes of German nationals who were in Palau, not necessarily supporting their government, but rather as representatives of a governing power at the time.

Adalbert Obak & Robert McKnight's Kedam: The Palauan Kite (1969), may first appear to be a tale of simply flying a kite, but in this work, historian McKnight and

traditional builder Obak use the Kedam (a traditional kite used for surveillance) as a metaphor for what was happening in Palau in terms of changes coming from various countries. *Kedam* symbolizes a vision of people flying over and observing what is happening to their land, customs, way of life and well being. The German administration being one of the sights.

Finally, numerous reports and studies are available for this era and were reviewed and analyzed in the course of the study. The most notable is the report concerning numerous public works projects (e.g., planting of coconuts, phosphate mining) and the banning of many traditional and cultural aspects of the Palauan social order. Quentin Robert's masters' thesis, Micronesia under the German Rule, 1885 – 1914 (1947) reviews the administration of Germany from an academic standpoint. It needs to be kept in mind that this study was done shortly after the war, which casts doubt as to whether it was written with objectivity. Brown's doctoral dissertation, Germany, Spain and the Caroline Islands, 1885 – 1899 (1976), provides another academic look at these two eras. This study validates many events raised in earlier studies focusing on both the Spanish and German administrations.

Japanese Era

The Japanese Administration of Palau is divided into three phases: the Military Government, followed by *Nany'o Cho* (South Seas Government), and the War Years. There are some documents covering all three phases of this era that have been translated

into English and, consequently, provides the researcher with an opportunity to recreate what it was like during the Japanese tenure in Palau. While not all documents were made available to the researcher and others were not translated prior to this study, the following literature serves as a basis for this study.

The biggest name and the most recently translated work is Hijikata's Life on Palau (1929) which was translated by Endo in 1997. This is the first of a series of works by this ethnographer who spent long periods of time living with the people and away from the often-repressive regime. He is credited with re-awakening the love of carving beams for *Abai*'s (Palauan histories are carved in the beams of community meeting halls, called *Abai*), which had been diminished during the German Administration. Jernigan's doctoral dissertation, Lochukle: A Palauan Art Tradition (1973) though not from the Japanese era, covers numerous efforts by Hijikata and his role of preserving the traditional house building and how these processes can help with the maintenance and preservation of Palauan artistic traditions, a form of workforce development that ironically had to be resurrected by non-indigenous people.

Miyatake's Mikroneshia Gunto Parao no Dozoku Shimago Tekisuto (1933) is a document that explains and justifies Japan's initial occupation of Palau and Micronesia before the islands became a formal Class "C" Mandate. Yanaihara's Pacific Islands Under Japanese Mandate (1939), is probably the most often quoted history of Micronesia and Palau under the Japanese Rule. Although Yanaihara's writing is too sympathetic to the Japanese Rule including the militarization, he did a fine job of recording events,

structures, and systems, including workforce development and training and economic development initiatives. Although he editorializes in his writing and this editorializing makes it seem as though he was conciliatory to the whims of government, he is nonetheless credited with writing what is considered, even by Palauan standards, a very accurate account of the Japanese era.

Although Japan and the United States were inching closer to World War II, the *Nany'o Cho* (South Sea Government) did allow two Americans to visit the League of Nations' mandated islands, and they wrote about their experiences. Price's Japan's Islands of Mystery (1944) provides a glimpse of what Palau appeared to be through the eyes of a non-Japanese in the mandated islands at the time. He was able to describe in his own words how the indigenous people lived their lives as well as the process by which the Japanese Government governed the islands. This view from non – Japanese lenses is further supported by Purcell's Japanese Expansion in the South Pacific (1967). In this dissertation he covered Japan's acquisition and eventual administration of the Class "C" mandate. He was able to provide an overview of the government, including migration policies, which made the Japanese population outnumber the indigenous people by almost a 10 to 1 margin.

The most noted educator in Micronesia, David Ramarui wrote an article entitled "Education in Micronesia: Past and Present" (1973), which provides an indigenous view of Japanese educational policies in Micronesia with emphasis on Palau. Ramarui, who is himself a Palauan and a graduate of the famed "*Mokko*" (Japanese Vocational School),

meticulously describes the educational system, why schools were segregated, how many people attended schools and the teaching styles.

Finally, no history of the Japanese administration is ever complete without references to Mark Peattie's Nanyo: Rise and Fall of the Japanese in Micronesia (1988). In this book, Peattie reviews the Japanese involvement in Micronesia and Palau even before it became a class "C" mandate of Japan. He points out the thoughts behind Japan's march to claim the islands and supports his thesis utilizing both Japanese and American documents (some of which were previously classified) in order to paint this picture.

From 1939 to 1945, Palau and its people were caught in the middle of a world war which was not of their choosing and making. Much is written that covers this period, however, these materials are predominantly of a military nature. In order to better understand this period of history, the following materials were analyzed in detail: Spector's Eagle Against the Sun (1985), Garland's Western Pacific Operations: History of U.S. Marine Corps Operations in World War II, Ross's Peleliu (Palau): Tragic Triumph (1991), Gailey's Peleliu (1983), Sledge's With the Old Breed at Peleliu and Okinawa (1981), Manchester's Goodbye Darkness: A Memoir of Pacific War (n.a.), Hallas' Devil's Anvil: The Assault on Peleliu (1994), and Palau Community Action Agency's three-volume History of Palau (1974). In addition to the written accounts of the war, the researcher endeavored to learn more from Palauan elders who lived through this "harshest" part of Palau's history.

American Era

Palau and Micronesia were liberated by the American Forces. Shortly after the various “D-Days” in the islands, the formal administration authority was given to the United States Navy. This early beginning is documented by Dorothy Richard’s two-volume United States Naval Administration of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands (1957). These volumes cover the early stages of the Naval Administration including the establishment of local government and what the US Naval personnel undertook to prepare the people to rebuild their lives after the war.

Palau eventually became a Strategic Trust under the United Nations. The document that best captures all maneuvering leading to this agreement is based on the United Nations Trusteeship Agreement Between the United Nations and the United States of America (1947). In this document, the responsibility of the United States Government is spelled out, including the right of the United States to close off Palau to the outside world and to develop the islands for its strategic purposes. Nevin’s American Touch in Micronesia: Story of Power, Money and Corruption of the Pacific Paradise (1977), Nufur’s Micronesia Under American Rule (1978) and Langester’s Political Development of Micronesia (1974) collectively, provide the best assessment of United States Administration of Palau and Micronesia. Policies are detailed in these works and provide the researcher with an opportunity to reconstruct the systems in place at the time in Palau.

Before Palau became a sovereign nation, it was heavily studied and a large body of information exists (predominantly by non-indigenous writers). John Useem's Report on Yap and Palau (1946) details the life of Palauans and how they as people were coping with their lives under a new administering authority, again, not of their own choosing. Vidich's Political Factionalism in Palau (1949) explains for the first time the often talked about, but never written about, factionalism in Palau. Vidich allows a non-indigenous people to better understand the ways in which Palauans view the world through competition. Vincent's Micronesia's Yesterday (1973) is nostalgic reading that brings the reader back to an ideal time in the region. Vincent's assumption is that if other powers didn't interfere with the Palauan people's affairs, they might and should be living "problem-free" lives that they choose to live. Douglas Oliver's Planning Micronesia's Future (1971) describes policy issues that the United States as the administering authority was either implementing or contemplating in the course of its administration of Micronesia and Palau.

One requirement under the trusteeship agreement is for the administering authority to develop the islands politically with the eventual goal of the indigenous people choosing through a plebiscite a future political status, either as self-governing or in association with any major power. Norman Meller's Congress of Micronesia (1965), provides the framework for better understanding this process. The creation of the Congress of Micronesia is the most significant political event because the future direction of these islands would be paved and molded by this Congress. In order to better understand the process from an indigenous perspective, Carl Heine's Micronesia at the

Crossroads (1974) provides a frank assessment and the thinking at the time. This is crucial, because, up to this point, non-indigenous writers and bureaucrats did all records and studies from the Trust Territory government. McHenry's Micronesia: Trust Betrayed (1975) is an assessment by an American writer in which the author questions the motives behind the policies of the administering authority.

At this juncture in the history of Palau, the most important undertaking was the process of separating Palau from the rest of the islands in the Trust Territory. Records of Palau's Future Political Status Commission (1978) were analyzed for this study. The Constitution of Palau (1979) provides the framework for the soon to be created constitutional government. This was the most crucial time in the history of Palau, simply because the framers of the Palau Constitution in their collective wisdom adopted the first-ever "Nuclear-Free Constitution" which set the stage for a bitter struggle between the United States and the people of Palau in their quest for self-governance and eventual independence.

Republic of Palau Era

Numerous literature exists that chronicles Palau's quest for self-government. Clark's Self-Determination and Free Association (1980) explains the struggle Palau had to endure and the maze of legislation Palauans had to overcome in order to create their self-government. This government had to be suitable to the people of Palau and acceptable for the United States Congress to approve, as required under the trusteeship agreement. Shuster's The Politics of Free Association and Politics of Violence (1988)

describes the path to self-government and describe in detail the violence associated with building the nation. In this work, the assassination of Palau's first president (the late Haruo I. Remeliik) is elaborated in greater detail than ever before. Hinck's The Republic of Palau and the United States: Self-Determination Becomes the Price of Free Association (1990) provides a framework for understanding Palau's quest for self-government from a legal standpoint.

Aldridge and Myer's Resisting the Serpent: Palau's Struggle for Self-Determination (1990) provides the historian with a different view of Palau's quest for self-government. This work chronicles the struggle, the hearings and the maneuvering on the part of Palau's elected government leaders against the efforts of the minority population. This was necessary to ensure that the Constitution of Palau be followed in the course of approving the Compact of Free Association between Palau and the United States Government. F. Kluge's Edge of Paradise (1990) is set after the suicide of the second President of Palau (the late Lazarus Salii). Kluge, who worked for the Trust Territory Government in the 1960's, made a return trip to visit Palau and in the process detailed the changes that have taken place since the time he worked for the Trust Territory Government. He was able to visit all the islands, from the Republic of the Marshall Islands to the Federated States of Micronesia and, eventually, Palau.

Richard Parmentier's Rhetoric of Free Association and Palau's Political Struggle (1991) once again details the struggle from the standpoint of an ethnographer who had returned to Palau to find out what was happening to the place he studied a decade earlier.

Roff's Overreaching in Paradise: U.S. Policy in Palau Since 1945 (1991) discusses what is perceived to be the "strong-arm tactics" of the United States Government in forcing a small developing nation to amend its duly written and approved constitution. She presents an argument that Palau had to amend its constitution in order for it to be compatible with United States policy of "neither confirming nor denying the presence of Nuclear and Biological Weapons on Fuel on U.S. Ships and Aircraft transiting through Palau."

A. Leibowitz's Embattled Island: Palau's Struggle for Independence (1996) reviews events from the beginning of the Political Status negotiation, the separation from the rest of Micronesia, the constitutional convention, the litigation relating to the Compact's approval process, the constitutional amendment process, the plebiscite, and eventually the independence on October 1, 1994. Finally, U.S. Presidential Proclamation 6726, signed by President William Jefferson Clinton, approving the Compact of Free Association of Palau, thus enabling Palau to declare its independence, was consulted. This document represents the pinnacle of the end of the struggle that cost the lives of the first two elected presidents of this young republic.

Mr. Haruo Remeliik, the first elected President of Palau, died one fateful night in front of his home after returning from a late night funeral wake, victim of an assassin's bullet. It is believed that this was a politically motivated assassination. Mr. Lazarus Salii, the second fully elected President and the architect of the Compact of Free Association, tried very hard to implement the Compact, which at the time had been

approved in six (6) national plebiscites. However, the Palau Constitution at the time required “nuclear and biological weapons or materials” to receive the approval of 75% of those voting in the referendum. President Salii tried many strong arm tactics and when it appeared that the U.S. Congress would not accept his certification of the approval of COFA, took his own life.

Workforce Development/Vocational Education

In order to write a history of workforce development and vocational education in Palau, it was necessary to look at literature on workforce development from the United State because this is where the unifying definition used in this study originates. There were two parts to the review. The first part dealt with a chronological development of all workforce and educational legislation, acts, statues and legislation in the United States. The second part was a brief bibliographic essay of the major selected literature to be used in the study.

Acts, Statutes and Legislation

This study of workforce development must start somewhere. In the planned study, every element of workforce development was analyzed under each era of Palau’s history. This section focuses on the workforce development in the United States, the model from which, Palau’s current system is modeled.

The first document relating to any formal system of workforce development is found in the Federal Land Grant College Act of 1862 which essentially made land available to the states for the creation of colleges for agriculture and mechanical arts. Following this land grant legislation was the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. This Act is the cornerstone of workforce development and vocational education. A close look at the Act itself provides the researcher with tools to understand this form of education at the junction in history.

Vocational education for veterans of World War I was funded by the United States Congress in 1918. The law establishing such funding allows us to understand the first increase of the number of trainees in vocational education.

In 1926, the American Vocational Association was founded. The history of this Association provides an avenue for understanding workforce development through an organizational lens. In 1936, the George-Deen Act was enacted. This Act provided funding for agriculture, home economics, trade and industrial education and marketing occupations. In 1938, the U.S. Congress passed the Fair Labor Standards Act, providing a minimum wage for the first time. Understanding this Act is significant, because it helped legitimate manual labor by ensuring that adequate wages would be paid. This fact helped legitimate workforce development and vocational education.

During World War II, US Congress passed the Vocational Educations for National Defense Act (1941) to help prepare industry workers. In 1944, President

Roosevelt signed the G.I. Bill of Rights providing veterans benefits so that many could go back to school to learn new skills. In 1946, the George-Barden Act replaced the George-Deen Act and authorized additional funds for increased development of vocational education. In 1954, *Brown vs. Board of Education* guaranteed that people of all color would be accorded the same rights when it comes to education and training. The Health Amendments Act of 1956 added practical nursing and health occupations to the list of vocational educational programs eligible to receive Federal funds.

In order to attack the discouraging problem of unemployment, U.S. Congress enacted the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. This program is the first of many opportunities that would be made available to the citizens of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. In what is considered by many as the *Magna Carta* for vocational education, the U.S. Congress passed the Vocational Education Act of 1963. This act provided the first opportunity for Trust Territory citizens to apply for U.S. Federal Grants as if they were a state. In 1964, The Civil Rights Act established the basic rights and responsibilities in the workplace and prohibited discrimination on the basis of race, gender, national origin, or handicap. These legislations are significant because Trust Territory citizens were made eligible for the funding and protected by its respective terms.

In 1976, the 50th anniversary of the American Vocational Association, the U.S. Congress approved major amendments to the Vocational Education Act which called for the National Assessment of Vocational Education (NAVE). These amendments led to

program improvements to promote sex equity in vocational education. In 1978, the Career Education Act was established, leading to a comprehensive career development concept which views individuals as progressing through planned experiences.

In 1983, a landmark report, A Nation at Risk, was released and painted a very dismal picture of the U.S. K-12 education system. The vocational education community responded by leasing a counter report called The Neglected Majority with a message that not everyone is destined to succeed with the sort of education envisioned by the Nation at Risk Report.

In 1984, the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Act, named after the late chairman of the House Education and Labor Committee, was signed by President Reagan. This Act called for modernizing career and technical education programs and improving access for all students. Under this Act, the Pacific jurisdictions (American Samoa, Guam, CNMI and the Freely Associated States) received one-half of one percent to fund the Pacific Vocational Education Improvement Project (PVEIP). These funds were to be channeled through the Pacific Resources for Education and Learning (PREL), an educational laboratory funded by the U.S. Department of Education.

In 1990, President Bush signed the Americans with Disabilities Act which bars discrimination against people with disabilities at work and in school. In this same year, the U.S. Congress reauthorized the Perkins Act. This Act substantially increased funds

for career and technical education and provided funding for the Tech-Prep Program for the first time. In 1994, President Clinton signed the School-to-Work Opportunities Act (STOWA) which provided start-up funds for initiatives that connect education and careers for all students. In 1998 President Clinton signed into law the reauthorization of the Higher Education Act. During the same year, President Clinton signed the Workforce Investment Act (WIA), making one-stop career centers the key vehicles for employment and training programs funded by the Department of Labor. In this same year, President Clinton signed the reauthorization of the Carl Perkins Act.

In 1998, the American Vocational Association changed its name to the Association for Career and Technical Education (ACTE). The stated reason for the name change was for the association to better reflect modern workforce programs in schools.

Workforce and Vocational Education Literature

To better understand workforce development and vocational education the researcher selected and analyzes the following materials in order to present a better picture of workforce development. Melvin Barlow's History of Vocational Education in the United States (1960) was reviewed for historical development up to 1960s. This was supplemented by Smith's A History of Vocational Education in California, 1900-1975 (1979). In this work Smith chronicles the development of vocational education in the State of California as well as the United States as a whole.

The history of vocational education in Palau was found in Yanaihara's Pacific Islands Under Japanese Mandate (1940). This work is extremely important and serves as a basis for understanding the Japanese colonial rule in Micronesia. It has a component dealing with education, including workforce development. Other important sources are Admiral Radford's Book of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands (1945) and Elizabeth Antilla's dissertation, A History of the people of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands and Their Education (1965). Admiral Radford's directive and Antilla's dissertation set the stage for education of the indigenous people immediately after World War II. James Musick's Status of Vocational Education in the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands (1974) provides a glimpse of the administering authorities' focus in the area of workforce development and vocational education. Peacock's dissertation, The Maze of Schools: Education in Micronesia, 1951-1964: The Gibson Years (1990) covers the general education development in the Trust Territory under the directorship of Dr. Robert Gibson. Jernigan's Lochukle: A Palauan Art Tradition (1972) provides the researcher with a body of knowledge related to constructing Abai's and other projects that involved the transfer of knowledge from one generation to the next.

The following Government of Palau documents were reviewed and analyzed to complete the picture of education in Palau including the following: 1. Title 22 Palau National Code [Education] (Republic of Palau, 1995), 2. Ministry of Education's Palau 2000 Education Master Plan, 3. Higher Education Act of 1993, 4. Palau Office of Planning and Statistic's Republic of Palau: First National Development Plan 1987-1991 (1987), 5. Palau Ministry of Resources and Development's Capital Improvement Project:

Continuous Funding Plan for Fiscal Years 1993-1996, and Economic Development Plan 1995-1999.

In addressing the inevitable marriage between education and democracy, the researcher relied on Dewey's Education and Democracy (1944). In this work, Dewey explains the role of educating a citizen in order to strengthen democracy. Prosser and Charles's Vocational Education in a Democracy (1925) was reviewed for the arguments they pose which many in vocational education circles believe led to the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act of 1917. Elli's doctoral dissertation, Democracy and Education: Is This Marriage on the Rocks? (1996) provides an overview of the relationship between democracy and education, and attempts to illustrate the dynamics of that relationship based upon early and contemporary interpretations. Palau Society of Historian's Rechuodel: Traditional Lifeways Long Ago In Palau, Volumes I and II, (1996) provides what the researcher assumes to be democratizing aspects of traditional training and education in Palau. Smith's Palauan Social Structure (1974) examines the democratic aspects of the division of labor within a small, but highly-ranked Palauan community. This essentially provides a response to Dewey's concern about the dilemma faced by planners when they need to deal with education and training.

