THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF BOTSWANA
AFTER INDEPENDENCE

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DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation for the degree of Master of Education at the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education, hereby submitted by me, has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this University and that all the sources referred to have been acknowledged.

A. I. KEKESI

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Potchefstroom
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A. I. KEKESI
OPSOMMING

Hierdie studie is gemoeid met die onderwysstelsel van Botswana na onafhanklikheid. Hierdie periode begin op 30 September 1996, toe Botswana onafhanklikheid verkry het, tot op hede. Na die onafhanklikheidswording het die onderwys baie veranderings ondergaan, en die fokus val dus op die aard en omvang van hierdie veranderinge. Die studie identifiseer hierdie veranderinge wat plaasgevind het met betrekking tot die onderwysstelsel van Botswana, vanaf onafhanklikheidswording en met inagneming van die minimum vereistes van die onderwysstelsel van ontwikkelde lande.

Die minimum vereistes wat die onderwysstelsel van ontwikkelde lande moet bereik word bespreek aan die hand van die vier komponente van die onderwysstelsel. Hierdie vier komponente is die onderwysstelselbeleid, onderwysstelseladministrasie, onderwyskundige struktuur en ondersteuningsdienste. Die onderwysstelsel van Botswana na onafhanklikheidswording, as voorbeeld van 'n ontwikkelende land, word in die fokus geplaas.

In hoofstuk 2 word die minimum vereistes van die onderwysstelsel in ontwikkelende lande gegee. Hoofstuk 3 gee ’n historiese perspektief van die onderwysstelsel in Botswana voor onafhanklikheid. Die verskillende historiese tydperke van die onderwysontwikkeling tot en met onafhanklikheidswording, word bepreek.

In hoofstuk 4 word die determinante van die Botswana onderwysstelsel bespreek. Die faktore wat die individuele aard van die onderwysstelsel van Botswana bepaal, is aan die orde gestel.

In hoofstuk 5 is die aard van die onderwysstelselbeleid en onderwysstelseladministrasie van die Botswana onderwysstelsel bespreek en is bepaal tot watter mate dit aan die minimum vereistes van ontwikkelende lande se onderwysstelsels voldoen.
In hoofstuk 6 is die onderwyskundige struktuur en die ondersteuningsdienste van die onderwysstelsel van Botswana geëvalueer in die lig van die minimum vereistes van onderwysstelsels van ontwikkelende lande. Samevattend blyk dit dat die onderwysstelsel van Botswana baie positive veranderinge ondergaan het en dat die Botswana onderwysstelsel goed vergelyk met die minimum vereistes wat vir die onderwysstelsels van ontwikkelende lande gestel word.
SUMMARY

The study is concerned with the education system of Botswana after independence. This period starts from the 30th September 1966, when Botswana became independent up to the present moment. Since then the education system has undergone many changes. Consequently the focus is on the nature and impact of these changes. The study identifies changes which took place with regard to the Education System of Botswana since independence as far as meeting the minimum requirements of education of developing countries are concerned.

The minimum requirements that the education systems of developing countries, must meet are discussed according to the four central components of the education systems, viz. the education system policy, education system administration, structure for teaching and support services. After introducing the problem statement and background in the introductory chapter, the minimum requirements of education systems in developing countries are discussed in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3 then deals with a historical perspective on the education system of Botswana before independence, concentrating on the different historical periods associated with educational development up to independence day.

The study then discusses the determinants of the education system of Botswana after independence in Chapter 4, focussing on the particular factors influencing the Botswana education system.

Finally, Chapter 5 evaluates the level to which the education system policy and education system administration of the education system of Botswana meet the minimum requirements of the education systems of developing countries, while Chapter 6 evaluates the level to which the structure for teaching and support services meet the minimum requirements of the education systems of developing countries. In general, the evaluation
indicates that the education system of Botswana has undergone many positive changes and that the Botswana education system compares favourably with the minimum requirements expected of the education systems of developing countries.

Keywords: Botswana education system; education system policy; education system administration; the structure for teaching; support services.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration ................................................................. ii
Acknowledgements ........................................................... iii
Opsomming ................................................................. iv
Summary ................................................................... vi
List of tables .............................................................. xv
List of figures ............................................................. xvii

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION ............................................. 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION ..................................................... 1
1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM .................................... 1
1.3 THE AIMS OF RESEARCH ........................................... 3
1.4 METHODS OF INVESTIGATION ...................................... 4
   1.4.1 Literature study ............................................... 4
   1.4.2 Interviews ....................................................... 4
1.5 DETERMINATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY ...................... 4
1.6 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION ............................... 4
1.7 CONCLUSION .......................................................... 5
CHAPTER 2 : THE MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES ................................................. 6

2.1 INTRODUCTION ................................................. 6

2.2 THE STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM .................. 6

   2.2.1 The education system policy ................................... 7
   2.2.1.1 Goals, aims and objectives of the education system .... 7
   2.2.1.2 Forms of education system policy ........................ 8

   2.2.2 The education system administration ........................ 8

   2.2.2.1 Formulation, adoption and implementation of the education system policy ............................................. 9
   2.2.2.2 Consultation with the target group ....................... 10
   2.2.2.3 Collection and distribution of finances .................. 10

   2.2.3 The structure for teaching .................................... 10

   2.2.3.1 The structure for education and/or training programmes 11
   2.2.3.2 The learners .............................................. 12
   2.2.3.3 The educators .............................................. 12
   2.2.3.4 The medium of instruction ................................. 13
   2.2.3.5 The physical facilities ..................................... 13

   2.2.4 Support services ............................................. 13

   2.2.4.1 The educators .............................................. 14
   2.2.4.2 The teaching activities and structures ................. 15
   2.2.4.3 The learners .............................................. 15

2.3 MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEMS OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES ................................................. 16

   2.3.1 Education system policy ....................................... 17
   2.3.2 Education system administration ............................. 17
CHAPTER 3 : A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF BOTSWANA BEFORE INDEPENDENCE

3.1 INTRODUCTION .................................................. 20

3.2 NON-FORMAL EDUCATION ................................... 21
  3.2.1 The Difaqane era ...................................... 21
  3.2.2 The pre-literate era ..................................... 22

3.3 FORMAL EDUCATION ......................................... 22
  3.3.1 The missionary education era (1800-1910) ............. 23
  3.3.2 The colonial era (1885-1966) .............................. 24
  3.3.3 The Dumbrell era (1928-1966) ............................. 26

3.4 GENERAL EDUCATION PROVISION BEFORE INDEPENDENCE (1875-1966) .... 28
  3.4.1 Pre-primary education ................................... 28
  3.4.2 Primary education ...................................... 28
  3.4.3 Secondary education .................................... 32
  3.4.4 The Brigades of Botswana ................................ 34
  3.4.5 Trade and Agricultural education ....................... 35
  3.4.6 Teacher Education ..................................... 36
  3.4.7 University education .................................... 37
  3.4.8 Out-of-school education .................................. 38

3.5 CONCLUSION ..................................................... 38
CHAPTER 4 : THE DETERMINANTS OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF BOTSWANA AFTER INDEPENDENCE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

4.2 DETERMINANTS OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

4.2.1 The National ideal for Kagisano as a determinant

4.2.1.1 Education and democracy

4.2.1.2 Education and development

4.2.1.3 Education and self-reliance

4.2.1.4 Education and unity

4.2.1.5 Social and sense of community and mutual responsibility

4.2.2 Culture as a determinant

4.2.2.1 Language as a determinant

4.2.2.2 History as a determinant

4.2.2.3 The economy as a determinant

4.2.2.4 Politics as a determinant

4.2.3 Demography as a determinant

4.3 CONCLUSION

CHAPTER 5 : THE EDUCATION SYSTEM POLICY AND THE EDUCATION SYSTEM ADMINISTRATION OF THE BOTSWANA EDUCATION SYSTEM AFTER INDEPENDENCE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

5.2 THE EDUCATION SYSTEM POLICY
5.2.1 The goals, aims and objectives of the education system of Botswana ........................................... 56
    5.2.1.1 The National Commission on Education of 1977 ........................................... 57
    5.2.1.2 The National Commission on Education of 1993 ........................................... 60
5.2.2 The level to which the education system policy meets the minimum requirements of developing countries ........................................... 62

5.3 THE EDUCATION SYSTEM ADMINISTRATION ........................................... 64
    5.3.1 The organisational structure of personnel ........................................... 64
    5.3.2 Control ........................................... 68
    5.3.3 Financing ........................................... 70

5.4 THE LEVEL TO WHICH THE EDUCATION SYSTEM ADMINISTRATION MEETS THE MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES ........................................... 73

5.5 CONCLUSION ........................................... 73

CHAPTER 6: THE STRUCTURE FOR TEACHING AND SUPPORT SERVICES OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF BOTSWANA AFTER INDEPENDENCE ........................................... 74

6.1 INTRODUCTION ........................................... 74

6.2 THE STRUCTURE FOR TEACHING ........................................... 74
    6.2.1 Education levels and institutions ........................................... 75
        6.2.1.1 Pre-Primary education ........................................... 77
        6.2.1.2 Primary Education ........................................... 77
        6.2.1.3 Secondary Education ........................................... 78
        6.2.1.4 Vocational and Technical Education ........................................... 79
        6.2.1.5 Teacher education ........................................... 81
        6.2.1.6 Tertiary education ........................................... 82
        6.2.1.7 Out of School Education ........................................... 84

xii
6.2.2 The learners and educators ........................................ 85
6.2.3 Medium of instruction ............................................. 89
6.2.4 The physical facilities ............................................ 89
6.2.5 The level to which the structure for teaching meets requirements of developing countries .......................... 90

6.3 SUPPORT SERVICES ................................................... 91
6.3.1 Support services to teaching activities and structures .......... 91
6.3.2 Support services to educators .................................... 92
6.3.3 Support services to learners ..................................... 92
6.3.4 The level to which the support services meet the minimum requirements of developing countries ...................... 93

6.4 CONCLUSION ............................................................. 93

CHAPTER 7 : FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION .......... 94

7.1 INTRODUCTION .......................................................... 94

7.2 SUMMARY ............................................................... 94

7.3 FINDINGS ............................................................... 96
7.3.1 The education system policy ..................................... 96
7.3.2 The education system administration ............................. 96
7.3.3 The structure for teaching ........................................ 97
7.3.4 Support services ................................................... 97

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS .................................................... 98

7.5 PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED DURING THE PERIOD OF RESEARCH .................. 98
7.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH .................................................. 99
7.7 CONCLUSION ......................................................................................... 99

BIBLIOGRAPHY ......................................................................................... 100
APPENDIX 1: LIST OF INTERVIEWEES .................................................... 105
APPENDIX 2: QUESTION SCHEDULE ....................................................... 106
LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 3.1
Primary School Growth 1928-1945 .................................. 29

TABLE 3.2
Growth in African Primary Schooling ................................ 30

TABLE 3.3
European Primary Education 1945-1960 ................................ 31

TABLE 3.4
Coloured Primary Education 1945-1960 ................................ 31

TABLE 3.5
Primary Schools 1960-1966 ....................................... 32

TABLE 3.6
Secondary Education 1945-1960 .................................... 33

TABLE 4.1
Age Distribution of the Population, 1991 .............................. 53

TABLE 4.2
Projection of the De Facto Population, 1991-2016 ........................ 54

TABLE 5.1
Budgetary allocation, 1993/94 Financial year - Ministry of education ............ 71

TABLE 5.2
Recurrent unit cost in Pulas of various levels of education: 1984/85, 1989/90 financial years ................................................ 72

TABLE 6.1
Number of new apprentice contracts per year ........................... 80
LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 5.1
Organisational Structure of the Education Ministry ....................... 65

FIGURE 5.2
Inter-Ministerial Linkage ................................................... 67

FIGURE 6.1
The Future Structure of the Education and Training System ............... 76
CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The education system of a country is described as an orderly structure to provide in the educational needs of all its citizens. Steyn (1994:5) defines the education system as a structure for effective teaching to provide for the education needs of a specific group of people. This structure comprises of four components, namely, education system policy, education system administration, structure for teaching and support services (Steyn, 1994:5).

In this chapter, the research problem will be delineated, the aims of research and the methods of investigation described. Lastly, the determination of the field of study and the structure of the study will be given.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Every country will always have its own unique education system because of specific factors called determinants operating in that specific education system (Steyn, 1994:49). However, the characteristics and problems of developing countries tend to be similar in nature. For example, Kenya as a developing country faces geographical, socio-economic and cultural problems in trying to enhance Basic Education (Seisa & Youngman, 1993:2). Botswana, like most of the third world countries, has an acute shortage of properly qualified teachers (Malao, 1985:186). Despite all the problems experienced by developing countries, there are certain minimum requirements that an education system must meet. Some of these requirements are as follows (Steyn, 1993:185 - 187):

- The educational facilities and opportunities must be available and the quality of educational output must conform to the primary basis of international opinion.
• There must be a core curriculum which provides for equal opportunities for every individual and general education which provides the opportunity for competitive success and useful learning with regard to vocational applicability.

• It is also acknowledged that education on its own cannot bring about the required community development but that it should assist the required socio-economic development.

• The state should provide the legal and financial base for educational provision and should guarantee the minimum content and standards of education.

• The parents should be involved in all non-didactic activities and decisions of the school.

These minimum requirements must be adapted to suit the needs of the local target group in a particular country. One example of such a developing country is Botswana. The Republic of Botswana is a land-locked African State which became independent on the 30th September 1966. It is a Republic that lies at the centre of the Southern African plateau at a mean altitude of about 1000 metres with an area of 570 000 square kilometres (Cameron, 1983: 19). The education system of Botswana before independence was missionary dominated, and South African orientated. Since independence the development has been remarkable (Cameron, 1983: 32).

At the time of independence, the education system was so small that only half of the children of the appropriate ages ever saw the inside of a primary school, whilst far fewer completed the primary course. This bleak picture has changed radically since then because in 1975 the total enrolment at primary and secondary schools increased from 52% of school-going age children to 88% of school-going age children in 1990. At present, education is not compulsory but the government aims to provide access to nine years of basic education by the late 1990's (The Europa World Year Book, 1996: 1:625). For example, The National Development Plans of 1966 and 1968 recommended the expansion and improvement of secondary education in Botswana. The enormous expansion of the education service since independence has been the result of sustained government action (Coles, 1985:47).