In 1998 the Workforce Investment Act (WIA) was enacted to ensure that more students participate in educational activities to enhance their career and job prospects, and possibly enhance their post-secondary education prospects. This act superseded the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) that had been in existence for twelve years. Prior to

JTPA, the Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA) was the program developed to support the preparation of young people for employment. Wilkinson's History of State Supported Programs for Vocational Education in Rhode Island and Its Significance on Future Development (1982) provides an opportunity to review a state-level assessment so that uneven growth in different areas can be identified and rectified. Wentling and Waight's Initiatives that Assist and Barriers that Hinder the Successful Transition of Minority Youth into the Workplace (2000) provided an opportunity to study possible barriers, both real and imagined, so that a better picture of the current system can be ascertained. Harold Apps' Leadership for the Emerging Age: Transforming Practice in Adult and Continuing Education (1994) provided the researcher with an opportunity to address issues relating to adult workforce development.

Hernandez-Gantes' Voices of Diversity in Programs Linking Education and Work Briefs (1997) looked at student perspectives on programs, quality indicators for programs, building a school climate conducive to learning, grounding career development in authentic learning, connecting education and work through authentic learning and gender perspectives. These themes are all important for understanding the current state of workforce development in Palau and the United States. Creation of magnet schools attracted much attention in the 1990's in the United States. Heebner's The Impact of Career Magnet High Schools: Experimental and Qualitative Evidence (1996) provided an opportunity to evaluate this movement. Lambrecht, Moss Jr. and Finch's Importance of On-The-Job Experiences in Developing Leadership Capabilities (1997) provided insights into the motivation of individuals to learn, opportunities to gain new knowledge and

practice skills as well as insights through reflective actions during the course of placement. Scott and Bernhart's Pathways to Educational Attainment and Their Effect on Early Career Development (1999) is a case study of upward mobility of two people who entered the labor market from different workforce development programs. This study allowed the researcher to draw conclusions on short-term "master-apprentice" programs currently being practiced in Palau.

Bailey's Integrating Academic and Industry Skill Standards (1997) describes the process of making programs receptive to and compatible to skills needed by various industries. This is extremely important as there is an assertion that workforce development programs are training people with either obsolete skills or current know-how that unfortunately cannot be used or applied in the real world of work. Merritt's Making Sense of Industry-Based Skills Standards (1995) allows the researcher to review current and past efforts to link schooling more closely to the changing needs of the workplace. Stasz, Ramsey, Eden, Melamid, and Kaganoff's Workplace Skills in Practice: Case Studies of Technical Work (1996) looks at the problem of failing to teach generic skills that would help people in the workplace. It describes these generic skills as problem solving, decision-making, communication and teamwork required in the new workplace. The Secretaries Commission for Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) What Work Requires of Schools (1991) covers the much touted workplace know-how including all basic competencies such as: resources, interpersonal skills, information, systems and technology. It further states that the workplace will require the following

competencies; basic skills, thinking skills and personal qualities. This report provided much needed tools to analyze workforce development.

In terms of defining and redefining success in workforce development and vocational education the researcher begins with Hull and Parnell's Tech-Prep Associate Degree: A Win-Win Experience (1991). This work allowed the researcher to review the process of articulating programs so that students matriculate in a systematic way from high school to community college.

In Palau, the Articulation Agreement Between Palau High School and Palau Community College (1999) served as a basis for the study of this phenomenon. This portion of the research includedSizer's Horace's School: Redesigning the American High School (1992) and Stern's Combining School and Work: Options in High Schools and Two-Year Colleges (1991). Both of these works cover the same subject that seems to be paving the redirection of workforce development in the United States and Micronesia.

While specific vocational preparation is important to produce employable graduates in many fields, some educators indicate that the interdisciplinary orientation of graduate programs in liberal studies better prepares graduates to manage the complex problems of the modern world (Litrell 1995). Vocational educators will agree and in fact support the very essence of having well-prepared and well-rounded graduates.

Workforce development programs can no longer support the teaching of obsolete skills of the past. By understanding the past, programs must be designed to help any individual whereby he/she learns successfully to carry on any gainful occupation. Impactful workforce development programs make use of all changes in teaching that are on the cutting edge of school reform such as team teaching, cooperative learning, addressing multiple intelligences and authentic assessment (SCANS Report 1991).

Over 15 years have passed since the SCANS Report came out and we are beginning to see the result of its recommendations. The contemporary curriculum materials in the schools now include intentional connections with skills and competencies that the report required. These are foundation skills which include basic skills, thinking skills and personal qualities and competencies that call for working well with others as well as managing information and resources.

One staunch opponent of vocational and workforce development was John Dewey (1916), although there were times when he understood and in fact defended the vocational aspect of education. He stated:

“An occupation is the only thing which balances the distinctive capacity of an individual with his social service. To find out what one is fitted to do and to secure an opportunity to do it is the key to happiness. Nothing is more tragic than failure to discover one’s true business in life, or to find

that one has drifted or been forced by circumstance into an uncongenial calling” (p. 308).

Summary

This review of literature displays the wealth of materials used in this study. This is not an exhaustive listing of all pertinent materials; rather, the ones selected for review and the completion of the matrix are those that in the humble opinion of the researcher provide the most useful avenues through which to construct – or to be more accurate, to reconstruct and, to a certain extent, deconstruct – the history of workforce development in Palau. In some instances documents are not joined in an orderly way, which is the challenge facing this historical study, but it provided an avenue to review testimonies about past actuality. It is hoped, however, that in the process of conducting this study, most events, actions and policies of the past that were of significance and could be verified were recaptured and described for the reader.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Introduction

The primary method of inquiry was a historical review of existing documents. In historical research, the quest is for understanding the past. The truth about the past is the essence of history (Morrison 1951).

Historical inquiry is procedural and involves the claim of objectivity. It is not limited to the deductive methods and compilation of facts for it must authenticate data and justify explanations (Mink 1966, White 1984, and Polkinghorne 1988). This method is a systematic body of rules and procedures for collecting all possible witnesses of an historical era or historical event, for evaluating the testimony of the witnesses, for ordering the proven facts in their causal connections, and for presenting this ordered knowledge (Lucey 1958).

We know that many historical events are long past, but the witnesses of these events still speak to us through various forms of testimonies, direct and indirect, some deliberate, while others are not. The basis of this study was to review the testimonies of those who witnessed events as they unfolded, those who heard and wrote about them, and those who were required to write about them (Lucey 1958). The researcher reviewed these testimonies in the form of primary and secondary source materials that included but were not limited to books, magazines, newspapers, academic literatures, journal articles,

public and private studies, and government reports. These materials were analyzed and referenced to support inferences and conclusions developed in the study.

Procedures for Analyzing Written Documents

To analyze written documents a matrix was established whereby an event, policy or past actuality was selected and a heuristic process was used to validate what had been selected. Once the sources were located, the process of authenticity took place. For this research, if a finding came from materials listed as official documents and more than one report, writing or source made reference to it was deemed authentic, the finding was included in the report. Materials that looked good but did not have supporting sources (both written and/or oral) were not reported.

Procedures for analyzing written documents (including the transcribed oral histories that are discussed in the subsequent section) covered pre-contact Palau until it became the Republic of Palau. The study pieced together workforce development systems beginning with pre-contact and continuing through all administering authorities. The study attempted to determine whether workforce development policies adopted during each era were consistent – or possibly inconsistent – with the general patterns and purposes that characterized a particular period. The first step was to engage in a heuristic process (Lucey, 1958) of searching for relevant historical sources. In this study, “historical source” refers to anything that directly or indirectly tells something about past actuality, including existing artifacts. These may be any products of human activities,

which convey information about the lives of people, though the product may never have been intended to convey information to posterity.

Sources were identified and then the researcher began the process of making sense of their messages in relation to various events as they happened and were recorded. A review of United States literature became necessary since the current system of workforce development in Palau is modeled upon the U.S. system.

The researcher has developed the following format for this study so that materials were analyzed in a systematic format that included the following components: choosing an incident or policy, describing its context, identifying players and reviewing various accounts of events.

Resources

This study relied heavily on existing collections housed in the Micronesia-Pacific Collection Section at Palau Community College. The other materials were located at the Pacific Collection at the University of Hawaii at Manoa's Hamilton Library (where the researcher collected and copied his own copy of materials in 1987 to 1988) and Micronesian Seminar in Pohnpei (where the researcher has visited three times during the course of this study). Palau National Museum and the new Etpison Museum (privately owned) in Palau contained limited but rare materials that were consulted and reviewed.

Supplementing Written Documents by Analyzing Oral Historical Data

In most instances, written accounts that describe local and indigenous affairs were not of indigenous origins. Because Palauans guard their traditional knowledge and would not easily share it with sojourners, it is possible that what is written is not reflective of the whole truth or the actual reality of the past. The credibility of testimony, then derives from the competence of and veracity of the witness, and these two qualifications must not be taken for granted. A person's ability to observe must be established, the opportunity to observe verified, his honesty ascertained, and his testimony must be compared with that of other witnesses to discount the errors any one witness may make (1984, 75). To do all of the above, it became necessary to engage in an interview of elders from the community. Because of the researcher's professional role (as President of the college), it became apparent during initial interviews that subjects were telling the researcher what they felt he should hear. Furthermore, interviewees would make reference to written documents with statement like "you should check Hijikata – he wrote about this in his book", rather than critically assess such documents. As an alternative, the researcher decided to use recently written oral histories by indigenous writers to assist in telling the story. Most of the works were authored by either teachers in training while putting together teaching materials or members of the Society of Historians writing about Palauan Culture and Traditions. The researcher was able to find this transcribed interview data that provided an indigenous glimpse of the Japanese and the United States eras. Transcripts were found for interviews with people such as: David Ramarui, member of the Congress of Micronesia, one of the founder of the Progressive Party, first Palauan Director of the Trust Territory Department of Education; Joseph "Oikawa" Tellei, member of the Japanese Police Force, first Palauan to swim from the island to United

States Naval Ship Offshore to discuss the fate of Palauans and Founding member of the Palau Congress; Wilhelm Rengiil, graduate of the famed Wood Workers School (Mokko), Principal of Palau Intermediate School, Principal of Palau Vocational School, Assistant and then Director of Micronesian Occupational Center and President of Micronesian Occupational College; Ms. Mirair Tellei Polloi, daughter of a Paramount Chief and Eastern Babeldaob Reklai and wife of the Chief Ngirakebou of Ngchesar; Pastor and Mrs. Fey, founders of Emmaus High School for boys; and Fr. Felix K. Yaoch S.J, first Palauan Ordained Priest, Member of Congress and Palau Constitutional Convention. The goal of utilizing these data was to verify and provide an indigenous angle to the often-problematic written accounts relating to traditional workforce development systems during the Japanese and United States eras. As Hezel and Berg (1980) noted

History is never the story of the past. It is not a photograph, but a portrait of a long-dead subject painted from as many likenesses as the artist has the good fortune to find. What go under the name of history are in fact a personal reconstruction and a highly selective one at that! – Of what are judged to be the most significant events in former times. But the historian is of course, limited in his work by whatever written accounts and fragments of information happen to be available to him. This is an especially serious restriction in the case of Pacific Islanders, who have only begun to produce their own body of written literature in recent years (p. ii).

By supplementing written texts with existing transcribed interview data and written works about recent eras that are of indigenous origins, this study has employed richer data set from which to make sense of the past than was available from the review of written documents only. Another advantage of using transcribed interview and printed oral history data is that the study is likely to have credibility among Palauans. Palauans understandably are skeptical about written histories of their country. They see these histories as being written by the elite and therefore reflecting elitist perspectives. As if to add insult to injury, Palauan courts have recently made rulings in favor of those with written documents, much to the dismay of many people, people whose history and will had always passed from one generation to the next via an oral tradition. The process of utilizing multiple indigenous writings and oral history data was extremely helpful in identifying missing and inaccurate information about the past.

With transcribed interview and oral history data, of course, biases as a result of selective memory should be expected. Therefore a method must be developed to verify information and reduce to a minimum such biases. Vidich (1949) suggests that in order

to counteract this danger, certain procedures are necessary. Namely, the statements of any one individual should be checked for logical consistency both within the framework of his own statements and on the basis of other information and, secondly, similar questions should be asked of informants from differing social strata and localities and subsequently checked for similarities and differences" (p. 29).

The researcher was able to review and verify events and policies from as many sources as possible. One of the most notable events that all interviewers spoke of was the segregation of the schools during the Japanese era and the fact that only a select few were permitted to go beyond third grade. While some thought it was bad, there were those who felt that it was necessary for some of the young people to remain in the villages to carry on the functions of the society.

Finding and Analyzing Indigenous Writings and Transcribed Data

The researcher was able to find some transcription of interview data at the Micronesia Pacific Collection at Palau Community College. By reading the interviewee's responses to questions, and in many instances, coupled with their own writings, and records of other formal interviews, it became possible to notice agreements and disagreements as they differed from common historical sources.

On a different front, the staff for the Society of Historians worked with many of these elders who are guardians of Palauan history and traditions to document their knowledge and know-how so as to pass them to posterity. Their work resulted in the *Rechuodel 1: Traditional Culture and Lifeways Long Ago in Palau*. This became valuable as the researcher attempted to paint a picture of the past actuality in Palau based on written knowledge or collection of knowledge of those who are older who traditionally are accorded respect and deference (not necessarily agreement).

Conclusion

The stories we tell will never be a complete account of what happened in the past. Van Dalen (1973) states that results of historical studies are not always perfect and “the knowledge the historian produces is never a total account of past actuality, but rather an incompleting jigsaw puzzle of the surviving ‘bits and pieces’ of credible records concerning a unique event” (p. 290).

This study tells the story as accurately as possible for each given historical timeframe. In The Historian as Detective, Winks (1968) stated that a historian is like a detective, in that both have much in common when confronting the methods and dangers of dealing with evidence. Something will be missed in the process. This study may have missed some aspects of events. However, it is hoped that after reading the product of this work, the reader will be much closer to the truth, emphasis on closer to the truth, than ever before.

From a traditional and indigenous perspective, the researcher faced a dilemma of concluding a story of the pre-contact, Spanish and German era without a direct written indigenous account of the past actuality. When there was an absence of any records, accounts or observations (indigenous and otherwise), this researcher took on a position that oral tradition of the Palauan Society will constitute a reliable testimony of the past actuality. Furthermore, this past actuality may differ slightly within Palau, because the very essence of the traditional Palauan Oral Tradition holds that the truth be told to the level and stature of the audience.

CHAPTER 4

Omesubel a Ureor:

Workforce Development in Palau from Pre-Contact to 1999

Introduction

In order to provide a clear picture of workforce development policies in Palau from past to present, this chapter examines all such policies and programs established under each successive government, starting with the pre-contact era, which lasted until 1885. This was followed by the Spanish administration (1885-1899); the German era from 1889 to 1914; and Japanese dominion from 1914-1945. After World War II, the United States administered the islands as a United Nations Trust Territory until 1980. The Republic of Palau was established in 1981, and this era of independence is the last period covered, up to 1999.

Pre-Contact Era (to 1885)

Background

Before the establishment of the first colonial administration by Spain in 1885, Palau was an independent country. It was divided into two confederations, Koror and Melekeok (Artingall). Koror controlled the western coast and southern Palau under the leadership of the hereditary high chief titled Ibedul and Melekeok controlled the east coast under the leadership of the high chief titled Reklai.

Our knowledge of pre-1885 Palau is limited to the oral tradition and folklore that is told to this day. Prior to the Spanish era, the only extensive writing about Palau was the *Account of Pelew Islands* by George Keate in 1788. Based on the journals of Captain Henry Wilson and interviews with many involved in the last voyage of his English ship

Antelope, which was shipwrecked in Palau, Keate authored an account of Palauan society at that time. Palauans took care of Wilson and his crew until they could build a new ship to bring them home. In his book, Keate displays in great admiration the many capabilities of the Palauans, such as building neat stone paths, A-frame houses on elevated platforms, and impressive war canoes (Appendices C, D, and E). He commented,

The islands which I am about to describe were not discovered in consequence of any premeditated design; the India packet, which Captain Wilson commanded, being in a tempest wrecked on their coast; and it is solely to the benevolent character of their inhabitants, we owe the safe return of our countrymen, that composed the crew of the Antelope; - by the means of whom I am enabled to lay before the Public an account of this singular people...an *ornament* to human nature (1788, pages vii, xiii).

Leadership Structure

The leadership structure of Palau from pre-contact to 1885 was similar to the current traditional leadership of Palau, except at that time, this traditional structure was the sole government body (Appendix F). The leadership structure begins with the two confederations [Melekeok and Koror] and is further divided into districts as follows :

Koror Confederation

Koror

Ngeremlengui

Aimeliik

Ngatpang

Ngardmau

Peleliu

Angaur

Melekeok Confederation

Melekeok

Ngchesar

Ngiwal

Ngarard

Ngerchelong

Kayangel

Each district is led by a traditional high chief who is supported by ten chiefs hailing from the 10 ranking clans in the district. The district is composed of villages, each led by a chief supported by ten lesser chiefs from each village. The village is composed of clans that are led by a clan leader. The clan is comprised of up to ten families who are related by blood. Although this traditional system remains in place today, the elected leadership of Palau exercises a higher level of authority as stipulated under the nation's constitutional government and rule of law.

Educational and Workforce Development Systems

“School,” as we know it today, did not exist before the contact with Westerners, yet Palauans had their own means of transmitting cultural values and workforce development skills. Before venturing into a full description of the contact era, we must look at the traditional period to see which of the forms of training which constitute

today's workforce development actually existed. After all, Palau, like the rest of its South Pacific neighbors, always had a means of transferring skills from one generation to the other. Derrick (1952), writing about vocational education in the South Pacific, commented on the basic skills common to most Pacific islanders: "All of the Pacific Island peoples have, or have had, a long tradition of individual craftsmanship. Some of their most primitive implements were fashioned in a manner that might well bring shame to the modern workman." (p. 21).

Long before the coming of the Westerners, Palauans lived in a self-sustaining society. They had the skills and the means to sustain their life-style. In those days, men worked very hard to build residential homes and community houses (bai) which today still intrigue the modern Palauans as well as Western and Eastern scholars. Writing in the 1940's, Yanaihara was amazed at the skill and the knowledge exhibited by the islanders in building houses: "The genius of the Palau islanders who built such huge structures of wood and adorned them with remarkable pictorial decorations without the use of single metallic tool or nail is not inferior to any exhibited by other primitive people" (1940, p 240).

Yanaihara was not alone in his admiration of the skill exhibited by the people of the Palau islands. Concerning the painting on the bai of Palau, Yanaihara quoted Kramer as saying, "These pictorial stories are unique and in no other place in the world is a wooden building decorated with so many historical illustrations" (p. 240).

These are by no means the only skills exhibited by the Palauans at the time of contact with the West. Some of the other skills included (Palau Society of Historians, 1999, page 2):

1. collecting and boiling coconut sap to make syrup
2. making coconut oil
3. tobacco farming
4. construction of houses and canoes
5. making clay cooking utensils and oil lamps
6. planting and selling of taro
7. making (weaving) pandanus mats for burial purposes
8. selling tortoise shell and make the shell into *toluk* (women's money)
9. supplying fish and pigeons for feasts
10. carving wooden plates and containers
11. making mortar and pestle for pounding taro and crushing belelnut and women's mother of pearl taro cutters
12. making *chelbaki*, *uleld* and *miich* (sweets made from tapioca and nuts)
13. extracting oil from the parinarium nut
14. fishing for shark and stingray from outside the reef
15. hunting dugong to get the neck bone for bracelets
16. gathering and collecting medicinal herbs, leaves, and roots and treating wounds and other ailments
17. preparing love potions for men and women

18. making magic that would get people to divorce
19. preparing pandanus leaves for weaving
20. weaving canoe sails from pandanus leaves
21. preparing coconut husks to make twine for fish nets and ropes
22. grinding and extracting turmeric extract for ointment
23. selling logs

These skills were passed down from generation to generation, within the immediate family, the social group, and the community, by observation, participation, and apprenticeship. No matter how the skills were transmitted, all were regulated by tradition. The loss of each skill or area of expertise meant the loss of many aspects of Palauan existence, for each skill has a special spiritual connection. For instance, fishing is not just a matter of getting in the water via canoe or raft. There are ceremonies that accompany each type of fishing. There are spirits and gods of each type of fishing and there are spirits and gods of each sea. A fisherman must please these gods before he can start fishing. Therefore the loss of skills, or simply the failure to acquire them by the traditional method, meant a loss of culture. Ever since the contact with the West, many of the skills and the means of transferring them have declined as people began to look for substitutes. The toll taken by the loss of the indigenous workforce skills and crafts was best captured by Derrick (1962):

The effect of the introduction of Western goods and products was to deprecate or replace the local equivalents. Psychologically, this led to a

sense of inferiority and frustration; socially it robbed craftsmen who had held a high place in the community of their chief claim to distinction; technically it resulted in the decline or loss of basic skills when a generation grew up knowing little of the traditional crafts (p.21).