The most important report on education in Botswana during the post-independence period has been the National Commission on Education of 1977 called "Education for Kagisano" (Cameron,1983: 32). The recommendations of this commission were accepted by the government and also incorporated in the 1979-1985 National Development Plan. Despite some interesting and exciting innovations, education generally has failed to
satisfy the hopes of the people of Botswana. In the 1980’s the education system underwent significant changes in size, structure and complexity (Kgomanyane, 1994:551). The school system has been restructured from a 7 - 3 - 2 pattern to a 7 - 2 - 3 pattern, and a new partnership between the Ministry of Education and local communities in the management of junior secondary schools has been forged (Ogunniyi, 1995:97). The current demands of the economy and the plans for its future development are important determinants of the strategy for education and training. In 1992 a National Commission on Education was appointed and completed its work in 1993. Its proposals for the future development of education have been based on a vision of society in the 21’st Century (Botswana, 1993b:vi). This vision stipulates that education should make a major contribution to economic growth and social progress, within the context of national development.

Against this background, the problem of the research project therefore is: What changes took place with regard to the Botswana Education System since independence with respect to meeting the minimum requirements of education systems of developing countries?

1.3 THE AIMS OF RESEARCH

The aim of research is to indicate the changes in the education system of Botswana since independence and to describe to which level the education system meets the minimum requirements of the education system of developing countries. The specific objectives of the research are:

- To identify the minimum requirements of the education system of developing countries.
- To provide a historical description of the education system of Botswana before independence.
- To identify the determinants of the present education system.
- To evaluate the level to which the education system policy and education system administration of Botswana meet the minimum requirements of education systems of developing countries.
- To evaluate the level to which the structure for teaching and support services of the education system of Botswana meet the minimum requirements of developing countries.
1.4 METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

The following methods of research were employed:

1.4.1 Literature study

Primary and secondary sources were objectively and thoroughly studied (after being identified by using the “ERIC” data base, “Education Index” and the “Repetorium van Suid - Afrikaanse tydskrifartikels” search in the library of the Potchefstroomse Universiteit). Other sources were obtained from Botswana’s Education Ministry as well as from the University of Botswana. Recent sources on Botswana’s education system have proved difficult to find in South African universities.

1.4.2 Interviews

Interviews with officials of the Ministry in Botswana were conducted by using a question schedule in order to verify data and to obtain missing information. Other people who are not officials were also selected on the basis of their experience, position and knowledge of the education system, e.g. principals, teachers and ordinary citizens. All were interviewed using a question schedule.

1.5 DETERMINATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY

The research will focus on the description of the education system of people living within the geographical borders of Botswana.

1.6 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

The dissertation is structured as follows:

- Chapter 2 deals with the minimum requirements of the education system of developing countries.
- In Chapter 3 a historical perspective on the education system of Botswana before independence is discussed.
• In Chapter 4, the determinants of the education system of Botswana after independence are dealt with.
• Chapter 5 deals with the education system policy and the education system administration of the education system of Botswana after independence.
• In Chapter 6, the structure for teaching and support services of education system of Botswana after independence is discussed.
• Chapter 7 deals with findings, conclusion and recommendations.

1.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the problem of research regarding the education system of Botswana after independence is formulated and the aims and objectives of the research are also indicated. The determination of the field of study is stated and the structure of the dissertation is also explained. The following chapter focuses on the minimum requirements of the education system of developing countries.
CHAPTER 2

THE MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

All education systems are basically a means or instrument created by a community in order to provide education for its members. The sum of all educational activities undertaken in a purposeful and systematic way in a community constitute the education system (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:6). An education system can be described as a logistical framework. Steyn (1994:21) uses four components to describe this logistical framework namely, the education system policy, the education system administration, the structure for teaching and support services. Each particular component can be divided into elements which normally either refer to the agencies, functionaries and/or persons operating in a particular component (Steyn, 1994:23). This chapter will describe the structure of the education system. A general description will be done by using the logistical framework of the different components of the education system. A particular description will then focus on minimum requirements to which the education system of developing countries should comply.

2.2 THE STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

The education system is defined as a structure for effective teaching in order to provide for the educational needs of a specific group of people (Steyn, 1994:5). The structure of the education system consists of the ordered arrangement of different parts or components which form a logistical framework. Each component has a definite function, place and structure so as to ensure effective output of the education system based on educational needs of the target group (Steyn, 1994:20). The education system of any community has certain elements and components which are in common with every other education system since they all share basic universal structural principles (Vos
It must be noted that different writers use different components to describe the structure of the education system. What is important is that they all cover general aspects such as aims, objectives, legislation, administration, education control, financing and school system. All these components can be summed up into four inclusive ones, namely: the education system policy, education system administration, the structure for teaching, and the support services (Steyn, 1994:21).

2.2.1 The education system policy

Steyn (1994:23) defines the education system policy as the statement of intent of the way in which identified educational needs of the target group are to be solved. This policy further provides the guidelines by means of which the set goals and objectives of a specific education system are pursued. A community’s educational objectives result from its educational needs and desires (Van Schalkwyk in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:11). A community bears the general responsibility for the education and teaching of its members. Whatever the educational desires or expectations of a particular community may be, they arise from man's deepest convictions and take shape in the form of an educational policy and educational legislation. Educational policy is therefore the first and most basic requirement in the provision of education (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:42). The elements of the component education system policy are goals, aims, objectives and forms of education system policy (Steyn, 1994:27).

2.2.1.1 Goals, aims and objectives of the education system

The goals of the education system also refer to the basic philosophy guiding a particular education system. These goals are normally expressed in broad political, cultural and economic terms. For example, the then new constitution of Japan promulgated in 1946, was meant to restore democracy and peace. Article 26 of this constitution states that: “All people shall have the right to receive an equal education according to their ability, as provided by the law” (Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:25-26)

The aims of the education system express the direction given to the education system as a whole, and also refer to the guidelines in the longer term (Steyn, 1994:28). The aims should therefore reformulate the goals at a greater level of specification. In practice, the goals and aims of the education system are normally combined and dealt with under one of the two terms.
The concept education system objectives on the other hand deals with expected results of the teaching activity, or the intended results of the education process. The objectives of education vary in accordance with the level of education and the interest of the target group. For example, in Kenya, the general objective of primary schools is to spread literacy (Bodensio in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:286).

It stands to reason that all activities in the education system should focus on the attainment of goals, aims and objectives and it means the effectiveness of the education system is determined by the extent to which it is successful in attaining its goals, aims and objectives (Steyn, 1994:29)

2.2.1.2 Forms of education system policy

The education system policy can be presented in many forms and can include forms such as legislation, governmental notices and departmental regulations (Steyn, 1994:30). In Botswana for example, the education system policy is presented in the Government Paper 2 of 1994, namely the Revised National Policy on Education of March 1994.

In South Africa, government notices are issued in the form of Government Gazettes by the Minister of Education. For example, Government Notice 1030 of 1994 (Government Gazette: 23 September 1994) outlines a new vision for education and training in the reconstruction and development of South African Society (S.A, 1994:7). Other forms of education system policy include departmental circulars used by education departments to ensure orderly and effective provision of education in all its areas of responsibility.

2.2.2 The education system administration

The education system administration can be defined as the administration structure through which the functions of personnel in the education are organised (Steyn, 1994:31). The education system administration also refers to the administration and control of education as facets of educational management which involve matters such as policy making, planning, organisation, coordination, decision making, financing, control and administration. The management and control of education can be centralised, decentralised, autocratic, democratic, bureaucratic. In Canada, for example, education is primarily managed at the provincial, regional and local level (Van Schalkwyk in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:12)
The political system of a country also has an influence on the nature of control. For example, Botswana as a democratic country, has both central and local control of education. Education in Botswana is therefore democratically controlled. Local control of education further ensures greater local participation (Malao, 1985:170).

In England, educational control and administration are to a large extent decentralised in keeping with the English spirit of local self-determination. The education system of the USA shows a balance between centralised and decentralised management. Each of the 50 states has its own organisational structure. However, by exercising financial control, the Federal Office of Education supervises the efficient provision and management of education. The eleven Länder of West Germany also determine their own educational affairs within the bounds of general educational principles laid down by the Federal government (Van Schalkwyk in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:13). It becomes very clear that the goals, aims and objectives of an education system that are manifested in an educational policy of the same education system are organised, planned and managed by means of an education system administration as a component of the educational system. As Van Schalkwyk (1988:73) puts it: “Educational management is an organised (i.e. deliberately planned) means of attaining the educational objectives of a community as effectively as possible”. Administration and its related areas of inspection and supervision are of the utmost importance in the success of an educational system.

There are agencies and functionaries which constitute the administrative structure of the education system administration. The responsibility of these agencies and functionaries are three-fold. These are firstly, the formulation, adoption and implementation of the education system policy; secondly, consultation with the target group, and thirdly the collection and distribution of finances (Steyn, 1994: 31 - 32).

2.2.2.1 Formulation, adoption and implementation of the education system policy

In order to administer efficiently and properly at all levels of control within the different components of the education system, the education system policy must be formulated, adopted and then implemented. The relationship between the different agencies and functionaries as well as the lines of communication should be clearly stipulated. An educational policy forms the basis for a formal and organised educational practice in a country. Therefore, whatever the nature of a community’s educational policy, it must lend itself to implementation in practice (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:52). Once formulated
educational policy statements and legislation are implemented by means of the organisational structure of functionaries. This is done by assigning authority and responsibility and also accepting responsibility for the implementation of the adopted policy.

2.2.2.2 Consultation with the target group

The target group which is the specific group that a particular education system serves must be consulted by the agencies and the functionaries. Specific agencies and functionaries responsible for consultation at different levels must be identified, the methods of consultation stipulated, and the authority of the results of the consultation determined (Steyn, 1994:32).

The education system is a means which society has at its disposal for preparing pupils and students for their tasks in life for the benefit of society. Therefore society as the target group is concerned with and responsible for education. The target group must at all times be consulted. Social structures with an interest in education usually include the parents, the state, industry and the church. In America parents are represented throughout the country by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers while in West Germany parent organisations are involved in their children's education at all levels (Van Schalkwyk in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989: 14 - 15).

2.2.2.3 Collection and distribution of finances

Budgeting forms an important function of agencies and functionaries in the administrative structure. Even if all agencies and functionaries are responsible for the economic expenditure of money, there must be specific agencies and functionaries who are entrusted with the responsibility of budgeting. In carrying out the task of collection and distribution of finances, sound economic systems should be used (Steyn, 1994:32).

2.2.3 The structure for teaching

Steyn (1994:37) defines the structure for teaching as a structural combination of all education institutions at all four levels of education namely, the pre-primary, primary, secondary as well as tertiary levels. Van Schalkwyk (in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk 1989:13) defines the structure for teaching as the central component of the education system which combines the various types of teaching and learning situations and establishes
their relationships to each other. This is often referred to as the school system since it has to do with teaching activities in educational institutions.

The entire system of educational institutions, together with all related aspects, is termed the educational structure of the education system (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:105). This educational structure is more than the sum of all the educational institutions which constitute it. This is because the structure creates and organises teaching and learning situation with the aim of providing as comprehensively as possible for the different abilities, interests, options of students and for realistic demands made by society (Van Schalkwyk in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:13).

The education structure includes the following elements, namely, a structure for education and/or training programmes, the learners, the teachers, the medium of instruction and the physical facilities (Steyn, 1994:38).

2.2.3.1 The structure for education and/or training programmes

Educative teaching is organised in a particular pattern in order to meet the differentiated educational needs of different learners. The structure for education or training programmes is described by referring to ways by which different curricula or education programmes and education institutions in the education system are organised into a unity so as to provide for all learners. Therefore, the structure for education and/or training programmes include education or training levels, education or training institutions, curricula and differentiation, entrance requirements, evaluation and certification (Steyn, 1994:38).

In all education systems, four levels of education are usually distinguished, namely, the pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary levels. Each of these levels has its own scope and purpose. Canada, for example, prefers a differentiated education, which is flexible and accessible to all pupils and which lasts 12 years. This is divided into elementary and secondary education. Nevertheless, there are still pre-primary schools, primary schools, secondary schools and tertiary institutions which include community colleges, teacher training colleges and universities. All these can be grouped into the four mentioned levels of education or training levels mentioned earlier (Steyn, 1994:38).

Education and training are associated with different education institutions. Every educational system will therefore have its own educational institutions. For example Kenya has different educational institutions like creches, primary schools, Harambee secondary

Different target groups have their own educational needs. These needs are provided for in curricula, education courses or programmes. The curricula can address differentiation in many ways such as, individual differentiation, cultural differentiation and life-view differentiation. Different education systems handle this differentiation in different ways. The different education and training levels are usually based on age groups. The crèche is an institution that generally provides for the educational needs and individual needs of 0-3 year-old children, whereas the pre-primary school is a place where groups of 3-6 year olds receive norm-centred formative education in a structured environment. The primary school generally provides for the education of the 6-12 year-old children. In general, therefore, secondary education would begin at the age of 13 which could be divided into junior and senior secondary school phases up to an approximate age of 18 (Steyn, 1994:43).

2.2.3.2 The learners

The learners are also one of the elements of the structure for teaching. The quality and quantity of the learners will have a direct bearing on the education system of a particular country. The quantity aspect deals with the distribution figures of learners in the different standards, school phases like the primary school and secondary school phases, different education institutions and education programmes in terms of age, sex and qualification obtained by learners (Steyn, 1994:44). This statistical information has a bearing on the structure for education and/or training programmes.

The other important aspects of learners are the socio-economic status of learners, their geographical distribution and settlement patterns as well as the drop-out rate of the learners. All of these have a way of influencing the structure for education and/or training programmes (Steyn, 1994:44).

2.2.3.3 The educators

It is generally accepted that the educator may be a parent, a teacher, a lecturer, an instructor, a trainer or any other person who guides, helps and assists a child in order to develop the potential of the child (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:194). However the formal educator is the one who develops the learner with the aid of the subject-matter with
a view to the learner becoming an adult and a fully-fledged human being. For that reason the educator and the learner constitute the very heart of the education system.

Aspects which are of importance with regard to educators include the training opportunities and facilities which are available to the educators, their academic and professional qualifications. Furthermore, the number of educators in the different standards, school phases and levels of education institutions, in terms of their sex, age and qualifications, also have a bearing on the structure for teaching (Steyn 1994:45). The structure for teaching is also concerned with the teacher-pupil ratio as well as the conditions of service for educators (Botswana, 1976:14).