Workforce development in traditional Palauan society served a crucial purpose before it was invalidated by the coming of formal education. When formal education arrived, people felt that “modern was good.” Therefore they opted for the Western style of education and training. For instance, in 1783 Ibedul (Paramount High Chief) sent his son Lee Boo to England to learn new ways in the hope that, upon his return, he would help provide the Palauans with new skills. Unfortunately, Lee Boo died in England and never returned to his homeland (Peacock, 1987, p. 118).

The coming of the Westerners to Palau was an inevitable event in world history. Despite (or perhaps because of) this outside influence, it is imperative for the Palauan people to understand their own society in the past, present, and future. They used to be the key actors in the social process and must continue to play this part.

Contributions of the Pre-Contact Palauans

The contributions of the pre-1885 Palauans to the field of education in general and workforce development in particular are hard to put into writing due to the

differences in the educational systems. Nevertheless, pre-contact Palauans contributed the following:

- a. Community training. This consisted of young men and women participating in community projects, such as building clubhouses (for boys) and working in community taro patches (for girls).
- b. Father-son training. This involved sons learning trades from their fathers such as fish-trap weaving, bamboo raft construction, and canoe building.
- c. Mother-daughter training. This consisted of gardening, mat-making, basketry, pottery, salt-making, childcare, and medicine.
- d. Master-Apprentice training. In some instances, the father or mother would have to hire a master to teach their children because they did not possess a particular skill. Some of these specialized skills were sailing, carving and painting, housebuilding, and various fishing activities.

Summary

Before the Palauans came into contact with the West, they were practicing subsistence economy focusing on agriculture and fishing, with minimal hunting and gathering. The society was already organized and a means of transferring workforce development skills was in place. Skills were mostly passed on within the immediate family (e.g., father to son and mother to daughter) and the community houses where specialized men practiced their unique technical know-how. Many of these skills have

become obsolete due to lack of practice and advances in technology. An example of obsolescence is weaving sails, a tedious job that was quickly replaced with tarp and foreign clothing that immediately put an end to the craft. Some of the training methods are still in place, albeit in weak forms.

The Spanish Era (1885-1899)

Background

The Spanish administration of Palau began the foreign governance of the islands that continued until 1980. It all began with the discovery of the region by Ferdinand Magellan in 1521.

Spain's colonization efforts were concentrated in Guam and Saipan. It was not until 1885 that Spain's rule in the Western Carolines (Palau and Yap and their outer islands) actually began, and it ended just thirteen years later in 1899.

The limited impact of Spanish rule is described by the Office of the Chief of Naval Operations (1944):

In 1886, when Pope Leo XIII confirmed Spain's sovereignty over the Caroline Islands, he entrusted to Spanish Catholic missionaries of the Capuchin order the task of converting the natives to Christianity. On April

28 of that year two Capuchin fathers arrived at Palau and established a mission station there, and later in the year one father and six brothers began proselyting activities on Yap. By the end of the Spanish period the Capuchins had established four fathers, six brothers, and six churches on Yap, and two fathers, two brothers and two churches on Palau. No missions were opened on any of the other islands of the area.

The Capuchins worked hard, but with little real success. To be sure, with government support behind them, they were able to baptize 1,018 natives on Yap and to enroll 542 of their children in the church schools. Attendance at the church, however, was conspicuously small; the few who appeared did so for material reasons and were wont to explain their action by the common saying, "I go to deceive the padre." The school attendance was better, because parents were compelled, under pain of punishment, to send their children. In Palau there were only a handful of converts, and attendance at services was even more casual than on Yap (p. 30).

Most of Spain's efforts during her brief tenure were devoted to Christianization (Antilla, 1965, p. 113). Oliver (1951) sums up Spain's limited influence on Palau and Yap as follows:

Though Palau and Yap were tacitly under her sovereignty, Spain did nothing to civilize these islands after the failure of a Catholic mission there

in the early eighteenth century. Neither whalers nor Protestant missionaries penetrated that far, so that the only early contacts were with trades—British merchants of the East India Company...

After her sovereignty was confirmed in 1885, Spain made a few halfhearted attempts to keep order—meaning, to protect the lives and property of traders—but most of the traders were British or Japanese, with Germans playing secondary roles. The priests, of course, accompanied the Spanish garrisons, but few souls were saved. (p. 244).

Though the Spanish priests failed in their initial efforts to convert many of the Palauans to Catholicism, they planted the seeds of the new faith for the following colonial rulers to harvest.

Leadership Structure

The brief Spanish Administration of Palau (which lasted only fourteen years although the Spanish were present in the Pacific region for over 300 years), hardly made any changes to the traditional Palauan leadership structure that was in place at the time. The Spanish leadership style is best captured by Arthur J. Vidich writing in Political Factionalism in Palau: Its Rise and Development (1949): “Spain, during its administration of Palau, was represented exclusively by the priesthood of the Catholic Church. This is sufficient evidence to warrant characterizing the Spanish colonial period

as a missionary frontier” (p. 53). During a celebration of 100 years of Christianity in Palau, it became very clear that this was the case.

Educational and Workforce Development Systems in the Spanish Era

Although there was a significant emphasis placed on Christian missions and schools in some parts of the Marianas (i.e., Guam and Saipan), education in Palau during the Spanish period was limited to the few islands where missions were established (Smith, 1968, p. 107). Although it was limited, this did not alter the explicit aim of the Spanish Administration to convert the natives to the Catholic doctrine. Because of this goal, the educational system established by the Spanish included merely catechism and Bible study, the means by which they attempted to reorder the moral structure of Palauan life. Although the aim was specific, the means by which they sought to change the social structure had lasting effects on the traditional culture and well-being of the people.

Very little is written about any form of introduced workforce development or skill training, although Melekeok elders remember the priests teaching them how to use saws, chisels and nails in building the mission houses and the Melekeok Church (Mirair Polloi, personal communication, 1988). This cannot be classified as workforce development because the Palauans were only taught skills that benefited the missions and could not help them in their daily lives. They learned to trade for desirable items such as iron, weapons, and materials with native money. On the whole, the indigenous people learned little or nothing of the Europeans' religion, language or systematized education (Antilla, 1965, p. 186).

The Spanish missionaries did disrupt the local culture by interfering with the daily routine that was instrumental to the transfer of skills. With the help of the village chiefs, they discouraged the practice of young people going to the community houses (as it was practiced then, young unmarried males slept at these *Abai* or Community Centers), which resulted in the breakdown of knowledge transmission especially those skills that one had to learn away from home.

Contributions of the Spanish Administration

The Spanish contributions were restricted to the spread of Catholic doctrine. However, in the course of proselytizing, they introduced the following:

- a. Written language and the book. They taught Palauans to read the Bible and other religious texts.
- b. Formal schooling. They introduced formal school for the first time, mainly to teach catechism and other religious doctrines.
- c. Metal tools and materials, i.e., saws, nails and gardening tools. These were used in building and maintaining the missions.
- d. New plants and forms of agriculture. The priests introduced cassava and sugar cane cultivation, crops which are still being cultivated today, with cassava serving as an essential staple crop.

Summary

The Spanish administration lasted only fourteen years and its contributions were remarkably less than the succeeding German administration. They did contribute to the spread of Catholicism, which is still prevalent today, with about 50% of the Palauan population professing the Catholic faith. On the whole, however, the Spanish left very little impression on Palau, especially in terms of workforce development. They had considerable influence elsewhere in Micronesia (specifically Guam and Saipan), but Palau was left rather untouched until the coming of the Germans.

The German Era (1899-1914)

Background

By 1898, world tensions were rising as Spain's dominance was questioned and challenged by other major powers in various parts of the globe. Spain's influence over Palau and the rest of Micronesia was abruptly severed by events in the Western Hemisphere. The fall of the Spanish empire and the rise of the German administration of Palau and Micronesia were precipitated by the Spanish-American War:

War between Spain and the United States was sparked on 15 February 1898, when the American warship *Maine* blew up in the port of Havana, Cuba under controversial circumstances. Aware of her military weakness,

Spain made efforts to get mediation, but her efforts were in vain. War was declared. Sea battles that destroyed the Spanish fleet were fought in the Far East in May and in the Caribbean in July. At the end of July the Spanish sued for peace.

The Agreement of 9 August 1898 stipulated that the Spanish end their colonial rule in the New World. In the Treaty of Paris of 10 December 1898, Spain renounced her rights to Cuba and Puerto Rico; the Philippines, the Sulus, and Guam were sold to the United States for \$20,000,000. The Caroline and Marshall Islands were sold to Germany in 1899 for 18,000,000 Marks or \$4,500,000 (Palau Community Action Agency, 1974, p. 192).

Having spent only \$4.5 million dollars, Germany earned the legitimate right to rule, control and administer Palau and the rest of Micronesia. Germany's occupation of these islands was nearly as brief as Spain's since it was terminated at the beginning of World War I in 1914.

A better understanding of the German era is captured by Vidich (1949):

The character of the German colonial period stands in sharp contrast to the Spanish period in many ways. Western civilization, as presented by the Germans, was represented by the German businessman (trader), the bureaucratic official and the German Catholic priests. This broader representation is a direct reflection of

the difference between Spanish and German policy. In this period (the early 1900s), Germany was expanding its imperial frontiers under Bismarck and Kaiser Wilhelm. The explicit aim of this colonial policy, as reflected in Palau, was the development and exploitation of the economic potential of the Islands for consumption demands in the “homeland”. This required, first and foremost, the hard-headed businessman who could not only visualize the possibilities of exploiting indigenous products, but also expand and extend the productive potential. Thus it occurred that trochus gathering was commercialized, phosphate mining on Angaur was developed, and tapioca and the coconut palm were introduced.

To implement this policy required, however, more than traders alone. As in all colonial situations of this type, the governmental official became a logical necessity. This was because the circumstances demanded a central authority for the maintenance of law and order and for the regulation of native affairs in such a way so as not to impede colonial policy. The establishment of a central authority for Micronesia by the Germans was consummated almost immediately upon their arrival. From 1900 to 1905 this government was located on Yap and from this vantage point officials made occasional visits to Palau where they had set up a local government headed by the half-blood native, James Gibbons, son of the Jamaican-English immigrant, William Gibbons. Until 1905 James Gibbons occupied a status known as Governor of Palau – a new and revolutionary change insofar as the indigenous political structure was concerned (p. 57).

The Germans essentially "hit the ground running". They made good contacts and were well on their way to implement their policies. It is clear that the character of German Administration was very different from its predecessor, Spain. While the former focused on missionary work, the later directed all its efforts toward economic development.

Leadership Structure

When the Germans arrived, they immediately established a centralized authority and leadership structure in Yap to oversee the protectorate that included Palau and the rest of Micronesia (see Appendix F). The reason for this was that an increasing number of traders were plying the seas around the Micronesian region and it became necessary for the purpose of maintaining law and order.

Prior to the installation of their own resident Governor in Palau, the Germans recognized Mr. James Gibbons as the Governor of Palau. This meant that for the first time in history, the two paramount high chiefs of Palau, *Ibedul* of Koror and *Reklai* of Melekeok, were forced to deal with a leadership structure whose power exceeded their own. When they protested, they were threatened with removal, and fearing for further deterioration of their status, they went along with German policies. This was a historical milestone because from that day forth, the chiefs lost much of their influence for good.

Educational and Workforce Development Systems in the German Era

Despite their short reign, which was dominated by economic and commercial motives, the Germans made a considerable contribution to the educational environment of the Palauans. The philosophy behind most educational contributions could be summed up in a few words: the minimal investment to bring about the greatest profit to the fatherland (Smith, 1952, p. 121).

When the Germans took over the administration of Palau in 1899, the Spanish priests were replaced with German Capuchins. The government required that the German language be used in both religion and instruction. Prior to 1906, educational efforts were basically left to the missionaries. My late grandmother, Mirair Tellei Polloi, vividly recalled her days at the mission school in Ngerbodel, Melekeok.

We were very young at the time, but we were required to go to the mission school every day. We spent most of the time in catechism classes and a lot of gardening work. We were taught for hours; we practiced German hymns and patriotic songs. At times the nuns would give us cloth and teach us to sew and mend clothes for ourselves. You see, we were not allowed in the mission grounds in our native dress (M. Tellei Polloi, personal communication, July 9, 1985).

If the few missionaries and priests wished to instruct the “natives” in the Christian faith or a few basic elements of secular education, instruction which, at best, was rudimentary, the German authorities neither approved nor disapproved (Antilla, 1965, p.146). By 1906 the only two mission schools run solely by the German Capuchins were located in Melekeok and Koror. The German government made major contributions by aiding the establishment of church school run by the Capuchins, but they made very little effort to provide public education. According to Antilla (1965), school in Palau during the German administration emphasized German language, carpentry and agriculture. It is not clear to what extent the carpentry and agriculture programs were carried out, but oral accounts by Palauan elders stipulate that such training was mainly done to ensure sufficient personnel to help the missionaries (P. Tellei, personal communication with Palau Society of Historians, 2001).

The Germans established a school for police in 1902. Its curriculum consisted of the German language, reading, writing and arithmetic (Palau Community Action Agency, 1974, p. 150). The main purpose of establishing this school was to train more manpower to enforce the German administration’s policies. Shuster (1982) felt that the German aims of economic colonization and social control led them to establish the school (p. 61). Graduates of the German school for police were used extensively to punish those who did not conform to the German demands. They also helped the Germans to ostracize non-conforming chiefs by seeing to it that the general public did not listen to them.

Though their tenure in the islands lasted only fifteen years, the Germans, nevertheless, left their impression on the education system in Palau. Their specific contributions were outlined by Smith in 1968:

- a. They made noteworthy progress in the Western Carolines (Palau and Yap) by reducing the Palauan language to written form.
- b. School was made compulsory for those between the ages of seven and thirteen.
- c. The German missionaries taught the islanders the alphabet and to read and write the language of the country from which the missionaries came.
- d. Missionary efforts in education expanded, with over one hundred schools throughout Micronesia at the close of the German period.

These accomplishments did not necessarily affect workforce development, but they did make it possible for the Palauans to better understand a formal educational system, which they had seen on a limited basis for the first time under the Spanish rule. Making school compulsory was contrary to the basic tenets of the Palauan way of skill training. Today, however, it has proven fruitful as Palauans are acknowledged as leaders in education for Micronesia. The contributions of the Germans left indelible impressions that are evident to this day. According to Antilla (1965), some seventy years ago Arthur Vidich noted these changes at the end of the German administration:

- a. Palauans valued education highly (including workforce development).

- b. Palauan valued foreign goods greatly.
- c. A factional movement with an ideology based on a “better” Palau in the future developed (Vidich cited in Antilla, 1965, p. 146).

Despite the industrious attributes seen in Palauans by many early writers, the German government always felt that the Palauans were lazy. Therefore, they could not be relied upon to carry out simple tasks, let alone be trained to do skillful work needed for economic development. The Germans are remembered best in Palau as a group determined to coerce Palauans to work against their will. Many Palauans were willing to be trained for work, but at their own pace. The Germans could not accept this attitude. Despite the German claims of Palauans being lazy and unreliable, the noted German ethnographer and anthropologist Kramer had a different view:

We cannot deny that they have moments of bravery, but persistence is not their strong point. And that is why the Palau Natives are often called lazy. The cause is the one that affects so many other ... peoples: there are favorable living conditions, a small population and a warm and pleasant climate. But it seems unfair to call the Palau islanders lazy when they have such fine houses, and such long and broad stone roads. On the other hand we must admit that unless the chiefs charge the men's clubs with certain tasks, the native will let the ants devour the woods in the house until they crumble and they will let the road fall into disrepair. Not a single person will work unless he is paid. That is custom. But if the native starts a job

he generally works industriously and carefully ... Think of the women toiling in the fields, you can not say that such are lazy people (Kramer Vol. II, cited in Palau Community Action Agency, 1974, p.241)

Though this is not an entirely accurate description of the Palauans, it comes close to how they saw themselves. In Ponape (Pohnpei), the people took up arms against the Germans. In Palau, they simply made what we would consider a “silent” protest in today’s world.

Contributions of the German Era

In their fifteen-year tenure in Palau, the Germans left the following marks on educational and workforce development:

- a. They reduced the Palauan language to written form. They translated the Bible and other texts into Palauan.
- b. They made school compulsory. All children between the ages of seven and thirteen were required to attend the mission schools.
- c. They taught the alphabet. In these schools, they taught the Palauans to read and write in both Palauan and German.
- d. They established the police training school to train local people to help in police work in areas such as labor recruitment and enforcement.

Summary

The Germans came to Palau after purchasing it and the rest of Micronesia from Spain in 1899. They established a leadership and governance structure that would change the traditional hierarchy for good. They accelerated the development of schools to educate the majority of the Palauan children. They developed a strong economy, sometimes with the aid of forced labor. They established the first vocational education in the form of police training.

At the peak of the German economic exploitation, another problem of great magnitude was boiling on the other side of the globe, which eventually led to the downfall of the German empire and their departure from Palau and Micronesia. Germany became involved in the First World War and could not hold on to its Pacific Island Territories. This war paved the way for the Japanese to take over the Germans' possessions in 1914.

The Japanese Era (1914 – 1944)

Background

Palauan elders sometimes reminisce about how the Japanese took over the control of Palau from the Germans. Their memories of the coming of the Japanese are reinforced by many existing historical documents. With the advent of World War I in Europe, Japan

seized the Micronesian Islands late in 1914 with no resistance from the Germans or the native inhabitants (Shuster, 1982, p. 153). Although the Japanese occupation of Micronesia and Palau began in 1914, it was not until 1919 that their claim to the islands was legitimized by the Versailles Peace Conference. As a participant of the war on the Allied side, Japan claimed the islands outright. However, due to a strong objection by the United States government, the Japanese were forced to accept the islands as a Class "C" Mandate, instead of annexing them (Smith, 1974, p. 124). The mandate system, which was established under Article 22 of the Covenant of the League of Nations, applied to all territories detached from the enemy states as a result of World War I (Musick, 1974, p. 174).

Palau and the rest of Micronesia was administered by the Japanese authorities under the command of naval detachments. This arrangement came to an end in 1922 when the Japanese government withdrew all the naval forces and replaced them with the South Seas Bureau under the direct control of the prime minister of Japan (Smith, 1974, p. 124). Contrary to common belief, the Japanese administration of Palau was not civilian in the beginning, nor when World War II ended in 1945. Nevertheless, the Japanese left their mark on education in Palau and the rest of Micronesia after over 30 years' administrative tenure. It should also be noted that the Japanese chose Palau to be the headquarters of their South Seas Empire, which probably explains why Palau was the most developed among all the mandated Caroline Islands. Koror, where the physical capital of the South Seas Government was located, was so well developed that at one

point it resembled a small Japanese city in its urban character. Kahn described Koror at that time as a

stylish metropolis with ... factories that manufactured soy sauce, beer and fireworks. The city had public baths, laundries, dress makers, tailors, masseurs, barbershops, butcher shops and drug stores. There were forty-one ice dealers, seventy-seven geisha girls, one fortune teller, and fifty-five restaurants – thirteen of them first class (Kahn, 1966, p. 4).

One can see that Koror, prior to World War II, had become what the Japanese planners wanted it to be, a miniature Tokyo in the middle of the Pacific Ocean. Undoubtedly, the Japanese did more than just the develop the physical and economic infrastructure of the island.

Leadership Structure

The Japanese Administration of Palau has been divided into three phases: (1) the Naval period from 1914 to 1922; (2) the period of the South Seas Bureau (SSB) from 1923 to 1936; and (3) the Asiatic war period from 1937 to 1944. During the mid-thirties the South Seas Bureau began to relinquish much of its authority to the Japanese Military (see Appendix F for an actual listing of Japanese administrators). The initial phase of the Japanese leadership in Palau was a direct rule by force. While the traditional leadership remained intact, only those who subscribed to the Japanese policies were consulted for

advice. Those who were perceived to be anti-Japanese were either ignored or replaced in their traditional roles by sympathetic members of the family and/or clan.

In contrast to the period of Naval Rule, South Seas Bureau (SSB) leaders began to integrate roles that locals could and would play in the community (Appendix G). Young men and women's groups were established. Traditional chiefs were recognized and even provided with cultural tours of Japan. Some of the chiefs were so inspired with what they saw, that upon their return they began to develop their villages to mirror similar-sized ones they saw on the trip. When the war broke out and Japan was beginning to feel pressure, the need for the South Empire became imminent. This resulted once again in forceful direct rule that would remain in place until the surrender document was signed by Japan in September of 1945.

Educational and Workforce Development in the Japanese Era

Under pressure from the League of Nations, the Japanese hesitantly began to pay attention to the education of the indigenous people of Palau. Though the mandate did not specify clearly that they were to promote economic and educational advancement, it did state that they "shall promote to the utmost the material and moral well-being and the social progress of the inhabitants of the territory" (League of Nations, 1920, p. 55).

Previously, we have seen that the Germans had managed only to support institutionalized mission schools up to the time Japanese took over the islands. Contrary

to their predecessors, the Japanese concentrated on public education for both the indigenous people as well as their own children.

The Japanese wanted the Palauans to think and work like them. Their only means to accomplish this goal was to educate the natives in areas that would bring them closer to the civilization of the motherland. There is no denying that the Japanese wanted to exploit the islands for their own benefit, however. Yanaihara (1940) stated that:

The native has to come up to the modern standard, however, it is the task of education to help him do it. We cannot expect the native to play any leading role in the world of today, but education may give him such a mental training as will make him feel at home with modern civilization (p.240).

Yanaihara's perspective is offensive by today's standard, however, it represents the Japanese estimation of the indigenous people. The Japanese wanted the islands for themselves, but unfortunately they stumbled upon people who already inhabited them.

The Japanese learned from their predecessors that a typical school from mainland Japan could not benefit the local people and therefore they created a segregated educational system from the outset of their administration. Prior to the establishment of formal schooling in 1915, the Japanese naval officers took it upon themselves to teach the young islanders. Since fighting rather than teaching was their trade, the military men

were soon willing to turn over the classrooms to civilian teachers and to bring in officials from the Ministry of Education to frame policies and guidelines for the instruction of island children (Peattie, 1988, p. 91). The first school system under the Japanese Naval Administration was three years in duration and was called the Native School. These schools, in keeping with Palauan tradition, were located in both Koror and Melekeok, the respective seats of the Paramount high chiefs Ibedul and Reklai.

The native schools were originally called *shoggako* (elementary schools). By June of 1918, they were renamed *tomin-gakko* or “islanders’ schools”; by March of 1922, they were referred to simply as “children’s schools” (Palau Community Action Agency, 1976, p.377).

Although there were two separate schools, one for the native and one for the Japanese children, they adhered to the same schedule: classes were held daily, except Sundays and holidays; the school year was divided into three terms – April 1 to August 31, September 1 to December 31, and January 1 to March 31 (Shorrett, 1970, p. 270).

The attendance rate in schools for Palauans far surpassed that of the other mandated islands. In 1927, 86.77 percent of Palauan children were attending school. This increased to 99.4 percent in 1935 and then decreased slightly to 95.38 percent in 1936 (Smith, 1974, p. 129).

The typical Japanese school day began with a reverend bow in the direction of the emperor of Japan. The first-year subjects included Japanese (12 hours), arithmetic (5

hours), singing and physical education (3 hours), plus one hour each of ethics, drawing, and craftsmanship (Shorrett, 1970, p. 270). The second and third years included the same subjects as well as agriculture for boys and housekeeping (home economics) for girls.

Few aspiring Palauans went on to the fourth and fifth years, which were basically reserved for the Japanese children (P. Tellei, personal communication with Ueki, a half-Palauan, half-Japanese who attended the school for Japanese, 2002). The curriculum was detailed by the Japanese Government in the Annual Report to the League of Nations, (1925, pp. 25-28):

<u>First Year</u>	<u>Hours per Week</u>	<u>Content</u>
Morals	1	Essential points of morals
National language	12	Pronunciation, easy conversation, reading and writing of and composition in <u>kata-kena</u> characters
Arithmetic	4	Writing of numbers less than 20, and addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division
Drawing	1	Simple drawing
Singing	2	Singing of songs of simple sound
Physical exercise	2	Sports, drill, and gymnastics
Manual work	1	Manufacture of simple objects
Agriculture	1	Outline of agriculture and fishery, and practice
Housekeeping	1	Simple household matters, practice, sewing, and handicraft
Total hours per week	25	

Those few Palauans who managed to complete the fourth and fifth years of education were promised further education in Japan. This did not materialize, although two separate scholarship programs were created to reward the deserving island students. The first scholarship, established in the honor of the marriage of Emperor Hirohito, was called The *Onshi Zaidai Shokakugai*. The main purpose was to reward the outstanding student in the public schools and the woodworkers' school. The second scholarship was called *Nanyo Gunto Kyoiku Kai* ("South Seas Education Society") and provided support for gifted islanders because the Japanese soon realized that even islanders were by no means ignorant.

Having taught the Palauans to appreciate them and expect much from them, the Japanese began to venture into workforce development which would make the "natives" more useful in the economic development of Palau. This led to many forms of vocational schools, including the prestigious woodworkers' training school.

When people talk of workforce development and vocational education in particular during the Japanese administration of Palau, in fact, two types of schooling come to mind: the system of *Oyabun-Kobun* (Master-Apprentice) and that of *Mokko Totei Yojeijo* (Apprentice-Woodworkers Training School).

Prior to the establishment of the Mokko (woodworker's school), the Japanese introduced the system *Oyabun-Kobun*. On the surface, this system might be mistaken for the European master-apprentice system, but it was uniquely Japanese.

Oyabun-Kobun was more than just a training ground. It ties people together for life in the hope that when the master dies the apprentice will be capable of taking over all the tasks that his master was responsible for, and more. Furthermore, the system had varying levels, depending on need and on the length of time each apprentice had spent with the master before he died or retired from any given trade. Some of the skills taught to Palauans through the *Oyabun-Kobun* system were seamanship and electricity.

The Palauans were quick to adapt to the system, either as apprentices or masters, because it was quite similar to their own way of training (see Appendix H, for the juxtaposition). *Oyabun-Kobun* became very popular and has remained part of the present-day Palauan training system. It is not as successful nor as widely used today as it was then, but it is a reminder of how much of the Japanese form of vocational education has endured. It is not formal, nor is it informal. McKnight (1959) described the system as follows:

The *Oyabun-Kobun* institution is one in which persons usually unrelated by close kin ties enter into a compact to assume obligations of a diffuse nature similar to those ... established by means of ceremony involving many of the expressive symbolisms of birth and marriage (p. 3).

The second type of Japanese schooling, probably the first institutionalized vocational training, was the *Mokko Totei Yojeijo*, the Woodworker's Apprenticeship Training School (predecessor of today's Palau Community College). It was officially opened in May 1926 as an affiliated institute of the Koror Public School (Japanese Government, Report to League of Nations, 1927, p. 201). At the time of its inception, the

school was the highest level of education in the Palau. The minimum entrance requirements were an age of sixteen years, completion of the highest level in the public school, and excellent grades. The student body came from all over the mandated islands of Micronesia. The goal of the school was to “impart knowledge and ability indispensable to the natives who desire to engage in building and carpentry as well as the development of their moral character” (Japanese Government, Report to League of Nations, 1927, p. 201). Accommodation was available to all students and their tools and materials were provided by the school. Tuition was not charged.

The teaching faculty included one full-time teacher and four assistants, all of whom were Japanese and educated and trained in Japan. Japanese policy was never to allow the Palauans, or any of the Micronesians for that matter, to hold teaching positions in the public school. A notable exception was Alfonso Oiterong (Former Vice President and Acting President of the Republic of Palau), an alumnus of the school who had an opportunity to go to Japan for further study. Mr. Oiterong holds the distinction of being the first and only Palauan ever certified to teach in the woodworker’s Apprentice Training School (Shuster, 1982, p.170).

The course of study at the woodworker’s school took two years to complete and consisted of many courses relating to carpentry and similar skills. On-the-job training took most of the students’ time, since they were required to master every skill level before proceeding to the next one. A Navy Department report described the curriculum (Office of the Chief of Naval Operations, 1994):

The school terms and general regulations are the same as for the ordinary public schools. The course covers two years, the curriculum allowing for 18 hours per week of practical work, five hours of Japanese, five hours of architecture (study of construction, materials, tools, and workmanship), four hours of arithmetic, and one hour each of ethics and gymnastics. For Japanese and arithmetic, the students use texts which are standard in the Japanese Elementary Schools (p. 119).

CURRICULUM OF THE APPRENTICE-WOODWORKERS SCHOOL

Subject	Hrs/ Wk	First Year Class	Hrs/ Wk	Second Year Class
Ethics	1	Essential points of ethics	1	Essential points of ethics
Japanese language	5	Reading and writing of Chinese characters in daily use; reading of ordinary sentences; composition	5	Reading and writing of Chinese characters in daily use; reading of ordinary sentences; composition
Arithmetic	4	Integral numbers, decimals and equations (addition and subtraction with abacus	4	Fractions, percent and proportions, all four operations with abacus
Drawing	2	Simple drawing and instrumental drawing.	2	Instrumental drawing and cartography.
Gymnastics	1	Drill, gymnastics and sports	1	Drill, gymnastics and sports
Architecture	5		5	
Material	(1)	Building material	(1)	Building material
Building	(2)	Outline of Construction	(2)	Outline of Construction
Workmanship	(2)	Tools and workmanship	(2)	Workmanship, coloring and designing
Practice	18	Practical work.	18	Practical work.
Total	36		36	
N.B. The Principal may increase the number of hours for practical lesson not exceeding an hour per day.				

Source: South Seas Government (Japanese Mandate), Annual Report for the Year 1935.

Graduates of the Mokko found jobs with the government or at the mines in Anguar, which were in full operation during the Japanese administration period. The exceptional students were retained at the school to serve as assistant instructors (Smith, 1974, p.136). The graduates of this school became the first professionals during the Japanese administration of Palau and Micronesia.

Although the school began strictly as a woodworker's school, it began to offer courses in blacksmithing, mechanics and surveying. This trend coincided with the greater militarization of Palau by the Japanese in preparation for war. Alfonso Oiterong, who was certified to teach at the school, assisted in the development of the mechanics program, a program that was primarily designed to help create maps of Palau for the Japanese military. Not only did the military use the graduates, they also forced the students at the school to work at the airship and to train in guerrilla warfare tactics (Shuster, 1982, p. 173).

Workforce development was not limited to the two types mentioned above. The Japanese also opened agricultural training centers. The center in Palau was located at Mizuho in Aimeliik State. The students who managed to complete the fifth level of public school but could not make it into the Mokko were encouraged to study at the agricultural station.

With the attack on Pearl Harbor on the 7th of December 1941 and the invasion of Guam the day before, all educational programs in Palau either ceased or were geared toward the war effort. Japan's sole interest at this time was war, so no further advancement in education took place. Imperial Japan eventually lost the war to the United States military's "island hopping" campaign. When the final surrender was signed, Palau and the rest of Micronesia came under the United States of America Administration.

Contributions of the Japanese Administration

The Japanese made two great contributions in Palau. First, they developed the economy. Second, they provided a vocational education program that has not been equaled to this day (Smith, 1974, p. 142). It may be said that the Japanese rule had a far greater impact on Palauan education than either the administration of the Germans or the Spanish. The most notable developments were as follows:

- a. They established the first public school system. All major villages in Palau (including Peleliu, Koror, Melekeok, Ngarard, Ngaremlengui) had schools built by the Japanese.
- b. They introduced formal programs in carpentry, agriculture, blacksmithing, surveying and mechanics at the *Mokko Totei Yojeijo*.

- c. They introduced the system of *Oyabun-Kobun* (master-apprentice system). Palauans learned skills in trade areas that were not taught at school, such as seamanship and electricity, through this system.
- d. They established scholarships for deserving Palauan students. This was to encourage and support students to pursue higher levels of learning.
- e. They employed the method of “on-the-job” training (“OJT”). At the *Mokko Totei Yojeijo*, and also through the system of *Oyabun-Kobun*, each trainee learned the trades through “hands-on” experience.

Although their impact was mostly positive, the Japanese also had a negative influence because they segregated the school system. This segregation suggested Palauan children were second-class citizens who were not equal to the Japanese children.

Summary

The Japanese were in Palau for thirty-one years. During the course of their tenure they developed the islands to the level of self-sufficiency. What is remembered most, however, is the establishment of public schools for all children and the founding of the first institutionalized vocational education programs, including the Mokko and the agriculture training school which was started toward the end of the administration. The memory of the founding of public schools is marred a bit by the segregated nature of the

schools system, but the woodworker's school was the highlight of Japanese education in Palau, even though it served a very limited number of students.

The United States Era (1945-1980)

Background

The United States Naval Administration (1945-1951). With the fall of Guam on December 10, 1941, the Japanese had virtually created a defense area encompassing the whole of Micronesia and Palau. The Allied forces paid little or no attention to Micronesia in the early stages of the war (Musick, 1974, p. 221). However, toward the end of the war they realized that they must capture the islands in order to advance to the Philippines and finally to mainland Japan. For that reason the United States Marines invaded Peleliu and Angaur in September of 1944, suffering at least 1,500 casualties and many more wounded. It became apparent to the military planners that Micronesia, and especially Palau, was of great strategic value to whoever wants to control the Pacific (Musick, 1974, 224).

Prior to the United States invasion, the Japanese had relocated all residents of Peleliu and Angaur to the main island of Babeldaob, which saved many Palauans from being caught in the crossfire. Most Palauans spent the final years of the war in caves located in the jungles of Babeldaob. By the time the Japanese signed the formal

surrender on September 2, 1945, Palau was already in the hands of the United States military.

The United Nations met in 1946 to decide the fate of the occupied territories. All were designated Trust Territories under the Trusteeship Council with the exception of Palau and Micronesia. Due to the strategic importance of Palau and the lives lost in liberating it from the Japanese, the United States military continued to run the government until July 18, 1948, when the United States Congress approved the United Nations plan for the administration of Palau and Micronesia (Antilla, 1965, p. 300). This plan was formalized as the Trusteeship Agreement (Appendix I).

Governance was then assumed by the Navy, which agreed to oversee a civilian administration on the islands. The decision to leave the islands under Naval rule was opposed by civilians in Washington D.C. However, the Navy managed to convince these civilians to agree to Navy oversight and ended up governing the islands until the Department of the Interior took over in 1951 (Antilla, 1965, p. 300).

The Trust Territory Administration (1951-1980). The United States Naval civilian administration of Palau and the rest of Micronesia, which began on July 18, 1947, came to an end on July 1, 1951. As noted above, the Naval Administration was contested from the outset. Antilla (1965) explains:

The decision to leave the administration under the Navy was an issue bitterly fought in Washington. The Navy argued that the islands were essentially naval security posts, and that the transports to supply the widely scattered islands could most efficiently be supported by the Navy (p. 300).

In the end a compromise was reached stating that the Department of the Interior would eventually take over the administration of the islands. During the course of the disagreements between the different offices of the United States which had interests in Micronesia and Palau, the Palauan educators and the American contract teachers continued progress in education.

Leadership Structure

After a bitterly fought second World War, the United States military took over the reins of Palau and the rest of Micronesia as the spoils of war. As indicated in Appendix F, the first Administrator of Palau and Micronesia was Admiral R.A. Spruance who served as military governor of Micronesia as well as the Commander in Chief Pacific (CINPAC). The leadership remained with the U.S. Navy, not as Military Governor, but as Officer in charge of the Military Government in Palau. Immediately after the region became the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands (TTPI) under the Trusteeship Council of the newly formed United Nations, Admiral Louise E. Denfield, became the First High Commissioner of the TTPI. The last High Commissioner was Ms. Janet McCoy, who served from 1981 to 1986. (By 1986 the Republic of the Marshall Islands and the

Federated States of Micronesia had approved their own Compacts of Free Association and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands had approved the Covenant to establish a relationship with the United States of America. Since Palau had not ratified the Compact of Free Association by this time, the responsibilities of the High Commissioner office were transferred to the Officer of Secretary of the Interior.)

At the district level, of which Palau was one, the others being the Marshall Islands, Yap, Truk (Chuuk), Ponape (Pohnpei), Saipan and in 1976, Kosrae, the administrative unit was headed by a District Administrator who reported directly to the High Commissioner (Appendices J and K). The District Administrator helped in the development and creation of the legislative body that was called District Legislature. At the regional level, the Congress of Micronesia (COM) was established in 1965 by the Secretary of the Interior's Order 2918 to help chart a course for the future political status of the Trust Territory (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands 22nd Annual Report to the United Nations, 1969. p.15).

The District Administrator further established and chartered municipalities with a leadership that was a blend of elected magistrates and traditional chiefs. In Palau, the hereditary chief served in many capacities until the district legislature opted to have an elected-only legislature. In 1970, however, through much pressure a House of Chiefs was established and Palau had its first experience with a bi-cameral legislative body. This bicameral legislature and the Palauan members of the Congress of Micronesia worked closely together for the separation of Palau from a unified Micronesia with a national

plebiscite on July 12, 1978. In 1979, the first Palau Constitutional Convention was convened to draft a Constitution of the Republic of Palau. The constitution kept the bicameral legislative body, but made its membership all elected, again shunning the traditional leadership. The difference is that it was done by 38 Palauans who sat at their own constitutional convention, to their own hereditary chiefs.

In all these events, the United States was instrumental in living up to its obligation to develop the islands politically, socially and economically.

Educational and Workforce Development Systems in the United States Era

U.S. Naval Administration. Under the Naval Military Government, most major municipalities in Palau reopened their schools, which were originally started under the Japanese regime. Some students used the same buildings left behind by the Japanese. while others traveled to Peleliu and Angaur to transport “quonset” huts (military buildings made of steel frames and corrugated tin) for use as school classrooms. These schools were mostly for the young children who either had their education interrupted by the war or those who had not been able to start school because of it. There was no room for those who were older and had attended school during the previous administration. The administration of the schools was to be turned over to the Naval civilian government. One of the first directives of the Naval civilian government was to promote vocational education, in keeping with the terms of the Trusteeship Agreement.

The Naval Civilian Government was charged with running the island government based on the Trusteeship Agreement with the United States functioning as the trustee. In order to keep the islands, the U.S. government had to adhere to the terms of the agreement which gave them the legitimate right to occupy the area. The agreement states that the administering authority must:

promote the educational advancement of the inhabitants, and to this end shall take steps toward the establishment of a general system of elementary education; facilitate vocational and cultural advancement of the population; and shall encourage qualified students to pursue higher education, including training on the professional level (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands 29th Annual Report, 1976, p. 147).