2.2.3.4 The medium of instruction

One of the most important tools of educative teaching is language. Indeed no education can take place without the use of language. Normally, the medium of instruction is the mother-tongue so as to ensure success in learning, especially at the lower levels. Teaching through the medium of the mother-tongue is always considered to be didactically sound and justified (Steyn, 1994:45). The organisation of schools becomes much simpler when a country possesses a uniformly accepted language without intricate dialects. The education structure should further take cognisance of the language used in the different courses or programmes and curricula. Also to be considered would be the language proficiency of both learners and educators.

2.2.3.5 The physical facilities

Having considered all the aspects of the structure for teaching, justice will not have been done without referring to the locality of education and training. This could be a classroom, a lecture hall, a laboratory, a library, a gymnasium or even an open ground for sports lessons. The availability and distribution of facilities therefore need to be given attention in the education structure. This will also include the use of all available facilities as well as the financial costs of the capital outlay with the regards to the necessary physical facilities.

2.2.4 Support services

Support services can be defined as those specialised non-educational services needed to improve the quality and effectiveness of all educational activities (Steyn, 1994:47).
These specialised services are created by educational authorities in order to support educational institutions in the areas for example, where teachers have no time, training or abilities. The specialised services for both teachers and pupils are also known as a system of supporting or auxiliary services (Van Schalkwyk in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:15).

Support services are also referred to as the organised outside help given to individual schools so that their education may run smoothly. Therefore, every supporting service accomplishes a specific task in the interest of educative teaching. Such services are essential in order to provide for the divergent abilities and interests of all teachers (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:131).

In order to identify those support services which are needed at a particular time or on a continuous basis, three aspects should be considered related to the education activity, namely: the educators, the teaching activities and structures and the learners (Steyn, 1994:47).

2.2.4.1 The educators

The educator will from time to time experience different problems which affect his efficiency in the execution of his responsibility. These problems could include personal and personality problems, socio-politico-economic problems, vocational problems as well as professional problems.

As far as personal and personality problems are concerned, one can think of stress, family matters and medical problems. These problems would obviously affect the performance of the teacher. Problems related to socio-politico-economic situations involve money, status and party political affiliation. With regard to vocational problems, the teachers need specialised services related to salaries, promotions, general conditions of services and job satisfaction problems.

The other area of specialised services for teachers is with regard to professional problems. Steyn (1994:47) on the one hand mentions curriculum, syllabi, didactics or evaluating problems while Van Schalkwyk (1988:139-142) on the other hand mentions support services to teachers, namely: curriculum service, examination service, subject-advisory service, professional aid service, educational media services, training of teachers, educational research, communication services, publication and editing service, administrative
services, and statistical and computer services. In Canada, the support services are found in the education system of the different provinces and these include, curriculum services, educational auxiliary services, media services and professional auxiliary services (Steyn in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:369).

2.2.4.2 The teaching activities and structures

According to a model for the planning and evaluation of support services (Steyn, 1994:46) teaching activities and structures are concerned with the structure for teaching (which involves educational programmes and physical facilities), teaching activities (which involve content methodology, evaluation and certification) and policy and management (which involves policy, management tasks and management areas). These teaching activities and structures are all necessary for effective teaching. Also, support services can be identified in order to impose the eventual teaching activities as well as the functioning of the individual structures involved with teaching. Steyn (1994:41) further mentions curriculum services, professional methodology services, media services and evaluation services as well as management consultants and architectural services with regard to physical aspects.

2.2.4.3 The learners

Educational support services will no doubt be incomplete if they did not cater for learners as well. Indeed all pupils are of equal value but at the same time different and therefore unique. Education must therefore be adapted to the uniqueness and individuality of each pupil which will include his talent and abilities, shortcomings or abnormalities (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:132). The support services with regard to learners must therefore aim at placing every learner in the type of education, school or class that is best suited to his individual needs. Van Schalkwyk (1988:133) mentions the following services which address the different problems of learners:

- orthopedagogic service
- orthodidactic service
- socio-pedagogic service
- service for vocational guidance
- service for speech therapy
- service for occupational therapy
The support services which are there to support the teaching-learning situation will differ from country to country and the level of development of a country in the field of education can be measured by the standards of its supporting services. For example, in Kenya a series of hostels provides an important supporting service. In the semi-desert of the North, provision is made for the accommodation of pupils in low cost, medium cost and high cost hostels (Van Schalkwyk in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:15).

Other services include libraries, books, medical services, transport, feeding schemes and bursaries. Whilst Kenya as a developing country has limited support services, Japan as a developed country has advanced support services. For the learners there is a network of child guidance clinics and special educational institutions which assist in identifying and instructing pupils with physical or mental handicaps (Pretorius in Dekker & Schalkwyk, 1989:268).

Among these support services, medical and dentistry services are usually offered by specialists in a particular area. It goes without saying therefore that specialists will be more available in developed countries and less in developing countries.

2.3 MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEMS OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Having discussed the structure of the education system, the focus is now on minimum requirements that education systems of developing countries should meet in order to effectively provide in the educational need of the target groups. This is a recognition of the general or universal nature of education systems and the specific or individual form in which national education systems manifest themselves under the influence of situational demands and forces (Van Schalkwyk in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989:3).

In order to have a logical approach to the issue of minimum requirements of the education system of developing countries, the components of the education system namely the education system policy, education system administration, school system or structure for teaching and supportive services will each be discussed.
2.3.1 Education system policy

The general policy of a developing country must, amongst other things, aim at increased educational opportunities for all people, thereby contributing to the balanced socio-economic development of the country by attempting to satisfy manpower requirements in all sectors, with particular emphasis on the needs of rural development and the generation of more employment possibilities (Cameron, 1983:33). The policy must address real educational needs of the entire target group which would include both majorities and minorities.

The educational policy must give rise to educational laws, prescriptions, regulations, ordinances, rules and instructions (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:43).

2.3.2 Education system administration

An important development and focus is that parents and the local community should be involved in all non-didactic activities and decisions of the school. This would mean that parents are consulted at all times in the administrative issues of the school.

In order to have an effective education system administration, all activities should take place within the framework of education policy that determines the "how" and the "what" is to be done (Steyn, 1994:33). There will therefore be a need to devise some administrative machinery in order to control and operate education. All activities of the education system administration should be characterised by effectiveness so that every functionary is fully accountable for the execution of his responsibility. These minimum requirements can be achieved only if there is authority and responsibility, proper coordination to avoid duplication and overlapping of services, a reasonable hierarchical structure, and striving towards specialisation (Steyn, 1994:34-35).

Administration and its areas of inspection, supervision, operation, personnel, budgets, planning, organisation, curriculum and instruction or educative teaching are indeed of paramount importance in the success of an educational system. These minimum requirements will certainly make the administration and control of education in developing countries a success.
2.3.3 The structure for teaching

With regard to the structure for teaching aspects of paramount importance include curriculum and differentiation, educators, medium of instruction, and physical facilities. These represent minimum requirements for an effective structure for teaching.

A core curriculum should be provided with equal opportunities for every individual and this curriculum should be directed towards general education. Though the education should be general in nature, it should provide the opportunity for competitive success and useful learning with regard to vocational applicability (Steyn, 1993:185). It must be a kind of education that is vocationally applicable. The product of this type of education must be a trainable person with basic skills in communication, computing, social qualities, mathematical ability and completeness in being trainable for any career or vocation.

Bearing in mind the fact that developing countries have a shortage of qualified teachers, it is imperative that enough competent teachers must be available. These teachers should be well-regarded members of society whose professional attitude is directed at both academic achievements as well as total development of the child (Steyn, 1993:186). Basic facilities, for example, furnished school buildings, chalkboards, handbooks and writing materials should be provided.

Most developing countries have various communities speaking different languages. This poses a problem in terms of an accepted medium of instruction. However, for the sake of national unity, English would be accepted as a major medium of instruction in the school whilst at the same time recognising other languages for regional purposes and as part of the core curriculum (Steyn, 1993:186).

2.3.4 Support services

There are certain support services with respect to both learners and educators which must be available as a bare minimum in order to make the education system successful and effective. These are all applicable to the developing countries.

Basic support services can include feeding schemes, health services, pedagogical and didactic support services, especially to those who are culturally deprived. These would then ensure provision of effective education (Steyn, 1993:186). The type of support
services will depend on the particular situation and will differ from situation to situation and time to time. Without giving some basic support to teachers in the form of basic facilities to make them competent, support given to learners or pupils will not bear any fruit.

These minimum requirements of supportive services are indispensable for education to function efficiently. Such services are essential if provision is to be made for the divergent abilities and interests of all learners, as well as for the fulfilment of a country's manpower needs (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:131).

2.4 CONCLUSION

All education systems reveal common components of the education system. In developed countries, these components are sophisticated and complex whilst developing countries have simpler components of the education system. In order to be acceptable internationally, there are certain minimum requirements that education systems of developing countries must meet. These requirements could therefore serve as one of determinants in the development of an education system that would serve the educational needs of the community as a target group. The above discussion was primarily aimed at identifying these minimum requirements.
CHAPTER 3

A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF BOTSWANA BEFORE INDEPENDENCE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The Republic of Botswana is located in Southern Africa and covers an area of about 582,000 square kilometres, 80% of which is the Kalahari desert. The Kalahari desert takes up much of the central and Southern parts of Botswana. The Kalahari desert is not a sand desert like the Sahara, but an arid area consisting of thorn bushes and grass covering most of the surface (Watters, 1973:15).

The territory of present-day Botswana has been inhabited for thousands of years. Not much is known about the origins, social or political organisation of the early people, except that the pre-historic populations probably came and went in response to ecological and socio-political conditions. The origin of the current population, which is made predominantly of the Batswana people, dates primarily from the eighteenth century (Parson, 1984:15). The other inhabitants of the central Kalahari area of Botswana are the small bands of Bushmen. These non-Tswana people can be separated into three distinct societal groups, namely the Bayeyi, Basarwa and Bakalanga. The Tswana people, on the other hand, are made up of eight-tribal groups, namely the Batswana, Bamangwato, Bakwena, Bakgatla, Batlokwa, Bamalete, Bangwaketse and Barolong. The political changes that took place over the years had impact on the way of life of all these tribal groups.

Before Botswana gained independence in 1966, it was colonised by Britain and became the Bechuanaland Protectorate in March 1885. The establishment of British government control meant that Bechuanaland became a part of the British Empire. Overall coordination and supervision for the protectorate was institutionalised in 1920 when separate native and European advisory councils were created (Parson, 1984:22). All these political developments had certain implications on the educational provision in this territory.
The historical development of Botswana has been shaped by three major factors: the geographical and economic position, the general unity of the country's eight different tribes, and the fact that it obtained independence before a vociferous African Nationalist Party had emerged. The country therefore tended to be stable with moderate politics and a lineage towards the UK (Munger, 1965:26-27). In the nineteenth century, the Botswana people made contact with the missionaries through Robert Moffat and later David Livingstone. Formal education during this century basically developed as a result of missionary effort (Chirenje, 1977:93-94).

The level of education provision since independence up to now has changed remarkably. However, the focus of this chapter is on the development of the education system from the Difaqane era up to independence in 1966. This development can be categorised into non-formal education, formal education and general education provision before independence. During these phases, constitutional development was very slow until self-government was granted in 1965 and independence in 1966 (Cameron, 1983:21).

3.2 NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

Non-formal education refers to planned and/or goal-directed teaching or training activities whereby the target group is equipped with particular knowledge, skills and attitudes. Non-formal education consists of organised and systematic educational activities aimed at providing a certain type of education for a specific group in the community although in an organised system of education (Steyn, 1994:15). The pre-literate and Difaqane eras characterise non-formal education provision in Botswana before independence.

3.2.1 The Difaqane era

The Difaqane era was a period of conflict and turmoil amongst different tribes. This was in the 1820's when the whole of Southern Africa was affected by fighting (Tlou & Campbell, 1984:103). Nations were destroyed and lost their food and cattle. The Basotho and Batswana suffered the most as many groups were broken up and others fled across the Kalahari. For almost twenty years, the Batswana had lived under war or threat of war, most tribes had been split and many driven into the desert. All this means there could be no formal schooling and therefore we cannot even talk of an education system. The Batswana people only returned in 1837 after the Matebele had been driven out of the Transvaal to Zimbabwe (Raikane, 1987:91). There is no doubt therefore that the years 1820 to 1870 were years of chaos and struggle for a place to
live and to have food to eat (Stevens, 1967:115). In educational terms, the Difaqane era is characterised by total illiteracy and no formal education.

3.2.2 The pre-literate era

This era is characterised by traditional education for boys and girls. This education of the pre-literate era preceded education during the missionary era. The traditional education is what is currently known as the initiation school which included circumcision, was aimed at achieving physical strength and endurance, discipline, the preservation of culture and loyalty to the tribe (Raikane, 1987:39).

The traditional education for boys was done separately from the traditional education for girls. On reaching the age of fifteen all boys were sent for traditional education at different initiation schools. Girls, on the other hand, were also isolated from the society and initiated in the customary way. The curriculum for girls in their initiation schools comprised sexual codes, tribal ethics, general tasks of women and societal expectations, whilst that of boys included strict discipline, training in courage, endurance, trustworthiness, governing of the people, tribal ethics, sexual codes and the history of the Batswana (Raikane, 1987:39). During this era no formal education existed. There were therefore no schools for formal education.

At one time or another schools or initiation ceremonies operated in every tribal reserve. When the young men and women completed these initiation ceremonies they became full adult members of the tribe. Initiation schools and ceremonies were later outlawed in different reserves at different times. For example, Khama the Great first banned the ceremonies among the Bangwato as early as 1911 because of the Christian religious laws and the Botswana government stopped the ceremonies among the Bamalete in 1968 (Watters 1973:72). However, the feeling of most people was that initiation schools could not be replaced by formal education, religious or school education because young people were taught proper behaviour towards adults, their rights and responsibilities, moral behaviour and the customs of their tribes.

3.3 FORMAL EDUCATION

Formal education generally refers to goal-directed, and planned teaching activities whereby the education clients or targeted groups of a particular education system of a country
are equipped with the desired knowledge, skills and attitudes in generally accepted educational institutions (Steyn, 1994:15). The provision of formal education in Botswana underwent certain stages since the missionary schools up to the present government schools. It was not until the missionaries arrived in Botswana that the first schools were started (Tlou & Campbell, 1984:136). This was followed by different phases like the colonial era and the Dumbrell era.

3.3.1 The missionary education era (1800-1910)

Formal education really started with the missionaries when they established schools in Botswana. The most important missionary group in the history of education of Botswana was the London Missionary Society. There were, however, also other missionary groups like the Hermannsburg Missionary Society. The missionaries were accepted with mixed feelings by the Batswana people. Whilst the missionaries were challenged for their ruthless condemnation of the traditional tribal education as being pagan, backward and heathen, the missionaries were accepted and praised for having brought education and printed books for reading. The emphasis of education was primarily reading, writing and Scripture. Christianity was used by missionaries as a ground motive in their education system (Tlou & Campbell, 1984:137). All the educational institutions were primary schools and the subjects taught were not only reading, writing and Scripture but included subjects like arithmetic, setswana, domestic science, a bit of history and some geography.

A number of schools were started in Botswana, one after the other. For example, Livingstone and the Batswana constructed the first school at Mabotsa in 1844 with another being opened at Chonoane in 1846. This was followed by the erection of another school for the Bakwena of Chief Sechele in 1847 at Kolobeng (Watters, 1973:75). As a result of the desire of the London Missionary Society (LMS) to expand their work in Bechuanaland, the Bechuanaland District Committee recommended in 1869 that the LMS start an institution for the training of teachers. This desire was achieved when in 1872, a teacher training centre was opened with six students at Shoshong in the Bamangwato territory.

The development of formal education during the missionary era therefore resulted from the work of a number of missionaries and teacher-evangelists. However, the spread of Christianity and therefore formal education depended upon the favour, support and initiative of local chiefs and tribesmen. Tribal initiative indeed played an important role in the future development of education in Bechuanaland.
3.3.2 The colonial era (1885-1966)

Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland were known as High Commission Territories during the colonial era. The British government created a special office of the Education Advisor to the three High Commission Territories with the main task of supervising and directing the growth of education in these three territories. As a result of this office, three official investigations of education in the Bechuanaland Protectorate were conducted and came to be known as the Ellenberger Report of 1901, the Burns Report of 1904 and the Sargent Report of 1905 which all described the conditions of education in the territory in detail and made some specific recommendations to improve the situation (Watters, 1973: 84). Though the Ellenberger Report only dealt with the schools in the southern part of the Bechuanaland Protectorate, it reported amongst other things on the narrowness of the curriculum, poor qualifications of teachers and the limited financial resources of the missionary society (Parsons, 1982:180-181).

Bechuanaland as it was known had the worst education of all the British colonies in Africa. It was only during the period 1903-1904, that the British government made grants to missionary bodies in the Bechuanaland Protectorate to support their schools. This was not enough and therefore people had to pay for their own education. This was done in many ways including paying the education levy. Later the percentage of the tax which went to the treasuries was increased to fifteen. This was to be the main source of education budget until independence (Tlou & Campbell, 1984:202).

In as far as control of education is concerned, the Sargent Report found that there was a movement towards tribal control of education. This was caused by the chiefs' claim that the London Missionary Society (LMS) placed too much emphasis on evangelism and not enough on education. The chiefs further claimed that the curriculum was not suitable for Bechuanaland, as the education system had a religious bias. This claim was justified because the whole education system of the then Bechuanaland was characterised by missionary thinking (Coles, 1985:8).

Subsequently, the cultural pattern of the Bechuanaland people was neglected in the development of the education system. Most missionaries despised Setswana customs. In particular, they were against rainmaking, polygamy, male and female initiation schools, to mention but a few.
To some extent the indigenous culture became submerged and many Batswana were encouraged to believe that their own cultural inheritance was inferior to that imported by the British (Botswana, 1977:11). It was only in 1910, on the 12th of July that the first Tribal school committee of the Bangwaketse at Kanye was inaugurated. However, no formal regulations governing Tribal School Committees were issued until the High Commissioner's Notice No: 110 of 1938 which set the details of the constitution and power of Tribal School Committees (Watters, 1973:94). In the meantime, the LMS strongly supported the establishment of Tribal School Committees. By 1920, the Bangwaketse, Bakwena and Bamalete had all established Tribal School Committees and by 1932, Tribal School Committee controlled the primary schools in all tribal reserves.

Non-formal education in the form of the Pathfinders, Boy Scouts, Wayfarers, Girl Scouts, Boys' Life Brigades as well as Girls' Life Brigades began during the 1920's. The main function of these movements was to reinforce the work of both the school and the church. The shortage of skilled manpower and qualified teachers necessitated the need for a post primary institution in Bechuanaland. The LMS sent Reverend W. C. Willoughby to investigate the setting of a new post-primary school in Bechuanaland as a way of fulfilling a promise to the Bechuana chiefs by the LMS. However, as Chief Khama could not give a clear deed for the land and because of frequent water shortage in the Bamangwato area, the school was not built in Bechuanaland. Instead Willoughby bought the Tiger Kloof Farm in Vryburg, South Africa, within the Cape Colony as it was cheap, with good water being available and located on the direct railway to the Bechuanaland Protectorate (Watters, 1973:98).

In 1904 Willoughby was appointed principal of Tiger Kloof and he immediately designed a curriculum which combined academic and industrial training. As Tiger Kloof was located in the Cape Province, the Cape Education Department assumed jurisdiction over its educational policy and provided some financial assistance. The aid given to Tiger Kloof increased from 337 pounds in 1905 to 16,000 pounds in 1954. Tiger Kloof offered a full vocational and technical program which included building, carpentry, tailoring, tanning and leather-work for the boys. Reverend Willoughby was succeeded by the Reverend A. J. Haile who ran Tiger Kloof from 1914 up to 1945. In 1920, a Native Primary Lower Teacher's course was started at Tiger Kloof.

Tiger Kloof was closed by the provisions of the Bantu Education Act no: 46 of 1953 after running successfully for fifty years. Before its closure it functioned as the premier education centre for the people of Bechuanaland, representing the most important edu-
tional contribution of the LMS in the twentieth century in Bechuanaland. Indeed, the vast majority of trained Bechuana teachers continued to transmit the Tiger Kloof ideals in their classrooms long after it had been closed.

3.3.3 The Dumbrell era (1928-1966)

The Dumbrell era represent a period of significant educational change in the Bechuanaland Protectorate. Indeed, as Thema (quoted by Watters 1973:129) states: Mr. H.J.E. Dumbrell can rightly be regarded as the founder of Bechuanaland’s educational system". There is no doubt that the appointment in 1928 of Mr. Dumbrell as an Inspector of Education for the Bechuanaland Protectorate and Swaziland started a new phase in educational development. Though initially he was alone in his work, the fact that there was now a person appointed to devote half his time to education in the Protectorate was a landmark and heralded in a new era (Coles, 1985:12).

Dumbrell’s first Annual Report as Inspector of Education highlighted a few shortcomings in Bechuanaland schools. These were: the poor equipment in outstation schools, no supervision of schools except in Bamangwaketse and Bakwena, untrained and poorly qualified teachers, the high ages of some pupils in Sub A, no coordination of education with regard to curricula and timetable, and no code of instruction in the schools. These concerns led to the appointment in 1930 of the Board of Advice on Native Education for Bechuanaland while an Advisory Council on European Education was also appointed in 1931, known as the European Advisory Board which catered for European education in the Protectorate.

While the majority of the Bechuana children were catered for by different schools around the territory, young men and boys who were living in isolated cattle-posts received no education until Dumbrell identified this in 1935. He designed a course of instruction for the young cattle minders which included the three R’s, hygiene, moral training, the care of animals, games and craftwork. These cattle-post schools were an attempt to bring education to the boys who herded cattle at the family cattle-posts.

Government control of education started with the formation of the Education Department in 1935. As a result of this, Dumbrell was appointed the first Director of Education with the sole responsibility for Bechuanaland and assisted by a number of education officers (Tlou & Campbell, 1984:203). This was really the beginning of a separate administration for education in the development of a country and indeed the forerunner of the present Ministry of Education.
In 1945, Dumbrell expanded the number of supervisors of schools who were renamed Assistant Education Officers from four to eight. This meant that the Education Officers were able to devote more time to helping teachers improve the standard of instruction. The first educational legislation in the Protectorate was in the form of Proclamation no: 26 of 15 July 1938, which regulated the establishment of new schools and the control of mission, private as well as other schools. This Proclamation also established the legal foundation of education and, together with Notice 110 of 1938, issued regulations which served as guidelines for Tribal School Committees (Watters 1973: 110).

On the 16th December 1935, the Resident Commissioner officially approved the formation of the Bechuanaland Protectorate African Teachers Association. This Association consequently held annual meetings between 1935 and 1944 where they came up with different recommendations. These recommendations included increased salaries and privileges, a more active voice in policy making, a uniform school calendar and improved qualifications of untrained teachers (Watters, 1973:115).

Until 1933, tribal authorities financed education from the Native Fund which was established earlier in 1919. Government then continued to contribute funds from their general revenue until 1938. At the same time, Proclamation no: 35 of 1938, (called the Bechuanaland Protectorate Native Treasuries Proclamation) established tribal treasuries to consolidate Native Fund payments with the general tax. In general the contribution from Government revenue increased by 47 percent and the funds from tribal treasuries increased by 75 percent during the period 1940-1945 (Watters, 1973:119). It must be noted that there has always been some disparity between the government’s expenditure on European education compared to African education. For example, in 1945, 6054 pounds of Government’s 18180 pounds were expended on European education which meant 33.3 pounds expenditure per European child compared with 1.3 pounds per African child (Watters, 1973:120).

Mr. Dumbrell’s achievements in his seventeen years as Inspector of schools and Director of Education include the opening of a junior secondary school called St. Joseph’s College in 1944 by the Catholic missionaries at Khale. This became the first significant effort in secondary education in the Protectorate. All this laid a strong legal and organisational foundation for the future development of education in the Bechuanaland Protectorate. Between the years 1928 and 1945, a quantitative growth in primary education could be noticed and teacher-training education thrived at Kanye and Serowe (Watters, 1973:122).
After the establishment of the British Bechuanaland Protectorate, churches were unable to foster education on a larger scale and to provide educational facilities. From 1875 to 1944 there was no secondary education in Bechuanaland and most of the education was provided in the Republic of South Africa (Raikane, 1987:92). A general overview of education provision in different education or training levels will put this assertion in a proper perspective.

### 3.4.1 Pre-primary education

This basic and very important level of education was unheard of before, even about three decades after independence. Any learning on pre-primary level that took place was done in an unstructured and unorganised manner. One cannot therefore talk about any institution that catered for pre-primary education in a formal way (Botswana, 1993b:62).

### 3.4.2 Primary education

The provision for primary education improved gradually over the years. In 1946, only 17 percent of the school-going age children attended school. Primary school education began with two years of sub-standard classes, namely, Sub A and B. These sub-standards were then followed by six years of study from Std. 1 through to Std. 6.

The growth in primary school enrollment from 1928-1945 for European and African schools can be illustrated as in Table 3.1 on the next page.
As far as African primary schools are concerned, the classification was done as follows:

- village schools - these offered the first four years of primary courses, including Std. 2.
- central schools - these offered instruction through Std. 6.
- district schools - offered the full primary courses through Std. 6.
- middle school - offered instruction in Std. 5 and 6 (Watters, 1973:136)

The teachers in the primary schools used the primary school syllabus for African schools in the Bechuanaland Protectorate which was revised by Dumbrell in 1937. The medium of instruction up to and including Std. 2 was the mother tongue of the pupils and in subsequent standards, English was used as a medium of instruction. Quarterly examinations were administered by teachers in all subjects. At the end of each year, pupils sat for an examination in order to determine promotion to the next standard. However, all students who completed primary school sat for the Primary School Leavers’ Examination in order to receive the Primary School Leavers’ Certificate. The European students sat separately for the European Primary School Leavers’ Examination which was the same as the Bursary Selection Examination used in the Transvaal, a province in South Africa. The other cultural group in the Protectorate, the Coloured people were served by four small schools with 50 percent of the pupils in Sub A and B and only five students enrolled in Std. 5 as the highest standard in the coloured primary
schools which used the same syllabus as European schools, except that their medium of instruction was Afrikaans (Watters, 1973:122).

The provision for primary education increased over the years. Africans also began to be involved in the upper echelons of administration of schools. Chiepe, who was Assistant Education Officer in the Bamangwato, was appointed as the first African Education Officer. Apart from an increased financial expenditure on primary school during the period of 1954-1960, the number of African primary schools gradually increased from 134 in 1945 to 152 in 1955 illustrated by Table 3.2 as follows:

**TABLE 3.2**
Growth in African Primary Schooling (Watters, 1973:153)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1945</th>
<th>1950</th>
<th>1955</th>
<th>1960</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of schools</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of students</td>
<td>21 139</td>
<td>16 322</td>
<td>20 475</td>
<td>35 590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of boys</td>
<td>7 658</td>
<td>5 951</td>
<td>7 764</td>
<td>14 614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of girls</td>
<td>13 481</td>
<td>10 371</td>
<td>12 711</td>
<td>20 976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of school-aged children attending primary school</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, enrollment at primary schools also improved during the period 1945-1960 for the European and Coloured children as included in Table 3.3 and 3.4 respectively (see next page).
The one level where education was provided though for the small proportion of the population, was undoubtedly the primary school level (Parson, 1984:58). The decade 1960 through 1969 marked an unprecedented increase in primary education provision. This was characterised by funds spent for primary education, number of children attending primary schools and the quantity and quality of primary school teachers. This positive tendency was also accompanied by a high percentage pass of the Primary School Leavers Examination. In 1962 the total enrolled students in primary and secondary was 46,300 out of roughly 160,000 to 200,000 children of school going age (Stevens, 1967:164).

The total growth in primary school enrollment for all population groups for the period 1960 up to 1966, is illustrated in Table 3.5 as follows (Watters, 1973:175).
At the end of primary school education, many students were frustrated and had to wander about in large towns looking for work. This was a common problem faced by primary school leavers because primary school education neither prepared pupils for the realities of a rural economy nor for the prospects of finding employment in the modern sector of the economy.

### 3.4.3 Secondary education

During the eighty one years of colonial rule very little - if any - provision was made for secondary education. Most Batswana who completed their primary education had to go to the then Rhodesia and neighbouring South Africa for their secondary education. In the meantime, according to the Annual Report of the Education Department for 1945, a new classification scheme for primary schools gave rise to a new concept of middle schools (Watters, 1973:187). The middle schools were to meet the special requirements of boys and girls during adolescence and these were to gradually develop into junior secondary schools providing Std 7, as well as preparing their pupils for a junior certificate.