In line with this policy, the Naval government established an intermediate school consisting of only two grades, the seventh and the eighth. It had two sets of programs, one academic and one vocational. The goals of this school were (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands 13th Annual Report, 1960, p. 135):

- (1) To develop further skills in communicating and calculating;
- (2) to promote better health through education in personal and community hygiene and sanitation;
- (3) to impart more knowledge and better understanding of the physical environment through the teaching of such subjects as geography and

science, and of the human environment through teaching about economic and social organization, government, and the law;

- (4) to impart knowledge and understanding of the rest of the world and its people;
- (5) to develop an understanding of individual and group duties and of civic responsibilities within the intermediate society and to the world at large;
- (6) to stimulate self-expression in indigenous arts and crafts;
- (7) to train in vocational skills, such as agriculture, carpentry, care of tools, and simple technical and commercial skills necessary for economic progress; and
- (8) to improve homemaking skills, such as food preparation, nutrition, child care, care of the sick, home improvement, and making of clothing.

The selection of students to enter the school was by a scholarship system. Since it was just beginning, most of the effort was spent on trying to find the best curriculum for the school. Most of the schools, which were opened during the Naval Administration, did not have the luxury of full programs of study by the time the Navy left and the Department of the Interior assumed control in 1951.

The Naval Administration's greatest contribution was the training of teachers who would run the schools after their administrative tenure. In May of 1948, the government moved the Pacific Islands Teacher Training School (PITTS) from Guam to Truk (Chuuk) and paid for instructors to attend the school. The school's mission was to train teachers

who would teach in schools throughout the Micronesian region, including Palau (Smith, 1979, p. 185). The school offered both academic and vocational courses for the prospective teachers in four schools: the School of Teacher Training, the School of Communication, the School of General Education and the School of Agriculture. Appendix L shows the list of workforce development and vocational courses offered at PITTS in the Schools of Teacher Training and Communication. The School of Agriculture curriculum covered (Smith, 1968, p. 188):

First Year

<u>First Semester</u>		<u>Second Semester</u>	
Subject:	Credits:	Subject:	Credits:
English I	5	English II	3
Reading	2	Business English	2
Spelling	2	Mathematics II	3
General Science I	2	Social Studies I	2
Industrial Arts I	2	General Science II	2
Basic Agriculture	3	Subsistence Gardens	5
Physical Education	1	Physical Education	1
Total	20	Total	18

Second Year

<u>First Semester</u>		<u>Second Semester</u>	
Subject:	Credits:	Subject:	Credits:
English III	3	English IV	3
Oral Expression I	3	Oral Expression II	3
Social Studies II	2	Agricultural	
Teaching Methods I	2	Methods II	4
Agricultural Methods I	4	Drafting	2
Animal Husbandry I	5	Animal Husbandry II	5
Physical Education	1	Farm Crops	2
		Physical Education	1
Total	20	Total	20

Third Year

First Semester

Subject:	Credits:
Farm Management	5
Soils	5
Rural Sociology	5
Electives	0-5
Total	20

Second Semester

Subject:	Credits:
Practical Farming	
Experience	20
Total	20

Even though the school was not physically situated in Palau, the Naval Administration was instrumental in enrolling all the Palauan teacher trainees in PITTS. The graduates returned home to staff the newly established vocational training school in Koror.

The United States Military and Naval administrations were staunch supporters of vocational education for the Palauans. They stressed that the only way the people could be self-sufficient was to truly learn to do and produce things for themselves. A 1945 directive from the Chief of Naval Operations (CNO) explains the position of the Naval government:

Prime objectives of this educational policy are to better equip the native of the various island groups to become self-reliant and capable groups; to encourage agriculture, mechanical arts (p. 297).

The Advisory Committee on Education for Guam and the Trust Territory recommended that the teaching of basic school subjects and vocational training be geared to everyday life. They placed a great emphasis on agriculture and other mechanical trades because of the immediate past connection to the former Japanese schools.

Trust Territory Administration. Prior to the time the Interior Department assumed administration for Palau (and the rest of Micronesia), educational policies for the region were determined in the Naval offices in Guam and Honolulu, Hawaii. Some of the schools which were actually started before the switch in administrations began to expand their programs. The Trust Territory administration's policy was to promote the educational advancement of the Micronesians and Palauans by: (1) establishing a system of elementary and intermediate education, (2) facilitating the vocational and cultural advancement of the people, and (3) encouraging students to pursue professional training (Musick, 1974, p. 299).

These policies were very much in line with the terms of the Trusteeship Agreement. As a result of these policies, many schools were opened in Palau for the purpose of training and educating the young people of Palau and Micronesia to prepare themselves for eventual self-government. The Director of Education of the Trust Territory explains in his 1960 memorandum to District Education Administrators:

The program should be not only a continuation of the Industrial Arts program of the intermediate school. Its objective should be eventually to

provide specific training in the trades so that upon graduation the graduates will be able to perform productive work for pay. (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, 1960, p. 1).

The Trust Territory Administration was aware that the only way the islanders could eventually be self-sufficient was to offer programs which were oriented to workforce development and vocational skills. It was policies such as this that led to the development of intermediate schools in 1947 and 1948 and high schools in 1961 and 1962. The schools described below were begun in Palau with programs that included vocational and industrial instruction. They are both public and private and range from grades 1-12 to the post-secondary level.

Palau Intermediate School. Palau Intermediate School was established in Koror in 1948 during the reign of the Naval administration. The main building housing the school was the former South Seas hospital which was renovated after the war. With the establishment of the intermediate school, there was a vocational shop program with instruction in carpentry and boatbuilding. An agricultural program was added in 1950 along with a homemaking curriculum which was limited to sewing and cloth making (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, Department of Education, Palau District, 1958, p. 3).

Upon the departure in 1951 of a unit of the Navy Construction Battalion which had been stationed in Koror during the U.S. Naval Administration, the

intermediate school was given its buildings (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, Department of Education, Palau District, 1958, p. 3). Since its inception, the emphasis was placed on vocational education in concert with the policy of the Trust Territory Administration. Students who finished the academic program went to Guam for their high school education. Those who were in the vocational program enrolled in the Palau Vocational School.

Palau Vocational School. Palau Vocational School was an outgrowth of vocational programs at the Palau Intermediate School. The creation of this school is very important because it was an outgrowth of the Japanese woodworker's school (Mokko) and the forerunner of the Micronesian Occupational Center (now Palau Community College). The first programs at the school consisted of carpentry subjects taught by former graduates of the Mokko. The medium of instruction was Palauan supplemented by Japanese because the teacher had been trained using Japanese trade terms and lessons.

Gibson (1960, p. 2), provided these examples of the activities in the vocational education curriculum:

Arts & Crafts

Wood carving
Clay modeling
Basket weaving
Loom work
Jewelry making
Story boards
Papier mache
Block printing
Leather work

Industrial Arts

Making spear guns
Furniture making
Turning fish bowls
Making fish traps
Model making
Wrought iron work
Printing
Boat building
Mech. Dr.

Vocational Arts

Auto Mechanics
Electricity
Plumbing
Welding
Carpentry
Cabinet making
Masonry
Boat building
Mech. drawing
On-the-job training

Each of the full-time programs required at least one year to complete. On-the-job training (“OJT”) and learning-by-doing (“hands-on”) were an integral part of the instruction. Students studied other academic subjects, but most of the time was spent in the specific skill areas. Palau Vocational School no longer exists, since Palau High School and Micronesian Occupational Center (College since 1977) have taken over its facilities and programs.

School of Nursing. The region’s first school of nursing was established on Truk (Chuuk) in February 1953. The school moved to Ponape (Pohnpei) a year later and finally to Palau in 1955 (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, Department of Education, Palau District, 1958, p. 41). It was created to meet the need for medical professionals. Its student body was predominately female, composed of students who had either graduated from PICS (Pacific Islands Central School) or PITTS but could not find jobs in Palau. The School of Nursing lasted only four years in Palau. At the end of this time (1957), the nursing school had graduated twenty-five nurses who were then sent out to serve their respective communities.

Mindszenty School. Mindszenty School, founded in 1948, was the predecessor of today’s Mindszenty High School, which belongs to the Catholic Church of Palau. It began in 1948 with only a seventh grade class and by 1951 eighth and ninth grade levels had been added. The school curriculum was similar to that of the public school, with the exception that its concentration was on academic subjects. Vocational programs were not

excluded from the regular offerings of the school. A 1958 report on education by the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, Department of Education, Palau District explained the programs at Mindszenty as follows:

Vocational training is not entirely neglected; the boys make some of the simpler forms of Palauan handicraft and also get instruction in carpentry. The girls' vocational training consists mainly of sewing, e.g. each girl is required to sew her own graduation dress (p. 43).

Although the school was private and academically-oriented, it adhered to the basic policies of the government which placed an emphasis on vocational education for the advancement of the natives. The vocational programs at Mindzsenty School were discontinued in the early seventies. However, in 1985 Mindzsenty High School began to offer courses in carpentry, on an elective basis.

Emmaus Intermediate School. Like Mindzsenty School, Emmaus Intermediate School was started as a private school, under the administration of the Palau Evangelical Church. The construction of the school began in 1947, and the first students were enrolled in 1948, the same year Palau Intermediate School and Mindszenty School were founded. The school was established by Reverend Wilhelm Fey who had spent fifteen years ministering and converting Palauans to Protestantism. The school was originally intended to educate the children of the church members who would one day take over the leadership of their church. Emmaus Intermediate School is the predecessor of today's

Emmaus High School. Although the school was established for religious purposes, vocational education was considered:

The school board at Emmaus also recognizes the importance of developing skills in agriculture and carpentry and offers opportunities to gain practical knowledge in these fields to all students (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, Department of Education, Palau District, 1958, p. 47).

Emmaus High School today has eliminated most of its vocational training. However, during the course of their stay students have an opportunity to participate in the upkeep of their school. In this way they indirectly learn skills which will prove to be very useful in their future. The present-day Emmaus High School is a boarding school which accepts students from all over Micronesia. It began as a boys' school and continues to be one today.

Bethania Girls' School. After establishing Emmaus Intermediate School, the elders of the Palau Evangelical Church decided to establish a school for girls. The land was purchased in January 1955 and by May of 1956 the jungle had been cleared for building. The first students began their studies at the new school, called Bethania Girls' School, in late 1955. Like its counterpart, Emmaus High School, the programs of Bethania Girls' School were geared toward the Bible and academics (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, Department of Education, Palau District, 1958, p. 48).

This orientation did not stop the administrators from offering vocational programs which they felt would help their graduates once they left home. The 1958 Palau education report states that “besides the scholastic curriculum the girls receive training in sewing, home economics, infant care and nursing, First Aid, gardening and agriculture” (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, Department of Education, Palau District, 1958, p. 48).

Bethania survived the trials and tribulations of the early years and today has become a full-fledged high school accepting students from Palau and the rest of Micronesia. Its curriculum, however, has shifted to a completely academic program and no longer includes vocational courses. Nevertheless, Bethania holds the distinction of being the first school established outside of the district center of Koror. The school is located in Ngaraard State, formerly Ngaraard Municipality under the Trust Territory government.

Palau Junior Academy. Palau Junior Academy was established in Palau in 1953, with grades one to five. Higher grade levels were added each year until the school became both elementary and intermediate in 1958 (Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, Department of Education, Palau District, 1958, p. 48). It was the forerunner of today’s Palau Mission Academy, a comprehensive high school operated and owned by the Seventh-Day Adventists, established to serve the children of the church members. The school curriculum was academic in nature, but workforce development programs were offered at the intermediate grade levels after the board of directors decided there was a

need to offer vocational subjects in a Christian setting. The students were trained in the various skills offered at the intermediate schools in Palau, including woodworking, handtools, measuring tools, characteristics of wood, fastening devices, sharpening abrasives, shop safety, shop planning, and special projects. Second year students covered the same subjects but at a higher level.

In the early seventies, the secondary grades were moved to the present site at Ngerikiil in Airai. The school does not currently offer workforce development programs (except computer applications), but it operates a very successful poultry operation which enables the students to learn some job skills.

School of Fisheries. The school of Fisheries was established in Palau in October 1961. It was located near Koror at Malakal where all shipping and fishing activities took place. The school was situated in Palau and funded by the Trust Territory government. The students came from all over Micronesia. The school did not last long but it provided the Palauans and other Micronesians who were interested in fishing careers an opportunity to expand their knowledge.

Courses at the school included seamanship, safety at sea, proper diving and swimming habits, line bait fishing, skip jack fishing, long line fishing, vessel maintenance, fishing gear construction, fish handling and processing (Micronesian Reporter, 1961, p.13). The most deserving students were sent to Hawaii to experience the fishing aboard the commercial tuna fishing vessels. This program closed due to lack

of support and interest from both the Palau district government and the trainees themselves.

Palau High School. Palau High School is an outgrowth of Palau Intermediate School. In 1962-63 Micronesians and Palauans, with the aid of the United Nations Visiting Mission, began to emphasize the need for further training beyond intermediate school. By 1962 the tenth and eleventh grades were included in the intermediate school and became known as a junior high school (Musick, 1974, p. 388).

The early sixties was also the time that the United Nations Report was most critical of the administering authority, the United States. As a result of the report, President Kennedy signed Senate Bill 2775-68, a law which virtually accelerated the development of elementary schools in the region. By 1964, plans were drawn up for Palau Intermediate School to include the twelfth grade. It became the present-day Palau High School (Musick, 1974, p. 414).

Palau High School became the first and only public high school in Palau to offer academic programs with a very strong emphasis on workforce development education. This was in keeping with a study by Nathan and Associates which advocated strong programs in secondary vocational education. The report stated that:

One or more secondary vocational schools capable of offering intensive instruction in the trades should be established for the Trust Territory. The

curriculum should be determined by the specific needs of the Territory (Musick, 1974, p. 414).

In keeping with the tradition of a strong vocational education, Palau High School began offering vocational programs along with the academic curriculum. The workforce development programs at Palau High School included wood carving, clay modeling, basket weaving, loom work, jewelry making, story boards, papier mache, block printing, and leather work (Gibson, 1960, p. 2).

Though the programs at Palau High School remain comprehensive, they are by no means popular. It is reported that students tend to shun vocational subjects in favor of the academic track because most of their teachers and counselors come from academic backgrounds. Furthermore, students observe white-collar workers and aspire to be like them, earning a salary without “getting their hands dirty.”

Elementary School Level. The elementary schools in Palau have a tradition of workforce development education that dates back to the early years of the United States Administration when schools were re-established after the war. Basic agriculture, which was once part of elementary education, became an integral part of workforce development in Palau. However, the program failed to expand beyond agriculture. A Congress of Micronesia report (1986) states that:

Pre-vocational education is now offered to upper elementary grades. The limited amount of funds is to be concentrated in agriculture. By expanding the concept of the pre-vocational program, the school farms will be enhanced at the elementary level (p. 27).

The elementary-level programs have been continued under the Republic of Palau government. Pre-vocational education programs at the elementary level have traditional Palauan skills. The courses are taught by the community elders out of necessity and concern. These programs are well appreciated by the students. However, not all schools in Palau follow the same track, as the traditional skills training is not supported by the government.

Micronesian Occupational Center. The greatest contribution of the Trust Territory government to vocational education was the establishment of the Micronesian Occupational Center in 1969. After the various developments in vocational education at the secondary level, it was time to develop a training program at the post-secondary level which emphasized vocational education. This was an opportune time to develop such a school for the whole of Micronesia. Because of the Palauan tradition of vocational education which had begun in the Japanese era, the territory-wide vocational school was destined to be located in Palau. The Trust Territory commissioned reports such as Nathan's Economic Development Plan (1966) and Stanford Research Institute's Planning for Education and Manpower in Micronesia (1967) called for such a school (Micronesian Occupational Center, 1982, p. 23).

The creation and establishment of the Micronesian Occupational Center (MOC) took a while to become a reality. However, thanks to dedication of Micronesian and Trust Territory leaders, MOC finally opened its doors for the first time in Palau in 1969 through Congress of Micronesia Public Law 3C-36 and Title III of United States Public Law 8910 [Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA)]. Title III provided the initial development funds for Micronesian Law 3C-36 and recognized the Micronesian Board of Education as the first State Board for Vocational Education.

In the beginning, the new institution was called Micronesian Occupational Center. At its inception, MOC took over the facilities of Palau Vocational School, where it has remained to this day. It served the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands with great distinction.

The first group of eighteen teachers for the school was trained at the East-West Center in Honolulu, Hawaii under the direction of Wilhelm Rengiil (Micronesian Occupational Center, 1982, p. 24). Since its founding, MOC has served both as a training institution for skilled workers and a place where most vocational educators are trained for Palau and the rest of Micronesia.

In 1977, after its accreditation by the Western Association of School and Colleges (WASC), MOC changed its name to the Micronesian Occupational College in 1977 and

MOC became a part of the College of Micronesia system (Micronesian Occupational Center. (1982).

MOC continued to serve the people of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands even after the Federated States of Micronesia and the Republic of the Marshall Islands entered into a new agreement with the United States government.

In the beginning MOC offered certificates in all traditional workforce development and vocational programs, some of which were one year in length while others took two years. Some of the original programs are on a "stop-out," meaning they will be resurrected when the need arises. Since its accreditation in 1977, MOC has offered the Associate in Science (A.S.) degree in most of the trades with one very unique requirement. A student must pass the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) with a minimum of 450. MOC follows the one-hour, three days a week lecture schedule. The college accepts students year-round.

Despite all its successes, MOC did not earn the respect of many visitors and writers who have had an opportunity to visit the school. David Nevin wrote in 1977:

The Territory's largest effort in vocational training is Micronesian Occupational Center at Palau, with a budget approaching one million dollars. MOC takes high-school graduates and is considered a place of higher learning. Having been conditioned to seeing diligence, an interest in

excellence despite limited means and sensitivity to culture in the schools, I was disappointed and finally disgusted by MOC (p. 17).

Manpower Development Training Act (MDTA). Like the rest of Micronesia, in 1969 Palau became eligible for funds under the Manpower Development Training Act (MDTA). The money allocated to each district level was used to support existing programs administered at the district level. In Palau the money was used to support existing training programs at Palau Vocational School and at MOC. Adult and technical education and special short-term programs benefited from the funds.

Military Civic Action Teams (CAT). Civic Action Teams (CAT) first began in Micronesia, including Palau, in 1967. The teams consisted of thirteen men charged with two main responsibilities:

The responsibility that was given the highest priority was training of Micronesians in trades. The six-month training period covered the following areas: plumbing and water distribution, carpentry, heavy equipment operation, electrical repairs and maintenance, and engine mechanics. The second responsibility was the actual technical assistance and completion of construction projects (Musick, 1974, p. 502).

The Navy Civic Action Team (common known as “Seabees”) was the first team in Palau. The Navy was finally relieved by the U.S. Air Force Civic Action Team in 2004. However, the team mission remains the same.

Belau Modekngei School. The creation of the Belau Modekngei School in 1974 was the work of Dr. William Vitarelli and the rubaks (elders) of Modekngei (the traditional Palauan religion which sprang up in the early 1920’s in opposition to foreign rule and domination). With funding from the Janss Foundation of California, the Modekngei members set out to build the school (Shuster, 1982, p. 22). It was located in Ibobang, Ngatbang on the west coast of Palau.

The program of study was originally designed to impart traditional Palauan skills. This did not endure as the school began adopting a more modern concept of schooling in both academic vocational subjects. Since then, Modekngei School has lost its support from the Janss Foundation and is now dependent upon the support of the Modekngei members.