In 1945 an analysis was made of the Bechuana students who were studying abroad and the number was found to be 214 (Coles, 1985:23). This was an indication of the need
for the establishment of secondary level institutions in the country. In the meantime, St. Joseph College became the first institution to venture into sustained secondary education when it started classes in 1944. Later on, the Bangwato College was established along with three junior secondary schools at Kanye, Mochudi and Molepolole. In 1956 the Bangwato College was renamed Moeng College (Coles, 1985:23).

As a result of Bantu Education Act of 1953 of South Africa, students from Bechuanaland were no longer allowed to study at Tiger Kloof, which was located in South Africa. There was therefore a need for more secondary school facilities. The London Missionary Society established a new school at Otse, known as Moeding College. The growth of secondary education for the period 1945-1960 is illustrated in of Table 3.6. as follows:

**TABLE 3.6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>School Aided</th>
<th>Community Supported</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Pupils at Aided Schools</th>
<th>Attended at Local Schools</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1945</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>561</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following recommendations of the Joint Advisory Board on Education in the Bechuanaland protectorate, the junior certificate syllabi of the High Commission Territories was introduced in 1960 and Cambridge overseas syllabi in 1961 (Watters, 1973:201).

The British government built their first secondary school in 1964, after seventy years of colonial rule and in 1965 this school was opened as Gaborone Secondary School. By this time one other secondary school had been built at Swaneng Hill in Serowe, by Patrick van Rensburg who was a South African expatriate (Watters, 1973:205).
There was a significant growth in the number of secondary schools from 1960 up to independence in 1966. For example, eight secondary schools functioned in Bechuanaland in 1963. Those schools that had the entire secondary course were Moeng College and St. Joseph's College, with 224 and 143 pupils respectively. The other three district school committees went up to Junior certificate level, namely Seepapitso in Kanye, Isang in Mochudi and Kgari Sechele in Molepolole. By 1966, three other schools were established, namely Mater Spei in Francistown (under Roman Catholic auspices), Moeding College in Otse under the London Missionary Society, and the Swaneng Hill School in Serowe which had been established under the guidance of Patrick van Rensburg. All in all, there were 1027 secondary-level pupils being supervised by 52 teachers (Coles, 1985:26).

3.4.4 The Brigades of Botswana

The South African expatriate Patrick van Rensburg started the first Brigade with foreign capital aid in 1965 as an integral part of Swaneng Hill Secondary School in Serowe (De V. Graaff, 1982:22). This was an attempt to provide primary school leavers with further training so as to enable them to lead productive lives and earn some income. In general, primary school did not equip school leavers with any skills to help them earn a living. As secondary school education provision expanded less than 20% of primary school-going pupils could be enrolled. For example in 1966 there were 4 614 students who completed at primary schools and only 630 gained admission at secondary school, thus giving a 14% admission (Watters, 1973:276).

The training activities of the Botswana Brigades at Swaneng Hill included building, forestry, carpentry, electrical work, plumbing and welding. Further community development programmes included non-formal education, namely literacy classes and experimentation in commercial activities as well as in agricultural products. Generally speaking, the Brigades constitute a significant input into Botswana's training needs. The changes at Kanye Brigade Centre are, for example, innovative responses to the changing economic needs of Kanye and the increasing needs of the Brigade itself (Paterson and Rouhani, 1989:45).

The initial general aims of the Brigades can be summarised as follows (De V. Graaff, 1982:22):
Brigades are an attempt to combine the functions of formal education, technical training and production in a single institution.

Brigades are an inexpensive method of expanding the education system in less developed countries.

Brigades are an attempt to revolutionise the education system by redirecting attention and changing attitudes to the development of rural areas.

Brigades are also sources of employment, new resources, services and innovation.

3.4.5 Trade and Agricultural education

During the colonial period, some Trade and Agricultural education provision took place. One of the first post-primary schools was started in 1934 and called Forest Hills Agricultural School. This was the initiative of the Roman Catholic Mission at Kgale. This school offered a two year course of practical and theoretical training in general agriculture and stock farming, as well as academic studies leading to the Cape Junior Certificate examination. However, few students were attracted to the school and it closed in 1994 (Coles, 1985:21).

The 1953 Bantu Education Act closed technical and agricultural training centres in South Africa to future Bechuanaland students. As a result of this negative development, Bechuana students who desired technical or agricultural education went to the then Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), Basutoland (now Lesotho) and Swaziland with effect from 1954.

By 1960 there were no technical facilities developed for Bechuanaland. However, in 1957 developmental plans called for a trade school in the territory and the Colonial Welfare and Development fund granted capital funds for such a school in 1958 (Watters, 1973:266). Eventually in March 1962, the Bechuanaland Trade School was opened as the first school in the territory to offer formal trade training. This school offered post-primary training in building, carpentry and post-Form III training in motor mechanics (Watters, 1973:266).

In 1964, the Bechuanaland Trades Centre combined with Public Works Department's Training Organisation and Central Government's Localisation and Training Scheme to form Bechuanaland Training Centre. The facilities of the training centre included the trades school, commerce and adult education section, and a technical training scheme. This centre recruited and trained personnel in order to meet the requirements of the
local labour force. This was in anticipation of the impending independence. The centre became a comprehensive training institution in 1965 in order to cater for the needs of a developing country (Watters, 1973:267).

3.4.6 Teacher Education

The standard of teacher education in Bechuanaland left much to be desired during the colonial period. The territory had to rely heavily on South Africa both for teacher training facilities and for the supply of teachers for the needs of the country. This is supported by the fact that in 1945 sixty percent of all primary school teachers were neither qualified nor trained. This is despite the fact that the government ran Teachers Training Colleges at Serowe and Kanye from 1940 which trained primary school teachers. These teachers were enrolled for the Elementary Teachers’ Education Certificate Programme which prepared teachers to handle Sub A through to Standard 2.

Tiger Kloof in South Africa provided teacher training for Bechuanaland and between 1945 and 1954, with 103 Bechuana teachers being trained at the same institution. In general therefore more Bechuana teachers were trained at Serowe and Kanye. The two teacher training institutions at Serowe and Kanye were later combined into the Kanye Government Teacher Training Centre in 1947. This centre then offered the Primary Lower course which compared favourably to the one offered at Tiger Kloof. (Watters, 1973:300).

As the years went by during the colonial period, the number of qualified teachers increased and by 1950, about 45 percent of the teachers were qualified. This percentage rose to 50 in 1955, representing a significant improvement in the teaching corps of Bechuanaland. This state of affairs was further enhanced by the fact that the Lobatse Government Teacher Training College was opened in July 1956. Having started with the Primary Lower Course - which was a three year post standard six course - the Lobatse College introduced a second course of study in 1958 called the Primary Higher Teacher’s Certificate. Teachers who passed this course were then able to teach from Standard 3 up to Standard 6 classes.

Progress in teacher education facilities was evident when the Serowe Teacher Training College opened in 1963 with an intake of 180 students. This college offered the Primary Lower course and a special in-service course for promising unqualified primary school teachers. Despite good progress made in the establishment of the two colleges, the
shortage of qualified teachers remained in the Protectorate. This situation became worse during the period between 1960 and 1965 when the government recruited qualified teachers to fill vacant civil service positions (Watters, 1973:304). As a result teachers left teaching and joined the civil service between 1965 and 1969.

In the meantime, UNESCO sent Professor L. J. Lewis of the London University Institute of Education to study the Bechuanaland's education system with a view to making recommendations for improving the quality of education. His report was released on the 19 September 1965, almost a year before independence, in which he proposed the building of a teacher-training college. This college, he recommended would offer a two year- in-service training course for teachers with the Primary Lower Certificate. An agreement with UNESCO, UNICEF and the Swedish International Development Authority was later signed in 1966 by the Botswana Government in order to address the quality of teacher education in general and shortage of qualified teachers in particular (Coles, 1985:26).

3.4.7 University education

For most of the colonial period, the Bechuanaland Protectorate did not have university education provision. Indeed, most Bechuana students got their tertiary training in South Africa, especially at the University of Fort Hare. This arrangement had to stop in 1959 because the South African government ordered Fort Hare University and other post-secondary institutions not to admit any students from the Protectorate. All this was in line with provisions in the Bantu Education Act of 1953. It must be noted, however, that between 1945 and 1959 the average number of Bechuana students enrolled in post-secondary education per year was seven (Watters, 1973:291).

In the meantime, as students from Bechuanaland were no longer admitted in South Africa, they sought admission at Pius XII University College in Basutholand or at the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland in Rhodesia. The University College in Basutholand had been established at Roma by the Roman Catholic Church of South Africa in April 1945 in order to prepare students for University of South Africa degrees (Coles, 1985:27). By 1961 only 6 students were at university, three at Pius XII at Roma and three in the United Kingdom.

In January 1964, Pius XII became a territorial university for the three High Commission Territories. The new university was now known as the University of Basutholand,
Bechuanaland and Swaziland. In the same year of opening, twelve Bechuana students enrolled at the university and this number represented 25 percent of the forty-eight students enrolled for higher education outside the Protectorate. This number grew as a result of the constitutional changes and the high priority given to post-secondary education. By 1965, eighty-three students were enrolled in Post-secondary institutions (Watters, 1973:293).

3.4.8 Out-of-school education

Out-of-school education provision is potentially important for any country. It is particularly important for Botswana where a large proportion of the adult population has received no formal schooling (Treydte et al., 1976). During the colonial period, out-of-school education was only provided by the Brigades movement and the agricultural demonstration pilot programme. As discussed earlier the Brigades movement was started by Patrick van Rensburg in 1965 at Swaneng Hill Secondary School while the agricultural demonstration pilot programme was started among the Bakgatla in 1947-1948 (Watters, 1973:263). This was aimed at the agricultural farmers in order to give them better skills in crop farming.

Under the agricultural demonstration pilot programme, farmers provided three acre demonstration plots on their land and officials from the agriculture department would then instruct these farmers as to what to do with these plots. For example, one plot would be treated with chemical fertiliser, one with cow manure and the other would not be treated at all. Farmers would then compare the yields of the different plots and indeed the yields of the fertilised plots would be much higher than the yields of which in turn led to the promotion of the unfertilised plots. By 1956, the demonstration plots grew into the pupil-farmer scheme of the pupils-stockman scheme in 1963-1964 (Watters, 1973:263).

3.5 CONCLUSION

In general formal education provision during the colonial period markedly improved up to independence in 1966. However, the quality of teaching at all levels suffered as a result of the large numbers of unqualified teachers. British policy neglected development in Bechuanaland because Britain assumed that Bechuanaland would eventually be absorbed into the Union of South Africa.
In the meantime, during the years leading to independence, a new thrust and desire for education evolved among the Bechuana. The people demanded more educational opportunities and sent more of their children to school than ever before. This demand led to the rapid expansion of educational facilities available in Bechuanaland. The decision to prepare for independence placed heavy demands upon the education system of Bechuanaland.

Despite progress attained in the years leading to independence Khama (quoted in Malao, 1985:162) stated that “most of all the colonial government failed to recognise the need to educate our people so that they could run their own country... Nor did we inherit any properly equipped institutions for vocational training even at the lowest level of artisan skill”.

It was not until independence that Botswana’s education system was fully developed. One can, however, identify significant changes that took place from the Difaqane era up to the eve of independence. In general, the development of missionary work and education is closely related in Botswana.

As far as the education provision is concerned it becomes therefore very clear that especially with regards to secondary education, Botswana started the hard way (Malao, 1985:163).
CHAPTER 4

THE DETERMINANTS OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF BOTSWANA AFTER INDEPENDENCE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Each education system as a logistical framework for effective education to meet the educational needs of a particular group of people displays certain universal structural characteristics. These universal characteristics obtain an individual character for each individual education system. The universal characteristics would then lead to individual contents in the various education systems. Particular factors which determine the individual contents of various factors of education systems are called the determining factors or simply determinants (Steyn, 1994:77). Like all education systems, the education system of Botswana has its own particular content of the determinants that shaped and continue to shape the country’s education system after independence. The determinants can be divided into two categories, namely the internal and external determinants. The internal determinants refer to forces and factors in the education system and these may be educative, historic or interactive in character (Steyn, 1994:79). The determinants would be educative when the focus is placed upon the learners, historic when the existing content of the education system components promotes or restricts the provision for educational needs of the target group, and, finally, interactive when the character or content of one component of the education system promotes or limits the character or content of another component.

As far as the external determinants are concerned, those to be discussed are the philosophy of life of the particular group of people as the target group, culture and demography of the country (Steyn, 1994:80).

Both the internal and external determinants are important if one is to understand the changes that the education system of Botswana underwent after independence. However, the specific determinants on which this chapter will focus are the National ideal for
Kagisano, the philosophy of life, culture and the country’s demography since they cut across the education system of Botswana after independence.

4.2 DETERMINANTS OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

4.2.1 The National ideal for Kagisano as a determinant

In order to understand the National ideal for Kagisano as a determinant of the education system of Botswana after independence, the concept “Kagisano” must be understood in its proper perspective. Kagisano as a concept has an English equivalent, namely, peaceful co-existence. Therefore the whole education system of Botswana after independence became to be known as Education for Kagisano (Raikane, 1987:96-97). This education was geared towards promoting the peaceful co-existence of all citizens of Botswana, as well as social harmony, social justice, interdependence and assistance (Botswana, 1977:24).

The dawn of independence brought with it the opportunity to reassert the national identity of the people of Botswana and build a society which would give expression to some of the noblest values from the past. The kind of education that the children receive must instill the spirit of Kagisano amongst all people as well as prepare all children for peaceful co-existence even after leaving school (Raikane, 1987:97).

The National Commission on Education (which came into being in January 1976) attached a great deal of importance to the National ideal of Kagisano in its first report in April 1977, and even entitled the report as “Education for Kagisano”. This ideal was expressed in a set of four national principles (Botswana, 1977:23). The education system of Botswana after independence is therefore strongly influenced by these four national principles. The totality of these four principles are called Kagisano and these are:

- democracy
- development
- self-reliance and
- unity (Malao, 1985:209).
These four national principles are not complete without two further aspects of Kagisano, namely the idea of social justice and the sense of community and mutual responsibility (Botswana, 1977:31).

Having mentioned all the six dimensions of the National ideal for Kagisano it is important to show how they influenced and continue to influence the education system after independence.

4.2.1.1 Education and democracy

Democracy involves a voice for all the people in their future not only in political elections, but also in community, social, economic and educational affairs. This means giving each mature person a voice in the running of affairs, participation and decision-making in things affecting his life. However, in order for democracy to work, people must be given sufficient information so as to make decisions (Botswana, 1977:25).