In 1984, officers of the school visited the Ponape Agriculture and Trade School (PATs) in Ponape (Pohnpei) to study its vocational program (the researcher was Principal of the school at the time). At that time, they were searching for the best of training modes for their students. Whether the duplication of the PATs model can be accomplished remains to be seen.

OISCA Palau Training Center. OISCA, as it is commonly known in Palau, stands for the Organization for Industrial, Spiritual and Cultural Advancement. It was established in 1961 with the purpose of fostering industrial, vocational, and spiritual training for the betterment of mankind (McPhetres and Rechebei, 1997, p. 333). It is meant to provide young people with an education well balanced among intellectual, spiritual and physical elements. Its training methods are described as follows:

The training conducted at these training centers and farms are practical ones with emphasis on appropriate technologies that can be easily adopted by rural communities. Development of such human qualities as hard working habits, strong will, perseverance, leadership ability, love for one's own community and country and responsibility is also given equal importance vis-à-vis skill training by OISCA instructors (OISCA International, n.d., p.6).

Under these guidelines, OISCA Palau Training Center opened its doors to the first group of Palauans in 1980 and continues today. The OISCA training site is located in Aimeliik on the west coast of Babeldaob.

The curriculum consists of four parts. The first part is called Basic Training, which is constituted of courses in Japanese language, culture, society, and economy. The second part consists of Technical Training, which includes the following areas: agriculture, fishery, forestry, animal husbandry, aquaculture, poultry and technical courses (welding, wiring, etc.). The third part is Discipline, consisting of collective life

training, manners, and customs. The fourth and final part of the curriculum is the participation in the exchange program. The most deserving students are sent (all expenses paid) to other OISCA training centers in the Philippines, Japan, Burma, or Thailand where they further their skills training (OISCA International, n.d., p.8).

The graduates of the OISCA program “change lanes” very well, both in the private and public sectors. Some of the graduates have been retained to teach at the school.

Contributions of the United States Administration

Both the United States Naval government and the Trust Territory administration contributed to the advancement of workforce education in Palau in the following areas.

- a. They re-opened the elementary schools after World War II. Frequently, the former Japanese facilities were used.
- b. They established Palau Intermediate School, which offered academic as well as workforce development and vocational courses.
- c. Local people were taught in the schools. Graduates of Japanese schools and the *Mokko* were recruited as teachers.
- d. A teacher-training program was established. The Pacific Island Teacher Training School (PITTS) was set up in Guam to train all Micronesian teachers. It

subsequently moved to Truk (Chuuk) and then to Ponape (Pohnpei), where it became the Pacific Islands Central School (PICS).

- e. Various missions started their own intermediate schools. These included Emmaus and Bethania Schools, started by the Palau Evangelical Church; Mindszenty School founded by the Catholic Church, and the Palau Junior Academy of the Seventh-Day Adventist Church.
- f. Funding and support were given for the public and parochial intermediate schools in the late fifties and early sixties.
- g. Establishment of high schools. The academic division of Palau Intermediate School became Palau High School. All the parochial intermediate schools also became high schools.
- h. Training of vocational teachers. Teachers were trained at the Community Leadership Training Center (CLTC) of Ponape Agriculture and Trade School (PATs), Micronesian Occupational Center's Vocational Teacher Training Program, and at the East-West Center in Hawaii.
- i. Establishment of Palau Vocational School. The vocational division of Palau Intermediate school formed the core of Palau Vocational School.
- j. Establishment of Micronesian Occupational Center/College (MOC). As a result of United States Public Law 8910 and Congress of Micronesia Public Law 3C-36, MOC was established in 1969.
- k. Funding for elementary school vocational programs. Funds were provided for pre-vocational and agricultural programs at the elementary schools.

- l. Short-term institutes, i.e., nursing and fisheries. These institutes were established to meet the workforce shortages for the growing needs of economic and social development.
- m. Manpower Development Training Act (MDTA). Funding under MDTA was used to support existing vocational and adult education programs.
- n. Civic Action Teams (CAT). The CAT teams were sent to Palau to support government construction projects and in the process they trained their Palauan counterparts the different construction trades.

Summary

Naval Administration. There were really two eras of the Naval Administration, the former being military in nature and the later a civilian government in the hands of the military. The Naval government accomplished a great deal in seven years, considering the fact that it inherited a country ravaged by war. It re-established schools and promoted education for all the inhabitants. On July 1, 1951, administrative responsibility was transferred to the United States Department of the Interior (Musick, 1974, p. 297).

Trust Territory Administration. The Trust Territory government under the United States Department of the Interior accomplished the most for the education of Palauans. It provided the citizens with elementary, intermediate, and high schools, plus the Micronesian Occupational Center. During this period, churches and private organizations were instrumental in meeting the need for educational institutions, as evident in the

establishment of Mindzenty High School (Catholic), Emmaus and Bethania Schools (Evangelical Church), Palau Junior Academy (Seventh Day Adventist), Belau (Modenngai), and OISCA Palau Training Center (OISCA International).

The acceleration of federal programs contributed to the growth of vocational programs, notably the Manpower Development Training Act (MDTA), Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA), and the Civic Action Teams (CAT). As a result of the Trust Territory government endeavors, when the Republic of Palau government came into being in 1980-81, a well-developed educational system was already in place.

The Republic of Palau Era (1980-1999)

Background

In 1975 Palauan delegates were sent to Saipan to help draft the constitution of what would be known as the Federated States of Micronesia (FSM). Some of the Palauans felt that it was time to pursue a separate status with the United States (at this time the United States had agreed to separation talks with the Saipan District). In September 1976, the Palauans went to the polls for the first time to determine the course of their future status. Eighty-six percent of those who voted wanted separation from the rest of Micronesia. Keeping the result of the status referendum in mind, the Palauan leaders vigorously campaigned against the ratification of the Draft Constitution of the Federated States which was scheduled for July 12, 1978. On this date, fifty-six percent of

the Palauans who went to the polls rejected the proposed constitution, paving the way for the drafting of the constitution for the Palau district.

The constitutional delegates were elected in November 1978 and convened in January 1979. After sixty days of meetings, debates and hearings, they produced the final draft of a constitution in April 1979. The constitution was modeled after the constitution of the United States, but the content was uniquely Palauan. July 9, 1979 was set by the Palau Legislature for the referendum on the draft Palau constitution. On the referendum date, ninety-three percent (93%) of the Palauan voters supported the constitution. However, through its ambassador to the Micronesian Status Negotiations, the United States objected to the provisions which would make Palau nuclear-free and extend the boundary to 200 miles. (The United States is not a signatory to the Law of the Sea Treaty). The Constitutional Drafting Commission was created by the Sixth Palau Legislature to amend the constitution to meet the United States demand. The revised constitution was submitted and rejected by the Palauan voters in an October 23, 1979 referendum. The members of the Sixth Palau Legislature which created the Constitutional drafting commission lost all their seats in the November 1979 general election. The original constitution was re-submitted and approved overwhelmingly on July 9, 1980. Elections for the first government under the new constitution were held on November 2, 1980 and the new constitutional government was formally installed on January 1, 1981. This date marked the beginning of the new Republic of Palau government (Appendices M and N).

Palau negotiated for free association status with the United States and held its first plebiscite in 1983, to determine whether the terms of the Compact of Free Association would be accepted. However, the compact of free association failed, as it has ever since, because it could not garner the seventy-five percent (75%) margin of votes required to override the nuclear-free clause in the Palauan constitution. Today Palau is a semi-independent nation with its own government, but technically it is still a Trust Territory as the government of the United States has not asked the United Nations to terminate its Trusteeship over Palau.

From 1983 to 1993, Palauans went to the polls again for a record eight (8) times in an attempt to ratify the Compact of Free Association with the United States of America. If this were to be approved, Palau would then be allowed to declare its independence, with its defense relegated to the United States Armed Forces under the treaty. The approval process was complicated because Palau's Constitution contained a nuclear free clause. Specifically, Article XIII Section 6 of the Palau Constitution states that

“Harmful substances such as nuclear, chemical, gas or biological weapons intended for use in warfare, nuclear power plants, and waste therefrom, shall not be used, tested, stored or disposed of within the territorial jurisdiction of Palau without the expressed approval of not less than three fourths (3/4) of the votes cast in a referendum submitted on this specific question.”

When it became clear that the 75% percent approval of the Compact of Free Association could not be attained, the President of Palau in 1987, Mr. Lazarus Salii, furloughed 900 government employees under the guise of having no more funds for the payroll, unless the COFA was approved. Two hastily called referendums supported by Ambassador Fred M. Zeder, President Reagan's personal representative for the status talks, failed to garner the needed 75% votes required for approval. (Davis and Hart, 2000, p.73):

“Just days after the plebiscite, a group of women headed by Bilung Gloria Gibbons Salii, the highest ranking woman in Koror, filed a lawsuit challenging the legality of both elections. This event triggered a wave of violence against Compact opponents. Shots were fired at homes, and some houses were firebombed. A nightclub was set on fire, Bedor Bins, the father of a well-known Compact opponent, was shot and killed. A year later, the Supreme Court ruled that both amendment and the approval of the Compact were illegal. The court's ruling was a disappointment for many Palauans. Difficulties continued. On August 20, 1988, President Lazarus Salii put a gun to his head and ended his life.”

The architect of the Compact of Free Association (for Palau, FSM and RMI) had become the victim of its approval process in Palau.

In 1988 a newly elected president, Mr. Ngiratkel Etpison, a self-made businessman who spoke no word of English, gathered a team together that began by restoring order and then called a seventh plebiscite. The electorate, tired of voting by this time, mostly stayed home, and those who went to the polls did not garner the required 75% voter approval. After this brief setback, the President worked closely with the Palau National Congress to amend the Palau Constitution. This time the court agreed and in the 1992 National General Election the electorate voted to amend the Palau Constitution by a 62% margin. This first amendment was

“ To avoid inconsistencies found prior to this amendment by the Supreme Court of Palau to exist between section 324 of the Compact of Free Association and its subsidiary agreements with the United States of America and other sections of the Constitution of the Republic of Palau, article XIII Section 6 of the Constitution and final phrase of Article II, Section 3, reading ‘provided, that any such agreement which authorizes use, testing, storage or disposal of nuclear, toxic chemical, gas or biological weapons intended for use in warfare shall require approval of not less than three fourth (3/4) o the votes cast in such referendum,’ shall not apply to votes to approve the Compact of Free Association and its subsidiary agreements ---“

With this first amendment in place the final referendum took place and the Compact of Free Association between Palau and United States was finally implemented

with US President Bill Clinton (via teleconference call) and Palau President Kuniwo Nakamura officiating on October 01, 1994. On that happy occasion thousands of people gathered in Koror's Asahi Stadium to celebrate the birth of the new nation (Davis and Hart, 2000, p.75).

Leadership Structure

After the Palau Constitution was approved, the Seventh Palau Legislature under the Palau District Government, which took office on January 1980, passed Public Law (PL 7-3-22) that provided for the first election of the President, Vice President and Members of Palau National Congress. This first election took place on November 4, 1980 (McPhetres and Rechebei, 1997, p. 284). Secretarial Order 3039 came into full force and limited self-government under an elected Palauan government took over.

There are three branches of this government: the Executive, the Legislative and Judiciary. The Executive Branch is headed by a popularly elected President and is supported in the leadership role by a separately elected Vice President (a Constitutional amendment via an initiative was approved in the November 2, 2004 National General Election that will require a team running for executive offices) who by Constitutional provision is required to sit as a Minister of one of the ministries. There are seven Ministries under the President and these are: 1. Ministry of State; 2. Ministry of Resources and Development; 3. Ministry of Education; 4. Ministry of Health; 5. Ministry

of Justice; 6. Ministry of Commerce and Trade; 7. Ministry of Finance; and 8. Ministry of Community and Cultural Affairs.

The Legislative Branch is composed of a bi-cameral body called Olbiil era Kelulau (House of Whispered Decisions) that serves as the National Congress. The Senate is composed of nine (9) members elected in a nationwide election for a term of four (4) years. The House of Delegates is composed of 16 Delegates each representing one of Palau's 16 states.

The Judiciary is composed of a Supreme Court headed by a Chief Justice who is assisted by three Associate Justices. There is also a Court of Common Pleas and a National Land Court responsible for all land related matters. Persons selected for judgeship must be first selected by a Judicial Nominating Commission, be graduates of an accredited law school, and be admitted to practice law in Palau for at least five (5) preceding the appointment. The justices serve for life.

The Constitution of Palau calls for the creation of the Council of Chiefs with the sole responsibility of advising the president of Palau on all matters relating to customs and traditions. Prior to this new role, the Council of Chiefs constituted one of the two houses of the bi-cameral legislature which was a predecessor of Palau National Congress. The chiefs still maintain a role in the villages ranging from mere figureheads in Ngeremlengui State to a Head of State in Melekeok State with full veto power on all matters passed by the village legislative assembly (McPhetres and Rechebei, 1997, p.

293). There are so many layers of leadership structure in Palau that a casual observer oftentimes wonders if everyone in Palau is a leader of some sort.

Educational and Workforce Development in the Palau Era

Before the inauguration of the Republic's government in 1981, all educational functions of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands relating to Palau were administered through the office of the District Administrator of the Palau District. Shortly after the installation of the new constitutional government, all of these functions were placed under the Ministry of Social Services (in 1981 Health and Education were still part of a single ministry) headed by a minister appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate of the Olbiil Era Kelulau (OEK) or Palau National Congress.

The Director of the Bureau of Education administers all public schools, ranging from grade 1 to grade 12. The director issues charters for all private schools and provides funding for them according to the established laws of the republic. There are 22 Headstart Centers providing education for children under the age of six. These centers are administered under the auspices of the Palau Community Action Agency (PCAA). There are 26 elementary schools, including 24 public and two church-affiliated schools. There are six high schools, only one of which is public. The public high school enrolls 64 percent of the secondary school population (Office of Planning and Statistics, First National Master Development Plan, 1987, p. 265). Title 22 of the Palau National Code, Section 159 states that "Attendance at a public or non-public school shall be required of

all children between the ages of six and 17, inclusive, or until graduation from high school, unless excluded from school or excepted from attendance by the Minister of Education.”

In 1993, a task force representing Palau’s community, political, and educational leaders met to develop a plan for education in Palau. The work of the task force resulted in the The Palau 2000 Master Plan for Educational Improvement which became Public Law No. 4-57 in October 1996 (Emesiochl, 1999, p. 1):

“The Task Force sought the advice and ideas of hundreds of Palauans and four basic ideas permeated.

1. All of our plans must be focused on what is best for students to succeed in school and later in life.
2. Educational improvement must be an equal partnership among families, communities, students and our schools staffs.
Everybody needs to be committed to improvement.
3. We need to continue to learn from our experience and from research on educational effectiveness,
4. We need to be accountable and measure learning success.

Palau 2000 supports actions and strategies that ensure that all Palauan students maintain a strong knowledge of their culture, heritage,

history, values and beliefs. The plan provides new standards for teaching and learning excellence resulting in youth who are excited about learning and being contributors of the Palauan society.”

With the support of the United States School-To-Work Opportunities Act, Palau was able to put in place a new high school program that focused both on academics and workforce development. This resulted in the creation of career academies that involved all aspects of School-Based Activities, Work-Based Activities and Connecting Activities. There were five career academies, namely Arts and Humanities, Natural Resources, Business Information Systems, Industrial Engineering, and Health and Human Services. These career academies start at the 9th grade and end at the 12th grade. In some limited areas the programs are linked through an articulation agreement with Palau Community College. The following is the listing of courses at the secondary school level.

<u>9th Grade</u>	<u>10th Grade</u>	<u>11th Grade</u>	<u>12th Grade</u>
Career Dev. I	Career Dev. II	Academy	Academy
English	English	English	English
Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics
Science	Science	Science	Science
Social Studies	Social Studies	Social Studies	Social Studies
Palauan Studies	Palauan Studies	Palauan Studies	Palauan Studies
Elective Class	Health/PE	Health/PE	Elective

In addition to traditional program classes, students in Career Development I & II research occupations using local businesses sources. In keeping with the new strategy for improved education and training for careers, curriculum materials are more rigorous than ever before. Once the students get to the junior and senior level, they are involved in career shadowing and eventually complete a practicum in their chosen field. The students essentially spend a semester working in a real world setting before they graduate from high school. This new system of secondary education needs to be evaluated thoroughly as envisioned by Palau 2000 to keep it current and relevant.

At the post secondary level, the Republic of Palau Government took over the campus of Micronesian Occupational College (MOC). It continued to run the college as envisioned by the Chancellors Office of the unified College of Micronesia system. When the three Freely Associated States (RMI, FSM and Palau) became self-governing and Palau eventually ratified its Compact of Free Association, it became necessary for each entity to take over the reins of its nation's higher education and workforce development. Through an enactment of the Higher Education Act of 1993 [RPPL 4-2] 22 PNCA, Palau Community College was established as Palau's own institution of higher learning. The purposes and role of Palau Community College under the law are as follows:

- (1) Serve as a comprehensive community college;
- (2) Provide for such services as postsecondary education instruction, including:
 Liberal arts education, vocational education, teacher training, continuing
 education, extension services, college preparatory instruction and assistance,

administration of postsecondary education financial assistance programs, monitoring student performance, and other postsecondary education-related functions;

- (3) Maintain accreditation by the Western Association of Schools and Colleges;
- (4) Grant degrees, certificates and diplomas;
- (5) Provide and coordinate training and education programs and services to adults and out-of-school youths;
- (6) Develop and conduct outreach programs;
- (7) In conjunction with the College of Micronesia, to serve as the agency for Land Grant, Sea Grant, and Space Grant programs; share in any endowments provided through the Land Grant, Sea Grant, and Space Grant programs; and provide training, research, coordination, assistance, support, and related extension services as needed and provided for under the Land Grant, Sea Grant, and Space Grant programs;
- (8) Coordinate with other educational institutions in the Micronesia region and other locations for such matters as the transfer of credits and programs, reciprocal treatment of students, coordination of exchange programs, joint and cooperative research or educational programs, and such matters that deal with the cooperative interaction between PCC and other educational institutions;
- (9) Conduct research;
- (10) Administer, coordinate, and provide services related to postsecondary student financial assistance provided by governmental and other sources for students attending PCC;

- (11) Serve as a coordinating agency for all appropriate postsecondary education activities conducted within the Republic.

It abundantly clear under this act that essentially, the bulk of all workforce development was given to Palau Community College. The enrollment of Palauan students is the highest at the college at approximately 70 percent. Programs offered at PCC include:

Associate Degree Programs

- (1) Agricultural Science
- (2) Air Conditioning and Refrigeration
- (3) Business Education - Secretarial Science
- (4) Construction Carpentry Technology
- (5) Criminal Justice
- (6) Electrical Technology
- (7) General Electronics Technology
- (8) Information Technology
- (9) Marine and Environmental Studies
- (10) Masonry Technology
- (11) Nursing
- (12) Small Engine and Outboard Motor Technology
- (13) Tourism and Hospitality

Certificate Programs

- (1) Agricultural Science
- (2) Air Conditioning and Refrigeration
- (3) Appliance Repair
- (4) Automotive Body and Repair
- (5) Automotive Mechanics Technology
- (6) Business Education - General Office Clerk
- (7) Construction Carpentry Technology
- (8) General Electronics Technology
- (9) Heavy Equipment & Diesel Mechanics
- (10) Masonry Technology
- (11) Small Engine & Outboard Motor Technology
- (12) Tourism and Hospitality
- (13) Welding Technology

The OISCA Palau Training Center located in Aimeliik continues to provide post-secondary education, although its instruction is mostly Japanese in nature and orientation. OISCA has done an excellent job of training young Palauans in the area of agriculture.

Contributions of the Republic of Palau Administration

The following are some of the contributions of the government of the Republic of Palau to workforce development.

- a. The government of Palau left all educational and workforce development programs it acquired from the previous government intact.
- b. The most distinctive contribution has been the development and adoption of the Palau 2000 Education Master Plan that sets forth the new system for secondary education.
- c. The enactment of the Higher Education Act of 1993 which establishes a comprehensive community college to support the higher education and human resource needs of the Republic of Palau.
- d. The establishment of a special committee called the Joint Training and Apprenticeship Group (JTAG) that was responsible for short term and continuing education training needs.

- e. Continued support to the United States Civic Action Team detachment whose added task is to train qualified youth who do not have requisite skills for jobs that are available
- f. Recognizing the need and moving to provide funding for the establishment of the schools of Education, Marine and Environmental Science, Nursing and Tourism and Hospitality at Palau Community College.
- g. Creation of and continued support for the Palau National Scholarship Fund Program which has since adopted a new policy to support students who are studying for traditional degrees through non-traditional means.
- h. Stable government that has led to dedicated funding for education in general and workforce development in particular.

Summary

When the Republic of Palau inaugurated its first constitutional government on January 1, 1981, it inherited an educational system that was already in place and functioning. The administration of the schools was moved from the Trust Territory headquarters in Saipan to the Ministry of Education in Koror, Palau. At this time of limited self-governance as a result of Secretarial Order 3039, Palau had many pressing problems; these were: high unemployment, many young people lacking requisite skills for entry level jobs, job training opportunities that were either lacking and/or uncoordinated, declining interest in subsistence living, and a shortage of skilled applicants for jobs that were requiring much higher levels of technical know-how and

certification. As a result of these needs, the new government began working extremely hard to make sure the needs of its citizens were met.

A Presidential Task Force was convened at the highest level to address the whole educational system in Palau and the resulting work was the Palau 2000 Education Master Plan. The *Olbiil era Kelulau* or Palau National Congress passed legislation that served as an enabling act to put the plan into practice. Career academies or “school within a school” were created at the high school level to help improve the high school education and the total secondary school experience.

At the post secondary level, the higher education act was enacted that led to the establishment of Palau Community College, which is responsible for all education and workforce development needs beyond high school. This act also delegated the authority for all higher education to the governing board of the college. Palau Community College is now fulfilling the national workforce development needs beyond the first two years of college by negotiating with four year degree granting institutions to deliver programs on the island. With the advent of distance learning technology, such programs may very well become the norm.

CHAPTER 5

Summary, Findings and Discussions, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Palau, part of the geographical region called Micronesia, was administered by Spain, Germany, Japan and the United States for almost 250 years. In 1981, it became a semi self-governing nation under its own constitution and in 1994 an independent nation under a Compact of Free Association with the United States of America. This study looked at Workforce Development from the Pre-Contact era to 1999.

Summary

The study examined workforce development policies established during the pre-contact Palau era until five years after its declaration of independence in 1999. The objectives of the study were to provide a clear picture of workforce development policies under each era. This dissertation sought to answer the following questions: 1. What workforce development policies existed under each era? 2. Were there differences in the way policies were developed across these eras? 3. Were goals and objectives clear and evident and were there an established way to determine whether goals were met? 4. How did workforce policies fit into the overall orientation of the governing group?

The traditional system of workforce development for the people of Palau relied heavily on the skills and values that were needed to survive in a small island community. In addition to the training of skills, the traditional system focused on respect. Sharing and cooperation, participation in community activities, hard work, responsibility and self-reliance, spirituality and humility were all considered necessary values. In the pre-contact

era, the people of Palau understood and believed that Palau was a world unto itself and the horizon was the end of the world. The early Palauans believed that theirs was the best of all cultures. Therefore traditional workforce development included the skill training that was necessary for establishing and maintaining the general well being of the community. That was the way people were trained and that was the purpose of the training.

When the Spanish first established an administration for Palau, changes began to occur in the traditional workforce development system. A system of training was instituted that benefited the Spanish protectorate. Spain's control over Palau was nominal. The administration's focus was the introduction of and teaching of the Catholic Doctrine. Based on this objective, training and workforce development were designed for the benefit of Spain and its administrators in the Western Pacific.

The German administration increased production of copra and introduced phosphate mining, which led to a new work ethic that began to transform the values of traditional society. Many of the village clubhouses were not rebuilt when they were either burned down or rotted away. Instead Palauans began to follow a system of labor, though traditional in nature, that was supported by the German administrators for the sake of economic well-being. The German administrators outlawed inter-village welfare, the practice of exchanging concubines and in many instances discouraged tattooing. They tried to limit the authority of chiefs. They introduced Western money, encouraging people to work to earn money in order to exist.

Japan ruled Palau under the mandate of the League of Nations. The mandate obligated Japan to promote the material and moral well-being and social progress of

Palauans; to abolish slavery, traffic in arms, and alcoholic beverages; to refrain from building military bases; and to permit freedom of worship and missionary activity.

Japan's administration and attitude toward Palau was different than the Germans and the Spanish. Palau was to be remade in the image of Japan. Thousands upon thousands of Japanese colonists were encouraged to settle in Palau. A formal system of education was introduced. Palauan children were required to attend school from first to third grade, a selected few were allowed to attend additional schooling until fifth grade and those who passed an examination were sent to specialized training. Under the Japanese rule there were two schools—one for the Japanese children and one for the indigenous children. Japan established a *Mokko Totei Yojeijo* for indigenous students who finished the highest elementary grade. It was an apprentice workers' school that trained carpenters and later on mechanical trades were included.

When the United States took over the administration of Palau after World War II it had to basically rebuild everything. The Americans began with the introduction of the mass production of food and the establishment of governmental institutions. The next focus was schooling and training for the Palauans which began with the establishment of public and parochial elementary and intermediate schools. High schools were established next and immediately after that a Palau Vocational School, which was an outgrowth of the Japanese wood workers' school, *Mokko Totei Yojeijo*. It continued until 1965, when, during a session of the Congress of Micronesia, the leaders of all the six districts, including Palau, met and decided that it was extremely important to train people in the various skills that would be necessary to build their districts, as these islands were called at the time. This goal would become a reality in 1969 when Palau Vocational School was converted

and established as a regional Micronesian Occupational Center (MOC). Palau Vocational School programs were continued at Palau High School. MOC continued to be an institution of higher education focusing on workforce development for the region until 1977 when the Congress of Micronesia created a region-wide College of Micronesia umbrella system which included three campuses: Micronesian Occupational College in Palau, the Community College of Micronesia (a teacher-training institution) in Pohnpei and a School of Nursing in Saipan. MOC received its first accreditation in 1978 from the Western Association of Schools and Colleges. This was an important step that enabled MOC to send its graduates to study outside of Palau and the region.

On July 12, 1978, Palau through a district-wide plebiscite, voted overwhelmingly to seek a separate status negotiation with the United States. The U.S. agreed, so Palau drafted a constitution in 1979 and became a separate self-governing entity (but still a Trust Territory) directly under the Department of Interior. Under the new constitution, the Ministry of Social Services took over the role of education and health from the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands Administration as well as that of the Palau District. All Kinder to 12 programs were placed under this ministry. Thanks to the generosity of the United States, Palau became eligible for all U.S. federal programs, which enabled the continuation of various workforce development programs.

Micronesian Occupational College continued to be a regional college while the three separate island groups were working earnestly to ratify their respective Compacts of Free Association with the United States. The Federated States of Micronesia (Pohnpei, Chuuk, Yap and Kosrae) and the Republic of the Marshall Islands ratified their COFA declared their respective independence with the exception of Palau. It would take Palau

another eight years and an amendment to its constitution to finally have its Compact of Free Association approved. While waiting for Palau to ratify its COFA, a College of Micronesia Treaty was forged for the governance of the unified college administered by the three governments. The treaty called for the establishment of three national colleges, one each for the Marshall Islands (College of the Marshall Islands), the Federated States of Micronesia (College of Micronesia-FSM) and Palau (Palau Community College). A year before Palau's declaration of independence, Republic of Palau Public Law 4-2, the Higher Education Act of 1993, created Palau Community College, Palau's first institution of higher education for liberal arts and workforce development.

Findings and Discussions

This dissertation sought to answer four questions. The following were significant findings that relate to each of the questions posed at the outset of the study. The following of findings addresses the four questions.

First, in responding to the question of the existence of workforce development in each era, the study found that during the pre-contact to 1885 era, Palau had its own modes and means of workforce development. These ways of operating were well established in the pre-contact era; some still exist today: father-son, mother-daughter, community-based learning, and the master apprentice system. The development of these established means of training were something that developed and were passed on as part of culture rather than the result of policy from a government. Some of the skills identified and modes of training have been lost as a result of contact with the Western world, namely the building of men's traditional meeting houses (*Abai*), canoe building, carving and painting. With the hosting

of the recently concluded Festival of Pacific Arts in 2004, there is hope that a renaissance of sorts might lead to the resurrection of some if not all of these skills.

Second, in response to the question on the existence of workforce development policies, the study found that Spain had minimal policies that had any lasting impact in workforce development. It did, however, introducing schooling as an activity conducted away from home. Furthermore, Spain introduced Catholicism, which is practiced today by almost 50% of the indigenous Palauan population. While the pre-contact Palauans were concerned about their basic day-to-day living, the Spanish were focused on fulfilling their country's mission including promoting the Catholic religion.

Third, in response to the question about the existence of workforce development policies, the study found that the Germans introduced the first concept of institutionalized schools. These schools were mostly left to the missionaries to run. Furthermore, the German administration of Palau stood in sharp contrast to the administration of Spain. Immediately after seizing power in Palau, the German administration moved quickly to put an end to two major activities, thereby changing the whole history of Palau. They decreed that inter-village warfare and the customary, well-coordinated custom of exchanging concubines would cease and any perpetrators would be punished by capital punishment. This change would free up young people's time, which then could be utilized for training for meaningful employment.

Fourth, in response to the question of the existence of workforce development policies, the study found that the Japanese established public schools to benefit the indigenous children. The schools were segregated and local children were not permitted to

go beyond 3rd grade except for few selected students. The biggest contribution of the Japanese was the establishment of the first workforce development program through the founding of the Woodworkers Training School. This school was so successful that immediately after World War II the Palauans who graduated from the school urged that it be re-established, which was done with the support of and to the credit of the United States Administration.

Fifth, in response to the question of differences in the way policies were developed, the study found the following: 1. The pre-contact Palauans did things out of necessity and by trial and error; 2. The Spanish policies were for the glory of god and motherland and did not allow indigenous peoples participation; 3. German policies were geared for economic development reasons and utilized indigenous people as a result of training and at times by force; 4. Japanese policies were geared for the benefit of the motherland and involvement of indigenous people was allowed to the extent that it supported this goal; 5. United States government wanted the people to be self-governing as long as Palau (and the rest of Micronesia) would serve its defensive posture in the Pacific. It introduced so many policies, which resulted in many different programs. In the end allowed the indigenous people to choose what work for them; and 6. Palau inherited programs from the Trust Territory and continues to receive support from the United States under the terms of the Compact of Free Association.

Sixth, in response to the question of whether goals and objectives were clear and evident and there was an established way to determine whether goals were met, the study found that the goals were clear that people were supposed to be trained for immediate work

in or for the community or for gainful employment. Over time, however, precedence was given to academic subjects, which essentially relegated manual training to a second-class status.

Seventh, the study found that there were really two Naval administrations, one military under the Department of Defense, and the other civilian under the Department of the Interior. At the outset, under the United States administration, schools were re-established and education was made universal. A coordinated teacher development program was established through the creation of the Pacific Islands Teacher Training School (PITTS) in Guam, which later moved to Chuuk.

Eight, the study found that although the United States administration worked tirelessly to improve workforce training and education in general, the United Nations Visiting Mission was often critical of the United States accomplishment, vis-à-vis the Trusteeship Agreement. As result, the Trust Territory Government accelerated the development of all educational programs and made available to the islands all federally funded programs including all workforce related programs such as PCV, Voc. Ed., MDTA, CETA, JTPA, and later STW and WIA. All of these were made possible by treating the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands (TTPI) as a state for the purposes of appropriating U.S. federal funds for the region.

Ninth, in response to the question of the existence of workforce development policies, the study found that the Trust Territory Government through the Congress of Micronesia established the first post-secondary educational institution in Palau, called Micronesian Occupational College (MOC). This school was an outgrowth of Palau

Vocational School, which traced its roots to the Woodworker's Training School established under the Japanese Administration in 1926. This school offered Certificate of Completion, Certificate of Achievement and Associate Degree programs that met all the workforce development needs of Palau and the region. When the three regions established their own separate nations under the Compact of Free Association with the United States, a regional treaty was signed allocating one campus from the three-campus College of Micronesia to each nation. The School of Nursing on the island of Majuro in the Republic of the Marshall Islands became the College of the Marshall Islands (CMI). The Community College of Micronesia (CCM) on the island of Pohnpei in the Federated States of Micronesia (FSM) became the College of Micronesia-FSM. Micronesian Occupational College in Koror, Palau, became Palau Community College (PCC).

Tenth, the study found that the Republic of Palau inherited all educational and workforce development programs from the Trust Territory Administration. Although, by 1981, Palau began running its own constitutional government, there was still an oversight on the part of the U.S. Department of the Interior, through the Office of the Assistant Secretary, because Palau at that time had failed to approve the Compact of Free Association. The delayed approval of the COFA was due to an impasse that resulted from Palau adopting the world's first Nuclear Free Constitution.

Eleventh, in response to the question of workforce policies fitting in, the study found that after Palau declared its independence in 1994, it continued to support U.S. modeled programs, under a more coordinated plan developed by stakeholders, called the Palau 2000 Education Master Plan. This plan called for a system that is designed to

prepare students for the modern world (not just the Palauan world) they will live in – a world that requires a lifetime of learning.

Twelve, in response to the question of the existence of workforce development policies, the study found that Career Pathways Model for Palau High School led to the creation of five academies which are being linked with programs at Palau Community College. These academies are: Arts and Humanities, Natural Resources, Health and Human Services, Industrial Engineering and Business Information Systems.

Thirteenth, the study found that the influx of non-residents workers to Palau is not a result of the “lack of workforce development” programs. There are two possible reasons. First, there are simply not enough indigenous people in Palau to meet the demands of the ever increasing needs of the growing service industry, namely tourism. Secondly, the few who seek training and are well prepared tend to seek employment in the government due to generous wages and other visible fringe benefits, that are often lacking from the private sector.

Conclusion

It is concluded based on this study that workforce development has played a significant role in traditional Palauan society since the pre-contact era and throughout the various administering eras from 1885 to 1999. Beginning with pre-contact Palau, and during the Spanish, German, Japanese, United States and Republic of Palau eras, workforce development had strong support and involvement from parents, traditional leaders, the community and the government.

It is concluded that Palau is indeed a nation that is over-governed, but it is not underdeveloped. Furthermore, Palau is not over-educated and neither is it under-trained. The economic realities of the modern-day Palau have changed. However, the cultural mindset has not changed over time.

Recommendations

If these recommendations are considered by the people and the Government of Palau, they might very well present new opportunities for the new nation as it attempts to provide what is best for the people.

First, programs to train professional educators in Palau are sorely needed and warranted. Increased support from the government and donor countries will be appreciated. Palauans will not beg for “proverbial fish”, they seek ways and means to go out fishing.

Second, the government should consider establishing a single minimum wage scale that would be applicable to both public and private sectors, similar to the one in the United States, although not the same rate. Enrollment in workforce development programs tends to be higher in those areas that command higher wages, notably in Information Technology, Criminal Justice, Education and Marine and Environmental Sciences.

Third, the Career Academies currently being offered at the only public high school should be made available to the parochial schools (there are five of them). Since parochial

schools do not have funds to support their own academies, they devote their resources to college-preparatory programs. This has led to a serious accusation that parochial schools prepare their students for “white collar” professions while public high schools are relegated to the preparation of “blue collar workers”. Unfortunate, but true in Palau.

Fourth, establish through the International Labour Organization (ILO) or United States Department of Labor an effective system of apprenticeship training that prepares people for journeyman status. This could be an add-on to the college program. However, the college’s role should be limited to providing general education requirements.

Fifth, the economic terms of Palau’s Compact of Free Association with the United States of America will expire in four years. The government of Palau should impress on its friends in the United States that they ought to continue their support in the area of education. In due time, but within the terms of the Compact of Free Association, the support to Palau will have been worth the effort.

Sixth, a translation of more documents from Spanish, German and Japanese era would be much appreciated.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

West Pacific Islands

Source: Office of Insular Affairs (OIA) website (2004).

APPENDIX B

CHRONOLOGY OF PALAU FLAGS

SPAIN
1875 - 1899

GERMANY
1899 - 8 Oct. 1914

JAPAN
8 Oct. 1914 - Sept 1944

UNITED STATES
Sep 1944 - 1 Oct 1994

PACIFIC IS. TRUST TERR
24 Oct 1962 - 1 Jan 1981

REPUBLIC OF PALAU
Adopted 1 Jan 1981

Source: www.worldstatesmen.org/Palau.htm

APPENDIX C

View of Part of the Town of PELEW, and the place of Council

Source: Keate, George (1789). An Account of the Pelew Islands, p. 123.

APPENDIX D

St. Matthew's Island after a Storm on the Spot by J. H. H. H. H. H.

Longfellow's Island

View of the CAUSEWAY or landing place at PELEW.

Source: Keate, George (1789). *An Account of the Pelew Islands*, p. 120.

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APPENDIX F

CHRONOLOGY OF PALAU'S LEADERSHIP

Traditional Chiefs *Note:* Palau is divided into two regions, Eoueldaob and Babeldaob (Babelthuap; dominated by one big island). The highest chief in Eoueldaob (and in his own estimation in all Palau) is the *Ibedul*, the chief of Oreor (Koror) (ritual name *Ngerekldau*); the highest chief in Babeldaob is the *Reklai*, the chief of Melekeok (ritual name *Ngetelngal*), following an earlier line of chiefs with the style *Tmekei*.