The implementation of democracy in education have a number of implications. One of the basic conditions would be that as many decisions as possible must be left to those who are closely affected, namely the community and parents, professional workers in the field of education and even pupils themselves. The community must have a direct say through organised structures like school committees, parent-teacher associations and through the formal structure of government in the way their schools are run (Botswana, 1977:25). This principle of Education for Kagisano is presently displayed by different communities by way of advising the government through commissions, seminars and Parent and Teachers Associations as Boards of Directors of schools (Rowland, 1995).

The principle of education and democracy is further entrenched in the curriculum by teaching about democratic institutions like the “kgotla”, or chiefs and parliament. This would instill respect for democratic values. At the different education or training levels democracy implies that heads of institutions will hold consultative meetings on important matters with colleagues through regular staff meetings. As pupils are relatively immature, they can be given a limited voice in any decisions affecting their schools. All this means pupils should have every facility for information about opportunities for further study (Botswana, 1977:26).
4.2.1.2 Education and development

The National ideal for Kagisano as a determining factor of the education system of Botswana is also promoted by the principle of education and development. Indeed, development is a process whereby the nation and its individual citizens achieve improved standards of living, control over their environment and greater choice in items they consume. Education can assist the entire development of a nation. This development is dependent on the creation of national productive assets and their proper management and education can play an important role in achieving this (Botswana, 1977:26).

The organisation of education to serve development is very important. This involves equipping citizens to be capable of managing the economy of the country, as well as being able to create new opportunities for self-employment or even employment of others. All this means that educational institutions must equip people with the necessary mental, social and practical skills so that they can be ready to contribute to the development of the country. One such example is the Botswana Brigades movement mentioned earlier. One of the objectives of the movement was to reshape secondary schools so that the educated elite could be sympathetic towards the needs of the rural communities and to provide school leavers with life skills (Botswana, 1977:173).

The curriculum for different education or training levels is also bound to reflect development. This implies that pupils and students must be taught about their country, its resources and the necessary conditions for its development. For example, one of the subjects, namely Development Studies, has its syllabus geared towards making pupils and students conscious of the need for development (Botswana, 1977:28). Education and development would also have an impact on educational institutions in relation to the community they serve. These communities can be improved through the running of adult education and literacy classes.

4.2.1.3 Education and self-reliance

Self-reliance is a very important attribute for any individual or nation. Botswana's education system after independence was influenced by the need to be self-reliant. This was especially necessary as Botswana was heavily dependent on expatriate manpower. It was therefore largely through educating the nation that institutions and individuals would be freed from dependence on expatriates, would be ready to take initiatives and seize opportunities without relying on the government. Self-reliance means parents and
communities accept their responsibility in the organisation and financing of the education system. This means communities can start their own schools and only expect moral and material encouragement from the Government. Indeed, local communities were involved in establishing Community Junior Secondary Schools (O'Brien, 1995).

As far as the curriculum is concerned, self-reliance can be enhanced through teaching and learning. This would mean encouraging self-study skills and minimising the lecture method on the part of the teacher (Botswana, 1977:29).

School life can also enhance education and self-reliance. This means that teachers could be creative and produce their own teaching aids. Schools can also produce their own food from school gardens and teachers and pupils be encouraged to do minor repairs at their school and not rely on the government for everything (Botswana, 1977:30).

4.2.1.4 Education and unity

The concept unity embraces many ideas such as loyalty, cooperation and a sense of national identity. This does not mean uniformity, but rather a common bond and interest among different ethnic groups of the Batswana who are also situated in different regions. This pursuit of unity calls for every citizen to appreciate his or her rights and responsibilities, to be fluent in the national language and to be proud of his or her national cultural heritage (Botswana, 1977:30). All this can be achieved through education, hence the determinant of education and unity as one of the national ideals for education for Kagisano. Education is taken as the single most important instrument to achieve nation-building and national identity.

Education and unity are achieved when education forms a unified system. In other words, the education system of Botswana is seen as a unified structure with schools, institutions and training courses in different parts of Botswana properly linked to a national system to ensure that all learners can move from one institution to another without undue impediment (Malao, 1985:218).

As far as the curriculum of the schools is concerned, national unity and national identity must be stressed by ensuring that the national language, Setswana is mastered by all. The other subjects which emphasise national identity relevant to Botswana would be art, literature, history, geography and developmental studies.
The last aspect of education and unity is the way in which the life and structure of the school is arranged. To emphasise nationhood, the national flag, wall charts and maps of Botswana should be displayed in every school and national event be commemorated (Botswana, 1977:31).

4.2.1.5 Social and sense of community and mutual responsibility

The idea of social justice implies fairness and equity. This is achieved by distributing the national educational resources in a fair or equitable manner and by providing equal opportunities. Therefore there would be no discrimination on the basis of sex, ethnic group, religion or area of origin within the borders of Botswana. For example, there is no single secondary school in Botswana, even in the remote area of the country, which is not electrified (Maakwe, 1995).

The sense of community and mutual responsibilities can be expressed in many ways within the education context. For example, community responsibility is embodied in the system of governing schools. This would include local leaders who could be members of parliament, councillors and traditional leaders. The education system should prepare citizens who should stand ready to discharge their “debt” to their country in whatever way the Government finds most appropriate. This compassion and mutual responsibility should also be promoted by the curriculum of the schools. Incentives to promote individual effort, a sense of personal responsibility and cooperative striving are all essential components of a healthy education (Botswana, 1977:34).

4.2.2 Culture as determinant

Culture is defined as the work and the product of work of man or the community. It is further described as a complex whole that consists of everything we think and do and have as members of a particular target group (Steyn, 1994:81). Everything which exists in time has a cultural aspect. For example, when man as the maker of history gives concrete form to cultural norms, he creates cultural forms (Stone, 1981:74). Group culture as opposed to individual culture is important in the education system perspective which will lead us, for example, to history, language and economics of that group (Steyn, 1994:81).

The culture of a target group, in this case of the Botswana people, gives the components of the education system a specific content. It also determines the educational needs of
Batswana people since, for example, the technological advancement of countries are not the same (Steyn, 1994:81-82). For the 81 years up to independence, Botswana was known as the Bechuanaland Protectorate under the British rule and therefore the colonial culture was imposed on the citizens and their indigenous culture discouraged (Botswana, 1977:11). It is therefore against this background that the people of Botswana got the chance of reasserting their own culture, and began to build a society which gives expression to the noblest values from the past. This national identity also depends on imported ideas, cultural borrowing and useful innovations developed elsewhere (Botswana, 1977:11).

4.2.2.1 Language as a determinant

Botswana is to a large extent culturally homogeneous with about 80 percent of the population belonging to the same ethnic and linguistic group. The predominant language is Setswana and English is only used as a medium of instruction in schools, from Standard 3 onwards. Language policy in schools is therefore considerably simplified because a large portion of the population speak Setswana. Language is also a means by which cultural identity is strengthened.

The education system, according to the Report of the National Commission of 1977, must orientate young people towards the social, cultural, artistic, political and economic life of their unique society (Botswana, 1977:12).

Even though most people of Botswana speak Setswana, English is used for a much longer time in the education system compared to Setswana which only goes up to Std 4 level. This influence of English on the education system is also reflected in the requirements for completing the Junior Certificate (Malao, 1985:222). English and Setswana are, however, not the only languages spoken. There are other racial groups like Hereros, Yajis, Bambukushu and Sarwa who do not understand Setswana or English. This therefore hampers provision of education in the western parts of Botswana (Mazonde as quoted by Malao, 1985:223). There is however, no doubt that Setswana and English are some of the important determinants of the Education system of Botswana. The point to emphasise is that the people of Botswana are free to choose linguistic and cultural patterns that suit them. The reality of their situation and their commitment to universal education compels them to strengthen English programmes so as to survive the technological and economic impact of the world as a whole (UBLS, 1970:31).
4.2.2.2 History as a determinant

The other cultural aspect of the Botswana people is their history of colonisation by Britain and the subsequent influence of missionary education. Long after independence, the syllabi still retain strong traces of European origin, despite curriculum and syllabi reviews in 1968 and 1969 (Botswana, 1977:17). As a result of the historical links with Britain, there are obvious similarities in the education systems between Botswana and Britain. The Cambridge Overseas Certificate which was until recently administered locally, is proof that the Botswana education system will for years be very much tied to the British system (Maakwe, 1995). This is further asserted by the fact that most Botswana students get scholarships to, and most of the government's consultants come from Britain (Katse:1995).

4.2.2.3 The economy as a determinant

Education and the economy are closely related because education supplies the skills and specialised manpower that economic enterprises require. Also, education develops abilities useful to the self-employed in their occupations whilst at the same time education uses money, manpower and materials which might be devoted to other needs and therefore accounts for the biggest share in the national budget (Botswana, 1977:13).

When Botswana gained independence in 1966, it was so desperately poor that it depended upon budgetary grants from the UK in order to meet its financial commitments. These grants were gradually reduced and finally disappeared during the 1970's. However, the recent economic history of Botswana is one of very rapid growth as a result of discovery and exploitation of fresh mineral salts in many parts of the country.

The 1979-1985 National Development Plan's forecast was a slower rate of annual growth which in 1983 was running at about 9%. This figure augurs well for the sustained expansion of the education system as well as employment prospects for school leavers (Cameron, 1983:22-23).

The education system of a country is linked to the provision of buildings, books and other facilities which all cost money. This also includes the payment of teachers and administrative personnel. Botswana as a developing country cannot escape all this. Due to its poor economy, Botswana depends on South Africa for economic growth. This is indicated by the fact that this economy is highly dependent on imports and exports to and through South Africa which, in turn, has led to a customs union between the two
countries. All this adds weight to Botswana's aim of assuming greater control of its economy. The educational policy as emphasised in the National Development Plan IV (1985-91) aims at producing manpower which is not only educated but trained as well (Lauglo & Marope, 1987:2-3).

Education systems cannot fulfil manpower requirements immediately. That means that education requires sufficient time to fulfill the manpower needs of any society, especially when schools must be built and programmes be re-orientated. For a long time Botswana has heavily relied on expatriate manpower. There appears to have been no policy on localisation in Botswana before independence. For example, in 1969 jobs requiring persons with a degree or diploma qualification numbered 680, of which Botswana citizens filled less than ten percent (Watters, 1973:56-57).

The general effect of the economy on the education system led to the creation of the brigade institution in order to solve the problem of the primary school leavers who could not find admission to the secondary schools. It was against this background that Patrick van Rensburg and his wife started these Brigades which eventually influenced the government into accepting and recognising them (Malao, 1985:232). Today, the Ministry of Education gives financial support to the Brigades Development Centre (BRIDEC) in order to subsidise the return of vocational training and to provide funding for capital investments (Botswana, 1993a:11).

The economic picture of Botswana since independence has been improving and is not completely dark. Botswana is often described as a story of spectacular economic success in Africa. Like most developing countries, the economy mainly depends on a few primary products like mining and livestock. For example, the contribution of the mining industry to GDP has increased from 8,7 percent in 1973/74 to 36,2 percent in 1984/85 (Molamu as quoted by Botswana, 1988:251).

Botswana's economic growth has resulted in the need for the expansion of educational facilities because the government's ability to continue educational expansion or to maintain existing services is also dependent on the country's economic growth. For example, economic growth provides the means to sustain educational growth and all this creates the opportunity for profitable work. The fact that one's salary depends on educational qualifications reinforces a demand for education (Malao, 1985:232). There is no doubt that the economy of Botswana influences and continues to influence the level of educational provision.
From the mid-1970's Botswana has been able to diversify its economy away from cattle and marginal agriculture with the discovery of diamonds and the development of nickel, soda ash, coalmining and limited tourism. Botswana remains one of the few Third World countries with a hard currency strategy that leads to minimal exchange controls. However, a state government and an expanding economy has made a steady growth in the education system possible (Weeks, 1993:1).

The socio-economic context within which the education system operates, is central to its effective planning and future development. Educational planning has a long gestation period and its effects on development cannot be well synchronised in the absence of long term view of the structure of the economy and employment. These factors are inter-related and together they influence the development pattern of education. For example those who will enter the labour within 25 years must have their training and job requirements planned for now. Therefore, planning economic development in general and human resource development in particular, is optimised when the likely long term changes in the structure of the population, the economy and employment opportunities are determined as accurately as possible. According to the Report of the National Commission on Education of 1993, all these aspects must be taken into consideration for the future development of Botswana's education system (Botswana, 1993b:4).

4.2.2.4 Politics as a determinant

Botswana was known as Bechuanaland Protectorate for 81 years until independence on 30 September 1966 (Botswana, 1977:11). On that day up to the present, the Botswana Democratic Party (BDP) became the ruling party. This is despite the fact that Botswana is a multi-party, non-racial and democratic country. (Nyerere & Mautle as quoted by Malao, 1985:158).

The political philosophy of Botswana's ruling party consists of four principles. The parliamentary government of multi-party democracy was also established on these principles, namely:

- Puso ya batho ka batho - Democracy
- Ditiro ka thabololo - Development
- Boipelego - Self-reliance
- Popagano ya setshaba - Unity (Thebenala as quoted by Malao, 1985:159).
These principles were later adapted by the National Commission on Education, whose report was released in April 1977. As the report says: "Fortunately Botswana possesses a set of national principles outlined by her leaders as the foundation for building the country" (Botswana, 1977:23).

The political system of government which is related to the political philosophy of the people pervades the entire system of education, especially as far as the control and provision of education is concerned. This is manifested in the division of the country into twelve districts, namely North West, Ghanzi, Kgalagadi, Central, North East, Kweneng, Kgatleng, Southern, South East, Francistown, Gaborone and Lobatse (Mazonde as quoted by Malao, 1985:159). Education in Botswana is therefore democratically controlled. Local control of education further ensures greater local participation. Local Education Authorities (L.E.A's) and Boards of Governors have a say in the way education is controlled. Education in Botswana reflects and projects the democratic principles that the country has set itself. One of the most remarkable features of Botswana is the very high degree of personal freedom which exists there, the extent of political tolerance, and the existence of a formal multi-political system (Anderson as quoted by Raikane 1987:103).

Botswana has maintained a stable democracy since 1966. This is supported by the fact that, the first President, Seretse Khama was a consistent leader of his party and the government until his death in 1980 and was consequently succeeded without any incident by another senior chief Ketumile Masire (Cameron, 1983:21).