Chiefs (title *Ibedul*)

1783 - 1792	Ngiraidid Chorot "mlad er a burek" [not the first <i>Ibedul</i>]
1792 -	Kingsos
.... -	Ngiratachadong
.... -	Meang Merikl "meringel a kemedil"
.... - 1867	Ngirachosarech "mlad er a soldau" (d. 1867)
1867 - 1872	Meresou
1872 -	Ngirchokebai
.... -	Louch
.... - 29 Jan 1939	Tem
1939 - 19..	Ngiraked
19.. - 1972	Ngoriakl (d. 1972)
1972 -	Yutaka Miller Gibbons
1972 - 1974	Gloria Salii (f) (acting for Gibbons)

Chiefs (title *Reklai*)

.... -	Orakiruu [not the first <i>Reklai</i>]
1800?	Cheltuk
18.. - 18..	Okerangel
1880? - 1890?	Temol
.... -	Ngirachermang
.... -	Soilokel
.... - 192.	Rrull

Chiefs (title *Reklai*), continued

192. - 19..	Frutoso Tellei
d. 1969	Brel
1973?	Lomisang
1978?	Termeteet (acting)
d. 1993	Siangeldeb Basilius
1998? - Present	Raphael Bao Ngirmang

German Administration**Governors**

1899-Oct 1914 Palau was administered by the governors of German New Guinea:

1 Apr 1899 - 10 Jul 1901	Rudolf von Bennigsen	(b. 1860 - d. 1912)
10 Jul 1901 - 13 Apr 1914	Albert Hahl (s.a.)	(acting to 10 Nov 1902)
13 Apr 1914 - 17 Oct 1914	Eduard Haber (acting)	(b. 1866 - d. 1947)

District Officers

1899- 3 Oct 1914 Palau was under the District Officers of the Western Caroline Islands (*Yap and Palau [and from 1907 Saipan]*)

29 Jun 1886 - 18..	Manuel de Elisa	
bf.Nov 1897 - af.Nov 1898	S. Cortes	
1899 - 1909	Arno Senfft	(b. 1864 - d. 1909)
1909	Rudolf Karlowa	
1909 - 1910	Georg Fritz	
1910 - 1911	Hermann Kersting	
1911 - 1914	Baumert	

Japanese Administration

Commanders of Interim Southern Islands Defense Unit (in charge of administration of the Caroline, Marshall, Northern Mariana and Palau islands)

28 Dec 1914 – 6 Aug 1915	Tatsu Matsumura	(b. 1868 – d. 1932)
6 Aug 1915 – 1 Dec 1916	Kichitaro Togo	(b. 1866 – d. 1942)
1 Dec 1916 – 1 Dec 1917	Masujiro Yoshida	(b. 1867 – d. 1942)
1 Dec 1917 – 1 Dec 1919	Yasujiro Nagata	(b. 1866 – d. 1923)
1 Dec 1919 – 1 Apr 1922	Kojoro Nozaki	(b. 1872 – d. 1946)

Head of Civil Government of Interim South Seas Defense

1 Jul 1918 – 1 Apr 1922	Toshiro Tezuko
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Governors

1 Apr 1922 – 4 Apr 1923	Toshiro Tezuko	
4 Apr 1923 – 11 Oct 1931	Gosuke Yokota	(d. 1931)
12 Oct 1931 – 21 Nov 1931	Mitsusada Horiguchi	
21 Nov 1931 – 5 Feb 1932	Kazuo Tawara	
5 Feb 1932 – 4 Aug 1933	Masayuki Matsuda	
4 Aug 1933 – 19 Sep 1936	Hisao Hayashi	
19 Sep 1936 – 9 Apr 1940	Kenjiro Kitajima	(b. 1893- d. 1957)
9 Apr 1940 – 5 Nov 1943	Shunsuke Kondo	(b. 1819? – d. 1966)
5 Nov 1943 – 2 Feb 1944	Ishiro Hosokaya	(b. 1888 – d. 1964)

United States Administration

Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands High Commissioners

1945	Admiral R.A. Spruance	Military Governor
Oct 1945 – Apr 1946	Cdr. Alfred J. Byrsholdt	Officer in charge of Military Government in Palau

Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands High Commissioners, continued

May 1946 – Sept 1946	Lt. Cdr. Carroll D. Anderson	Officer in charge of Military Government in Palau
Oct 1946 – June 1947	Cdr. William C. Ball	Officer in charge of Military Government in Palau
18 July 1947 – 17 Apr 1948	Admiral Louise E. Denfield	First High Commissioner of TTPI
17 Apr 1948 – 1 May 1949	Admiral Dewitt C. Ramsey	High Commissioner
1 May 1949 – 30 June 1951	Admiral Arthur W. Radford	High Commissioner
1951 – Feb 1953	Elbert E. Thomas	High Commissioner
Feb 1953 – Sept 1954	Frank D. Midkiff	High Commissioner
Oct 1954 – Oct 1956	Delmas H. Nucker	Acting High Commissioner
Nov 1956 – Mar 1961	Delmas H. Nucker	High Commissioner
Apr 1961 – May 1966	M. Wilfred Goding	High Commissioner
27 May 1966 – 31 July 1966	William R. Norwood	Acting High Commissioner
1 Aug 1966 – 30 Apr 1969	William R. Norwood	High Commissioner
1 May 1969 – 30 Apr 1976	Edward E. Johnston	High Commissioner
1976 – 1977	Peter T. Coleman	Acting High Commissioner
Feb 1977 – May 1977	J. Boyd Mackenzie	Acting High Commissioner
June 1977 – 1980	Adrian P. Winkel	High Commissioner
1981 – 1986	Janet McCoy	High Commissioner

**Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands District Administrator (DistAd)
for Palau District**

1953 – 1955	Donald Heron	DistAd – Palau & Yap
1955 – Sept 1958	Donald Heron	DistAd – Palau
Oct 1958 - 23 Aug 1959	Francis B. Mahoney	Acting DistAd – Palau
24 Aug 1959 - June 1962	Francis B. Mahoney	DistAd – Palau
Jan/Mar 1962 - Oct 1964	Takeo A. Yano	Acting DistAd – Palau
July 1962 - 1964	Manuel Godinez	DistAd – Palau
1965 - Apr 1969	J. Boyd Mackenzie	DistAd – Palau
May 1969 - Nov 1969	James Flannery	Acting DistAd – Palau??
Nov 1969 - Mar 1970	Thomas O. Remengesau	Acting DistAd – Palau
Apr 1970 - 1978	Thomas O. Remengesau	DistAd – Palau
1979 - 1980	Kim Batcheller	Acting DistAd – Palau

Director of the Palau Office of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands

1 Oct 1991 – 24 Oct 1994 Victor Hobson

Republic of Palau Administration

Presidents

2 Mar 1981 – 30 Jun 1985	Haruo Ignacio Remeliik* (b. 1934 – d. 1985) Non-party
30 Jun 1985 – 2 Jul 1985	Thomas Ongelibel Remengesau Non-party (1 st time) (acting)
2 Jul 1985 – 25 Oct 1985	Alfonso Rebechong Oiterong Non-party
25 Oct 1985 – 20 Aug 1988	Lazarus Eitaro Salii** (b. 1935 – d. 1988) Non-party

Republic of Palau Administration: Presidents, continued

20 Aug 1988 – 1 Jan 1989	Thomas Ongelibel Remengesau Non-party (2 nd time)
1 Jan 1989 – 1 Jan 1993	Ngiratkel Etpison (b. 1925? – d. 1997) Non-party
1 Jan 1993 – 1 Jan 2001	Kuniwo Nakamura (b. 1943) Non-party
1 Jan 2001 –	Thomas “Tommy” Remengesau, Jr. (b.1956) Non-party

(No Political Parties Exist)

*elected for a second term and assassinated in June 1985

** committed suicide in August 1988

Source: www.worldstatesmen.org/Palau.htm

APPENDIX G

PALAU BRANCH GOVERNMENT- 1941

Source: Office of the Chief of Naval Operations. (1944). Civil Affairs Handbook: West Caroline Islands, OPNAV P22-7, p. 84.

APPENDIX H

STRUCTURAL DIAGRAMS OF OYABUN-KOBUN-LIKE ORGANIZATIONS IN KOROR, PALAU

- - Supervisor (Jap.: Kantoku; Pal.: Merreder may be used here also)
- - Biological Kin of Oyabun
- " "- Quotations indicate some reserve toward use of terms, or as in case of "Carpenter" the absence of adequate English equivalent
- Blank indicates absence of equivalent in language indicated

Source: Robert K. McKnight. The Oyabun-Kobun in Palau.
Anthropological Working Paper, July 1959.

APPENDIX I

TRUSTEESHIP AGREEMENT

WHEREAS Article 75 of the Charter of the United Nations provides for the establishment of an international trusteeship system for the administration and supervision of such territories as may be placed thereunder by subsequent agreements; and

WHEREAS under Article 77 of the said Charter the trusteeship system may be applied to territories now held under mandate; and

WHEREAS on 17 December 1920 the Council of the League of Nations confirmed a mandate for the former German islands north of the equator to Japan, to be administered in accordance with Article 22 of the Covenant of the League of Nations; and

WHEREAS Japan, as a result of the Second World War, has ceased to exercise any authority in these islands;

NOW THEREFORE, the Security Council of the United Nations, having satisfied itself that the relevant articles of the Charter have been complied with, hereby resolves to approve the following terms of trusteeship for the Pacific Islands formerly under mandate to Japan.

ARTICLE 1

The Territory of the Pacific Islands, consisting of the islands formerly held by Japan under mandate in accordance with Article 22 of the Covenant of the League of Nations, is hereby designated as a strategic area and placed under the trusteeship system established in the Charter of the United Nations. The Territory of the Pacific

Islands is hereinafter referred to as the trust territory.

ARTICLE 2

The United States of America is designated as the administering authority of the trust territory.

ARTICLE 3

The administering authority shall have full powers of administration, legislation, and jurisdiction over the territory subject to the provisions of this agreement, and may apply to the trust territory, subject to any modifications which the administering authority may consider desirable, such of the laws of the United States as it may deem appropriate to local conditions and requirements.

ARTICLE 4

The administering authority, in discharging the obligations of trusteeship in the trust territory, shall act in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations, and the provisions of this agreement, and shall, as specified in article 83 (2) of the Charter, apply the objectives of the international trusteeship system, as set forth in Article 76 of the Charter, to the people of the trust territory.

ARTICLE 5

In discharging its obligations under Article 76(a) and Article 84, of the Charter, the administering authority shall ensure that the trust territory shall play its part, in accordance with

Trusteeship Agreement

the Charter of the United Nations, in the maintenance of international peace and security. To this end the administering authority shall be entitled:

1. to establish naval, military and air bases and to erect fortifications in the trust territory;
2. to station and employ armed forces in the territory; and
3. to make use of volunteer forces, facilities and assistance from the trust territory in carrying out the obligations toward the Security Council undertaken in this regard by the administering authority, as well as for the local defense and maintenance of law and order within the trust territory.

ARTICLE 6

In discharging its obligations under Article 76(b) of the Charter, the administering authority shall:

1. foster the development of such political institutions as are suited to the trust territory and shall promote the development of the inhabitants of the trust territory toward self-government or independence as may be appropriate to the particular circumstances of the trust territory and its peoples and the freely expressed wishes of the peoples concerned; and to this end shall give to the inhabitants of the trust territory a progressively increasing share in the administrative services in the territory; shall develop their participation in government; shall give due recognition to the customs of the inhabitants in providing a system of law for the territory; and shall take other appropriate measures toward these ends:

2. promote the economic advancement and self-sufficiency of the inhabitants, and to this end shall regulate the use of natural resources; encourage the development of fisheries, agriculture, and industries; protect the inhabitants against the loss of their lands and resources; and improve the means of transportation and communications;

3. promote the social advancement of the inhabitants, and to this end shall protect the rights and fundamental freedoms of all elements of the populations without discrimination; protect the health of the inhabitants; control the traffic in arms and ammunition, opium and other dangerous drugs; and institute such other regulations as may be necessary to protect the inhabitants against social abuses; and

4. promote the educational advancement of the inhabitants, and to this end shall take steps toward the establishment of a general system of elementary education; facilitate the vocational and cultural advancement of the population; and shall encourage qualified students to pursue higher education, including training on the professional level.

ARTICLE 7

In discharging its obligations under Article 76(c) of the Charter, the administering authority shall guarantee to the inhabitants of the trust territory freedom of conscience, and, subject only to the requirements of public order and security, freedom of speech, of the press, and of assembly; freedom of worship, and of religious teaching; and freedom of migration and movement.

ARTICLE 8

1. In discharging its obligations under Article 76(d) of the Charter, as defined by Article 83(2) of the Charter, the administering authority, subject to the requirements of security, and the obligation to promote the advancement of the inhabitants, shall accord to nationals of each Member of the United Nations and to companies and associations organized in conformity with the laws of such Member, treatment in the trust territory no less favorable than that accorded there to nationals, companies and associations of any other United Nation except the administering

FISCAL YEAR 1989

authority.

2. The administering authority shall ensure equal treatment of the Members of the United Nations and their nationals in the administration of justice.

3. Nothing in this Article shall be so construed as to accord traffic rights to aircraft flying into and out of the trust territory. Such rights shall be subject to agreement between the administering authority and the state whose nationality such aircraft possesses.

4. The administering authority may negotiate and conclude commercial and other treaties and agreements with Members of the United Nations and other states, designed to attain for the inhabitants of the trust territory treatment by the Members of the United Nations and other states no less favorable than that granted by them to the nationals of other states. The Security Council may recommend, or invite other organizations of the United Nations to consider and recommend what rights the inhabitants of the trust territory should acquire in consideration of the rights obtained by Member of the United Nations in the trust territory.

ARTICLE 9

The administering authority shall be entitled to constitute the trust territory into a custom, fiscal, or administrative union or federation with other territories and the trust territory where such measures are not inconsistent with the basic objectives of the International Trusteeship System and with the terms of this agreement.

ARTICLE 10

The administering authority acting under the provisions of Article 3 of this agreement, may accept membership in any regional advisory commission, regional authority or technical organization, or other voluntary association

of states, may co-operate with specialized international bodies, public or private, and may engage in other forms of international co-operation.

ARTICLE 11

1. The administering authority shall take the necessary steps to provide the status of citizenship of the trust territory for the inhabitants of the trust territory.

2. The administering authority shall afford diplomatic and consular protection to inhabitants of the trust territory when outside the territorial limits of the trust territory or of the territory of the administering authority.

ARTICLE 12

The administering authority shall enact such legislation as may be necessary to place the provisions of this agreement in effect in the trust territory.

ARTICLE 13

The provisions of Article 87 and 88 of the Charter shall be applicable to the trust territory, provided that the administering authority may determine the extent of their applicability to any areas which may from time to time be specified by it as closed for security reasons.

ARTICLE 14

The administering authority undertakes to apply in the trust territory the provisions of any international conventions and recommendations which may be appropriate to the particular circumstances of the trust territory and which would be conducive to the achievement of the basic objectives of Article 6 of this agreement.

ARTICLE 15

Trusteeship Agreement

The terms of the present agreement shall not be altered, amended or terminated without the consent of the administering authority.

ARTICLE 16

The present agreement shall come into force when approved by the Security Council of the United Nations and by the Government of the United States after due constitutional process.

FISCAL YEAR 1989

Source: Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, (1989). 42nd Annual Report to the United Nations on the Administration of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, p.84.

APPENDIX J

Source: Source: Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, (1960). 13th Annual Report to the United Nations on the Administration of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, p. 259.

Source: Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, 1974, p. 11.

APPENDIX K

APPENDIX L

PACIFIC ISLANDS TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOL (PITTS)

School of Teacher TrainingFirst Year

<u>First Semester</u>		<u>Second Semester</u>	
Subject:	Credits:	Subject:	Credits:
English I	5	English II	3
Reading	2	Mathematics II	3
Spelling	2	General Science II	2
Mathematics I	3	Industrial Arts II	2
Occupational Study	1	Introduction to	
General Science I	2	Education	3
Industrial Arts I	2	Child Psychology	2
Physical Education	1	Physical Education	1
	<hr/>		<hr/>
Total	18	Total	17

Second Year

<u>First Semester</u>		<u>Second Semester</u>	
Subject:	Credits:	Subject:	Credits:
English III	3	English IV	3
Oral Expression I	3	Oral Expression II	3
Mathematics III	2	Mathematics IV	2
Social Studies I	2	Social Studies II	2
Teaching Methods I	2	School and Class-	
Practice Teaching I	2	room Operation	2
Physical Education	1	Teaching Methods II	2
Agriculture Methods I	2	Practice Teaching	
Art I	2	II	2
		Physical Education	1
		Agricultural Methods	
		II	2
		Drafting or Art II	1
	<hr/>		<hr/>
Total	19	Total	20

School of CommunicationsFirst Year

<u>First Semester</u>		<u>Second Semester</u>	
Subject:	Credits:	Subject:	Credits:
English I	5	English II	3
Reading	2	English Composition	2
Spelling	2	Mathematics II	3
Mathematics I	3	Electricity I	3
Occupational Study	1	Radio Telegraphy I	2
General Science I	2	Drafting	2
Industrial Arts I	2	Industrial Arts II	2
Physical Education	1	Physical Education	1
Total	18	Total	18

Second Year

<u>First Semester</u>		<u>Second Semester</u>	
Subject:	Credits:	Subject:	Credits:
English III	3	English IV	3
Oral Expression I	3	Communications	
Meteorology I	3	Procedures I	2
Mathematics V	2	Meteorology II	3
Electricity II	3	Practical Mathe-	
Radio I	2	matics	2
Radio Telegraphy II	2	Electricity III	3
Physical Education	1	Radio II	2
Total	19	Radio Telegraphy III	2
		Physical Education	1
		Total	18

Third Year

<u>First Semester</u>		<u>Second Semester</u>	
Subject:	Credits:	Subject:	Credits:
Communications		Public Speaking	2
Procedure II	2	Meteorology IV	3
Meteorology III	3	Radio IV	3
Radio III	3	Electricity V	3
Electricity IV	3	International	
Radio Telegraphy IV	2	Procedure	2

Voice Radio I	2	Radic Telegraphy V	2
Social Studies I	2	Voice Radio II	2
Physical Education	1	Physical Education	1
Total	18	Total	18

School of General Education

First Year

<u>First Semester</u>		<u>Second Semester</u>	
Subject:	Credits:	Subject:	Credits:
English I	5	English II	3
Reading	2	Business English	2
Spelling	2	Mathematics II	3
Mathematics I	3	Health	2
Occupational Study	1	General Science II	2
General Science I	2	Elective	2
Industrial Arts I	2	Art I	2
Physical Education	1	Physical Education	1
Total	18	Total	17

Second Year

<u>First Semester</u>		<u>Second Semester</u>	
Subject:	Credits:	Subject:	Credits:
English III	3	English IV	3
Oral Expression I	3	Oral Expression II	3
General Business	3	General Business	3
Economics I	2	Economics II	2
Agricultural Methods I	2	Agricultural Methods II	2
Social Studies I	2	Social Studies II	2
Physical Education	1	Physical Education	1
Electives	0-4		
Total	16-20	Total	17

Third Year

<u>First Semester</u>		<u>Second Semester</u>	
Subject:	Credits:	Subject:	Credits:
Bookkeeping I	3	Bookkeeping II	3
Typewriting I	3	Typewriting II	3

Community Sanitation	2	World Geography	3
Drafting	2	World History	2
Trust Territory Law I	2	Trust Territory	
Physical Education	1	Law II	2
Electives	5-7	Public Speaking	2
		Physical Education	1
		Electives	<u>2-4</u>
Total	18-20	Total	18-20

Source: Smith, Donald Francis. (1968). Education of the Micronesians with Emphasis on the Historical Development, p. 185

APPENDIX M

Source: Palau National Communications Corporation. (2004). Republic of Palau 2004 Telephone Directory, Blue Pages, p. 5.

APPENDIX N

ECONOMIC REPORT 3

REPUBLIC OF PALAU*Land Area*

Number of Islands: more than 200
 Islands inhabited: 9
 Total land area: 170.4 square miles
 Largest Island: Babeldaob (136 square miles)

Population

1990 Census: 15,122
 1995 Census: 17,225
 2000 Census: 19,129
 1980-2000 Growth Rate: 2.3 percent

Political Status

Sovereign nation since 1994
 Compact of Free Association with the United States for 50 years (1994-2044)
 16 states
 Bicameral legislature
 American-style democracy with three branches of government

Economy

Currency: US dollar
 Income sources: Compact payments, tourism, services, trade, subsistence fishing and agriculture
 2002 GDP: \$109.5 million
 2002 per capita GDP: \$5,482
 2000 GDP: \$117.2 million
 2000 per capita GDP: \$6,128
 2000 visitor arrivals: 57,732
 2001 visitor arrivals: 54,111
 2002 visitor arrivals: 58,560

Government Finances

2000 revenues: \$75.0 million
 2000 spending: \$84.5 million
 2001 revenues: \$61.5 million
 2001 spending: \$77.2 million
 2002 revenues: \$70.1 million
 2002 spending: \$79.7 million

Distance from:

Honolulu: 4,500 miles
 California: 7,000 miles
 Australia: 2,500 miles
 Japan: 2,500 miles
 The Philippines: 550
 Papua New Guinea: 410

Source: U.S. Geological Survey, 1986

Osman, Wali M. (2003). Republic of Palau: Economic Report. April 2003.
 Honolulu, HI: Bank of Hawaii.