The politics as a determinant of the Botswana's education system after independence have influenced education in a positive and remarkable way. There is no doubt that education in Botswana reflects the democratic principle as the political philosophy of the ruling party, the BDP and the government. The fact that there is provision for Parent-Teachers Associations in its educational system is evidence enough of a democratic principle of government (Malao, 1985:214). This decentralisation of education does not happen at the expense of central control. At the central level, there is a Minister of Education and the Permanent Secretary of Education. This arrangement is protected by the Constitution. For example, Article 200, Part IV (The Supplementary Section of the Educational Act 40 of 1966) gives any person who has had his request to register a school turned down, the right to appeal to the Minister of Education. (Raikane, 1987:109).
The goals of education as set in the government White Paper of 1977, namely the National Policy on Education, demand that education must foster and promote the four national principles which lead to social harmony or Kagisano (Kgomanyane, 1994:544). The education system is therefore geared towards universal access to nine years of basic and sound quality education. This would then prepare children for a useful and productive life after school, eliminate inequalities of educational opportunities, and meet the labour force needs of the economy. To ensure that these are realised, school fees were abolished in 1980 and 1988 for primary schools and secondary schools respectively in order to reduce barriers to access (Kgomanyane, 1994:544). Education provision seems to be accessible to all citizens of the country, except that there are 10 to 15 percent of school-going age children who are not attending school (Maakwe, 1995:5). These could be in the streets, at the cattle posts as labourers, or even children of the nomadic Basarwa (Maakwe, 1995). In the final analysis the politics of Botswana promotes education and therefore does not conflict with the interests of the entire nation (Moarabi, 1995). Democracy at the parent's level involves the choice of the parent with regards to whether his or her child can or should be taught Religious Education and even the type of Religious Education to be taught. This right, namely freedom of religion, is protected by the Botswana Education Law (Botswana, Act 40 of 1966:Article 23). This tolerance stems from the political theory of democracy. The parents are further involved through the Local Education Authorities which are directly involved with the provision and maintenance of schools (Mogobye, 1995). In general, the spirit of democracy is responsible for the decentralisation of education control. This democracy, which is one of the four principles of the government and also one aspect of the political philosophy of the people of Botswana, is one of the determinants of education. Politics is thus also clearly a proven determinant of the education system of Botswana after independence (Malao, 1985:215).

4.2.3 Demography as a determinant

Demography is another of the determinants of the education system of Botswana after independence. This points to the numbers, migration and settlement as dynamic components of the target group of a particular education system (Steyn, 1994:87). These dynamic components are influenced by the geographic and environmental condition of a country. For example, Botswana has an area of 582 000 square kilometers, 80 percent of which is desert (Whittaker, 1983:3).
Human settlement in Botswana is influenced by the availability of water. For example, 80 percent of the population is dependent on ground water. The area of the Limpopo has good soil and the rainfall is usually sufficient to produce good pasturage and arable agriculture based on sorghum, maize and millet (Cameron, 1983:19).

Botswana has been inhabited for a very long time, which means the present population is a reflection of that. Rapid growth in population and tremendous urbanisation has occurred in Botswana over the last 20 years, with Gaborone said to be the fastest growing city in Africa. By 1970, 10 percent of the population lived in towns, compared to 33 percent in 1991. By now, new towns have been established at Selebi-Phikwe, Orapa, Jwaneng and Sowa and older centres of Ghanzi, Kasane, Maun, Francistown and Lobatse have grown significantly and are today Botswana's major centres (Weeks, 1993:1). All these developments have influence on the education system.

The traditional patterns of settlement and migration in Botswana, especially that of the rural Tswanas have an influence in the education provision. For example, the rural Tswanas have three homes, namely, in the village, on the land where they grow crops, and at the cattle post. The government is forced to provide schools in each of these settlement areas (Malao, 1985:157). Sometimes there is a large land area which is lowly populated, with dispersed settlement patterns that lead to a number of problems and issues in the education sector. The high degree of urbanisation and growth of certain centres mentioned earlier also influence education provision in these areas. For example, as a result of settlement patterns of the rural population, small schools in some rural areas have been established by those affected communities. It is clear therefore that these settlement patterns dictate to educational planners to provide schools in the villages, cattle posts or on crop-growing areas, thereby making demography one of the determinants of the education system of Botswana after independence (Swartland as quoted by Malao, 1985:224).

The settlement pattern of the people of Botswana affects both rural and urban areas. Young Batswana are being drawn away from rural areas towards large villages and towns. The growth of urban areas (which was 12 percent in 1977) represented the highest rate on the continent of Africa. This tendency creates social and economic problems for the larger population centres. This means that education to prepare young Batswana for the future must make them adaptable and versatile to be able to live in rural or urban areas (Botswana, 1977:11). The other demographic aspect relates to the numbers which give rise to population growth. The rapid population growth of 3 percent
puts considerable strain on both the economy and the education system. This in turn results in very large numbers of young Batswana which impact on the provision of facilities and the teaching corps (Botswana, 1977:10). The rate of population growth impacts directly on the education system. For example, children who are born today will determine the number of Standard 1 places required six years from now, and the Form 1 places 13 years hence (Botswana, 1993b:4).

According to the 1991 census, the population of Botswana stood at 1,3 million and this figure is expected to increase at an annual rate of 2,9% between 1991 and 2016 (Botswana, 1993b:4-3). There is no doubt that this growth rate will affect education provision as illustrated by Table 4.1 which gives the age distribution of the population in 1991.

**TABLE 4.1**

Age Distribution of the Population, 1991 (Botswana, 1993b:4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE GROUP</th>
<th>POPULATION</th>
<th>% of POPULATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-4</td>
<td>248 124</td>
<td>18,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-14</td>
<td>393 530</td>
<td>29,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-64</td>
<td>650 992</td>
<td>48,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64+</td>
<td>41 354</td>
<td>3,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1 334 000</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to this table, 48,1% of the population was below 15 years in 1991. This group, together with the population age group 64+, form the dependent population. The dependent population was therefore more than the non-dependent population. The other aspect of the population structure relates to the different population groups with an interest in education. These groups involve children of school going age, those who are economically active and those who are dependent. This is illustrated by Table 4.2.
TABLE 4.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOTAL POPULATION OF WHICH:</th>
<th>1991: (1000's)</th>
<th>1991 %</th>
<th>2016: (number) 1000's</th>
<th>2016: %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economically active</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>48,8</td>
<td>1 623</td>
<td>59,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>683</td>
<td>51,2</td>
<td>1 109</td>
<td>40,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School Age</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>14,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Secondary School age</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>6,7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above projections suggest that the rate of growth of the dependent population will be slower during the period 1991 - 2016 and the school age population will be increasing at a slow rate, whilst the economically active population will be growing at a rate of 3,7 percent per annum. However, the slow percentage increase of the population is accompanied by the big increase in real numbers. For example, the 82 000 of senior secondary school pupils of school age in 1991 is projected to rise to 174 000 by 2016. This projection of the National Development Plan 7, 1991-1997 of the Republic of Botswana has significant implications for education and training in that whilst the slower growth rate of the school age population will lessen, the need to provide school places and teachers, the increase in the economically active population will require that education and training should be geared towards preparing a labour force that is ready for employment. The National Development Plan 7, 1991-1997 projects the need to create over 600 000 jobs over the next 25 years in order to meet the demand for jobs by this labour force (Botswana, 1993b:5).

What is apparent from the present research is that demography is indeed an influential factor in the provision of education. This is supported by the fact that many Batswana go outside the country to continue their education since the educational facilities are not sufficient for all citizens of the country for different education and training levels (Setlhabi, 1995). Since this is a dynamic determinant, it will therefore continuously affect the education system of any country. Botswana, in particular, has not escaped this influence.
4.3 CONCLUSION

Having discussed all the different determinants of the education system of Botswana after independence, it is very clear that the post-independence period up to now is characterised by significant new demands on the education system. The fact that when Botswana became politically independent it was one of the poorest countries in the world, means that the ruling Botswana Democratic Party had to work hard to develop the country and the educational facilities.

The determinants discussed all centre around the fundamental of the national ideal for Kagisano. Indeed the current education system is based on the Report of the first National Commission on Education in 1977, Education for Kagisano and the subsequent Government White Paper based on its recommendations, namely, the National Policy on Education of 1977 (Botswana, 1993b:11). However, in April 1992, a National Commission on Education was appointed with amongst others the following terms of reference (Botswana, 1993b:v):

- to review the current education system and its relevance, and identify problems for its further development in the context of Botswana's changing and complex economy; and
- to advise on an education system and the manpower requirements of the country.

The next chapter will focus on the level to which the education system policy and education system administration of the education system of Botswana meets the minimum requirements of the education systems of developing countries.
CHAPTER 5

THE EDUCATION SYSTEM POLICY AND THE EDUCATION SYSTEM ADMINISTRATION OF THE BOTSWANA EDUCATION SYSTEM AFTER INDEPENDENCE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The education system of Botswana after independence, like any other education system, has four distinguishable components namely, the education system policy, the education system administration, the structure for teaching and support services. The first two components are much concerned with the formation, adoption and implementation of the policies of the education system (Steyn, 1994:23). Whilst the education system policy represents the statement of intent of the way in which identified educational needs of the target group are to be solved, the education system administration indicates the administration structure or control as well as education management.

This chapter aims at focusing on elements of both the education system policy and the education system administration of Botswana after independence. These elements include the goals, aims and objectives with respect to the education system, the administrative organisational structure, control and financing of the education system. It will then be important to evaluate these elements in order to determine the level to which both the education system policy and the education system administration meet the minimum requirements of education systems of developing countries.

5.2 THE EDUCATION SYSTEM POLICY

5.2.1 The goals, aims and objectives of the education system of Botswana

The goals and aims of the education system of Botswana are expressed in the two reports of the National Commission of Education of 1977 and 1993 respectively. These
goals and aims are further expressed in the different Government Policy papers. These papers are based on the two National Commission reports and The National Development Plans (Lauglo & Marope, 1987:4).

The education system of Botswana was not based on a clear educational policy from independence until 1975, when the first National Commission on Education was set up in order to review the education system in Botswana since independence in 1966. The report of the Commission called Education for Kagisano was released in April 1977, together with the subsequent Government Paper 1 of 1977, the National Policy on Education. These two documents were to set the agenda for educational development that have taken place in the last eighteen years.

5.2.1.1 The National Commission on Education of 1977

In its search for a better education system for Botswana, the 1977 Education Commission used the four National principles as outlined by political leaders (Botswana, 1977:23). These principles then became educational goals, namely:

- Democracy
- Development
- Self-reliance and
- Unity.

Together these four principles bring about a totality called Education for Kagisano with two further aspects, the idea of social justice and the sense of community and mutual responsibility. Based on these principles, the commission declared that there must be a clear set of goals to guide action and a strategy to achieve those goals. These goals were set out as follows in the 1977 Government Policy Paper (Lauglo & Marope, 1987:4):

- Highest priority should be given to primary education, both to improve its quality and to widen access to it.
- Effective and wide-ranging non-formal education programmes should be developed.
- Curriculum development work should be strengthened and directed towards preparing children for a useful and productive life in “the real world”. 

57
• A new kind of intermediate school should be developed with standards and costs of facilities between existing primary and secondary schools. The intake of junior secondary education should be widened so as to eventually provide nine years of basic education for all.

• The difference in quality between rural and urban areas and between private and public education should be reduced gradually.

As one of the principles for Education for Kagisano is development, related aims based on this principle are as follows (Lockhard as quoted by Mouton, 1992:13):

• to increase educational opportunities and to reduce inequalities in educational opportunities;
• to contribute to a balanced economic development by meeting personnel requirements, with particular emphasis on the needs of rural development and employment generation;
• to promote desirable personal qualities and to encourage the full development of individual talents, and
• to extend the role of schools and colleges in the community, and vice-versa.

These educational aims represent the national ideal for the development of Botswana aimed at social harmony as one other aspect of Education for Kagisano. On the whole therefore, the principle of democracy demands that one comprehensive education system be established and the principle of unity demands a better emphasis on a common national culture.

The principle of self-reliance aims at independence from outside help. This means that local labour or rather manpower should be promoted instead of reliance on expatriate manpower (Mouton, 1992:14-15).

The National Development Plan based on the recommendation of the National Commission of Education of 1977 came up with the following more specific objectives to achieve the aims of education in Botswana (Mouton, 1992:15-16). These were:

• to install a development programme that will ensure that the total number of primary education student-teachers is doubled;
• to set up in-service training that will help experienced but unqualified teachers to be properly qualified;
• to introduce a personal development programme for lecturers, teachers, tutors, school principals and inspectors;
• to establish education centres for in-service training of teachers and promotion of non-formal education;
• to engage in a continuous curriculum development coupled with teaching practice;
• to emphasize the practice of continuous evaluation, diagnostic and remedial education;
• to train teachers in the making and use of teaching aids;
• to spread and improve educational programmes on radio;
• to abolish school fees at primary school level;
• to allocate a larger portion of state subsidies to local authorities for the building of schools; and
• to make special education provision for smaller, distant and semi-nomadic communities.

With these aims and objectives Botswana hoped to prepare a better life for its citizens. This is possible because the higher the level of education reached by each person, the better the chance of economic growth. This could be in the government, parastatal or the private sector. The ideal which is strived for with the goals, aims and objectives of education in Botswana is to ensure that Botswana respects the human rights and equality of all its citizens (Isaacs, 1995).

However, this does not mean that people are not independent from one another since individualism is not encouraged. Education would ensure that all Botswana citizens look forward to the future with confidence, optimism and a belief in their local community, own country and nation (Mouton, 1992:17).

The Education Part of the 1979 - 85 National Development Plan (NDP5) and the Government Policy paper both emphasised access to primary education in all regions of the country. The two documents both represented official education policy during 1981-1986 (Lauglo & Marope, 1987:4). According to the NDP5 universal primary education would later shift to the provision of junior secondary education during the next planning stage. This phase would then ensure the establishment of a network of junior secondary schools in order to provide access for all children to nine years of basic education.
The National Development Plan VI (1985 - 95) emphasised the implementation of junior secondary education provision. The NDPVI had also declared the education aims to be as follows (Lauglo & Marope, 1987:5):

- to prepare the Batswana people for useful and productive lives, with training to meet the manpower needs of the economy by giving special attention to rural development and employment generation.
- to increase educational opportunities for all age groups and reduce inequalities of educational opportunity within the limits of available resources.
- to promote coordination between various sub-sectors of the education sector with the ultimate aim of providing continuous access from primary to post-primary education and training by using both the formal and the non-formal system; and
- to strengthen cooperation between the school and the community by encouraging increased participation of the community in the management of schools.

These aims emphasise the promotion of education in order to meet manpower needs on the one hand but also stress commitment to equity within the limits of available resources on the other hand.

5.2.1.2 The National Commission on Education of 1993

The goals, aims and objectives of an education system will always change according to the needs of the people these are meant for. That is why the Government of Botswana appointed the second National Commission on Education on 15 May 1992 (Botswana, 1993b:i). The terms of reference of this Commission was to conduct a broad-ranging review of the entire education system. Particular emphasis was to be given to universal access to basic education, vocational education and training, preparation and orientation for the world of work, articulation between the different levels of the system and a re-examination of the Botswana education structure (Botswana, 1993b:ii). The Commission therefore had to devise a strategy for education and training into the 21st century.

The National Commission on Education of 1993 came up with the seven aims of education and training strategy. These aims were to address the shortcomings of the then current educational policy and practice in order to meet the needs of Botswana's changing economy and society. These aims would then represent the Commission's
strategy for the development of education and training in Botswana and can be summarized as follows:

- to increase access at all levels of education and address lack of equity with respect to certain social groups;
- to improve general education so as to prepare students more effectively for life, citizenship development;
- to develop training so that it is more responsive to the changing needs of economic development;
- to improve and maintain quality education and training at all levels;
- to enhance the status and performance of the teaching profession;
- to ensure effective management through the system and maximise community and parental involvement;
- to increase cost-effectiveness and cost-sharing in the financing of education and training (Botswana, 1993b:29).

These aims are all in line with the commitment made by the Government in the National Development Plan 7, 1991 - 1997 and the original six principles of education provision. Subsequent to the release of the report of the National Commission on Education of 1993, the Government came up with Government Paper 2 of 1994. This then became the revised National policy on Education of March 1994 which was approved by the National Assembly on the 7th of April 1994. This Government Paper represents the reaction of the Government to the recommendations of the Commission. It also lays down policy guidelines and strategy for the future educational development (Botswana, 1994b:1).

The goals of the revised national education policy are to prepare Botswana for the transition from a traditional agro-based economy to the industrial economy that the country aspires to. Access to basic education remains a fundamental human right according to the Government. In general, the education system must develop moral and social values, cultural identity and self-esteem, good citizenship and desirable work ethics (Botswana, 1994b:4).

The education system of Botswana has undergone a policy change in order to adapt to new challenges (Kapele, 1995). This is also reflected by the following aims of national education published in Government Paper no. 2 of 1994 as a Revised National Policy on Education of March 1994:
• to raise educational standards at all levels;
• to emphasize science and technology in the education system;
• to make further education and training more relevant and available to larger numbers of people;
• to improve the partnership between school and communities in the developments of education;
• to provide life-long education to all sections of the population;
• to assume more effective control of the examination mechanisms in order to ensure that the broad objectives of the curriculum are realised;
• to achieve efficiency in educational development.

At the school level the specific aims will be:

• to improve management and administration to ensure higher learning achievements;
• to improve the quality of instruction;
• to implement a broader and more balanced curriculum geared towards developing qualities and skills needed for the world of work;
• to emphasise pre-vocational orientation in preparation for a strengthened post-school technical and vocational education and training and;
• to improve the response of schools to the needs of different ethnic groups in the society (Botswana, 1994b:5-6)

All these goals and aims would impact on the entire education. For example, these affect the structure of the structure for teaching which is now being changed from a 7 + 2 + 3 structure introduced in 1988, to a new 7 + 3 + 2 structure. This arrangement will then affect all the levels of education namely, pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary education (Botswana, 1994b:6-9).

5.2.2 The level to which the education system policy meets the minimum requirements of developing countries

Having described the education system policy of Botswana and its elements, it is now appropriate to evaluate the level to which it meets the minimum requirements of the developing countries (see par. 2.3).
Development is one of the four national principles in terms of which the National Education Commission used to define Botswana's educational goals. As a developing country, Botswana's education policy is geared towards access to basic universal education. This is aimed at increasing educational opportunities to all people and addressing real educational needs of the entire target group (see par. 2.3.1). For example, the government has committed itself to giving particular attention to areas where access to primary education is less than the national average in order to achieve equity in the provision of primary education (Botswana, 1994b:8). The government of Botswana is therefore committed to ensuring access to educational facilities and opportunities to all citizens (Moarabi, 1995).

The goals of the revised national education policy are to enhance the socio-economical development of Botswana (see par. 2.3.1). This is done by reshaping the education provision to cater for the transition from a traditional agro-based economy to the industrial economy that most developing countries aim for. In the past, the education system was not structured to respond to the needs of the economy. Now, according to the recommendations of the 1993 National Commission on Education, the development of an expanded technical and vocational training system will further increase access to education for school leavers (Botswana, 1994b:3). All this emphasises an effective preparation of students for life, citizenship and the world of work. A strategy of pre-vocational preparation within the general education system and a core curriculum which provides for orientation towards the world of work is emphasized by the new Government paper 2 of 1994 (Botswana, 1994b:3).

Many aspects of the new education policy are actually geared towards the general development of Botswana. Needless to say, the adoption of the National Policy on Education in 1977 resulted in educational development being characterised by a massive expansion of school places. For example, between 1979 and 1991, enrolments in primary school rose by 19%, in secondary school by 342% and at University of Botswana by 315% (Botswana, 1994b:3). These figures are significant for a developed country and even more so for a developing country like Botswana.

Botswana's education system policy represents broad principles which are acceptable and important for developing countries. The Government of Botswana is committed to a staged and phased approach of the recommendations of the National Education Commission of 1993. Increased educational opportunities, economic development, manpower needs requirements in all sectors, an emphasis on the needs of rural development as well as the generation of more employment are some of the goals, aims and objectives of the education system of Botswana after independence.
The education system administration involves the organisational structure of personnel or functionaries and the way in which the functionaries and personnel in the education system are organised.

The collection and distribution of the necessary finances is also one of the responsibilities of the agencies (Steyn, 1993:31-32). Through organisation and control are inextricably linked, they can be distinguished as follows:

5.3.1 The organisational structure of personnel

The education system of Botswana has expanded enormously since independence and this has led to the problems of long distance management of education provision (Kgomainanye, 1994:548, ). However, the Ministry of Education was reorganised in 1992 according to circular no.2 of 1992. This re-organisation resulted in the regrouping of functions, resulting in nine departments and three divisions thus (Botswana, 1992a:3) namely the:

- Department of Ministry Management;
- Department of Primary Education;
- Department of Secondary Education;
- Department of Technical Education;
- Department of Non-Formal Education;
- Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation;
- Department of Teaching Service Management;
- Department of Teacher Training and Development;
- Department of Bursaries;
- Division of planning, statistics and research;
- Division of Examination, Research and Testing and the
- Division of Special Education.

As a result of the reorganisation of the Ministry of Education, there will be two deputy Permanent Secretaries, one coordinating "Educational Development Services" whilst the other co-ordinates "Support Services". The organisational structure is shown on figure 5.1.
FIGURE 5.1
Organisational Structure of the Education Ministry
(Botswana, 1992a: Appendix iv)

M.L.G.L.H. = Ministry of Local Government, Lands and Housing
To ensure effective coordination and management, the Ministry has developed systematic and effective inter-ministerial linkages. A clear example is illustrated by the link between Ministry of Local Government and the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning indicated in figure 5.2 on the next page.
FIGURE 5.2
Inter-Ministerial Linkage (Botswana, 1993b:373)

M.L.G.L.H. = Ministry of Local Government, Lands and Housing; UNIV. OF BOT> = University of Botswana
DEP. PERM. = Deputy Permanent; VTC = Vocational Training Centre
This organogram represents the inter-ministerial linkage before the reorganisation of the Ministry of Education by Circular no: 2 of 1992. However, primary education is the shared responsibility of two ministries: the Ministry of Local Government, Land and Housing has to provide primary school infrastructure, school books and equipment while the Ministry of Education is responsible for all professional aspects, including recruitment and salaries of teachers (Kgomanyane, 1994:548). The organogram further shows that Non-Formal Education and Curriculum Development and Evaluation acquired the same status as other Departments. The Brigades were also given a formal structure and technical education was expanded (Botswana, 1993b:372).

5.3.2 Control

Botswana has a strong tradition and practice of community involvement in education provision. Community participation forms an integral part of certain aspects of the organisation and administration of education (see par. 2.3.2).

The first Commission on Education laid down three guiding principles in this regard namely

- that the Ministry of Education would take the leadership in educational matters, but would not have exclusive responsibility;
- that the process of decision-making should be devolved to the level of those affected by them; and
- that the Ministry's role should be the provision of policy and planning frameworks with the detailed execution of policy being left to the administrators and the professionals. (Botswana, 1993b:369)

On the whole, the control and administration of education is decentralised. The Ministry of Education has decentralised offices to district level in the Department of Primary Education and the Department of Non-Formal Education. A great measure of decentralisation has been achieved in non-formal education which now has a network of adult educators and literacy officers spread around the country (Kgomanyane, 1994:548). This represents an administrative machinery which has been devised in order to control and operate education (see par. 2.3.2).
The second Commission on Education of 1993 came up with recommendations on organisation and administration with the following goals (Botswana, 1993b:379-380):

- to provide leadership direction and accountability;
- to ensure that the education provided is both valid and appropriate: and
- to provide for the legitimate interest and welfare of both staff and pupils and the efficient conduct of education.

As a result of the National Commission on Education of 1993, the Government Paper 2 of 1994 published the Revised National Policy on Education of March 1994 which clearly states some of the accepted recommendations on organisation, administration and community involvement as follows. These are:

- With regard to information for teachers, the Department of Teaching Service Management should be responsible for writing and distributing a clearly written Teachers' Handbook explaining the organisation and functions of the officers of the Ministry of Education as well as their rights, obligations and conditions of service.
- With regard to inspection, the inspection of schools should be under one Department of Inspection formed from an enhanced amalgamation of the then existing departmental inspectorates. This new department reports directly to the Permanent Secretary. The inspectors will then ensure and maintain quality education by inspecting achievements and general implementation of policies by schools.
- With respect to decentralisation, the Ministry of Education should establish offices at the level of the local authority administrative areas. These offices would facilitate improved interaction amongst professionals. It would also serve to improve communication with local structures and the Ministry of Education's headquarters.
- With respect to Parents Teachers Association (PTA's), the Government should intensify the efforts to encourage the establishment of PTA's. This will ensure that the principle of community involvement is promoted. The objective of all such PTA's will be to improve the functioning of schools.
- With regard to secondary schools, Boards of Governors should be established at all secondary schools. The role and functions of the Boards of Governors should be reviewed regularly in the light of future requirements of the schools and the schools' ability to serve the community. (Botswana, 1994b:50-52)
5.3.3 Financing

The government is responsible for the financing of education. The Ministry of Education which in 1983 accounted for 23% of government's total capital and operational budget, spends more each year than any other ministry. The provision of education is a very heavy financial burden especially as it is the government's intention to abolish all school fees (Cameron, 1983:31).

Most of the funds going into education are provided by central government. However, a local council receives a subsidy from the government to meet their financial commitments in respect of primary schools. Primary schools are therefore state-subsidised.

Secondary schools, teacher-training colleges and vocational or technical education institutions are fully government colleges and therefore fully government-financed. The brigades receive a grant per trainee. The University also receives a government subvention which is calculated on the basis of the difference between estimated total expenditure and total revenue from fees and other sources (Kgomanyane, 1994:549).

Education in Botswana is also supported financially by a number of outside agencies. For example between 1981 and 1985 Botswana received Swedish support in educational activities (Lauglo & Marope, 1987:14). Support is also provided from outside in various forms which include the supply of equipment, teachers, educational materials and in-service workshops.

These developments are a result of loans from the World Bank, the African Development Bank, the United Nations Capital Development Fund and even donations from the Swedish International Development Fund (Kgomanyane, 1994:549).

It must be noted that the government allocates a significant proportion of the national budget to education. For example, for three fiscal years from 1990/91 to 1992/93, about 17% of the total national budget was allocated to education (Botswana, 1993b:395). The budgetary allocation within the Ministry of Education for the fiscal year 1993/94 shows that secondary education is now allocated the largest portion of 36.3% compared with the primary education allocation of 27%. Table 5.1 shows this relationship as follows:
TABLE 5.1
Budgetary allocation, 1993/94 Financial year - Ministry of education (P '000), (Botswana, 1993b:397)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>RECURRENT</th>
<th>DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Headquarters</td>
<td>6 351</td>
<td>1 237</td>
<td>7 588</td>
<td>0,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>189 087</td>
<td>25 857</td>
<td>25 857</td>
<td>27,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>214 500</td>
<td>71 500</td>
<td>285 828</td>
<td>36,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Education</td>
<td>37 784</td>
<td>9 238</td>
<td>47 022</td>
<td>6,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-formal</td>
<td>9 818</td>
<td>1 200</td>
<td>11 018</td>
<td>1,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Education</td>
<td>33 399</td>
<td>20 280</td>
<td>53 679</td>
<td>6,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>126 781</td>
<td>27 000</td>
<td>153 781</td>
<td>19,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Development</td>
<td>13 281</td>
<td>955</td>
<td>14 236</td>
<td>1,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>630 820</td>
<td>157 267</td>
<td>788 087</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above table, it must be noted that budgetary allocation include teacher's salaries and that Technical Education includes the funding of Brigades whilst Primary allocation includes allocation under the Ministry of local Government, Land and Housing.

The Ministry of Education’s recurrent allocation for each learner at the different levels of education is shown on Table 5.2 on the next page.
TABLE 5.2
Recurrent unit cost in Pulas of various levels of education: 1984/85, 1989/90 financial years, (Botswana 1993b:398)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>1984/85</th>
<th>1989/90</th>
<th>% INCREASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>1 142</td>
<td>1 363</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Secondary</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1 260</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Secondary</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1 630</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Education</td>
<td>2 268</td>
<td>3 202</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-formal</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>4 925</td>
<td>4 575</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brigades</td>
<td>1 559</td>
<td>1 800</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>12 591</td>
<td>12 394</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above shows, for example, that in 1989/90 the cost for educating one university student was 45 times that of educating a primary school child and 9 times that of educating a secondary school child. The table also shows a substantial increase in the budgetary allocation for teacher education and non-formal education and a small increase in the budgetary allocation for university education (Botswana, 1993b:398). Against this background, the Revised National Policy on Education of March 1994 emphasised the recommendations of the National Commission on Education of 1993 namely that:

- With respect to primary education, the present policy of not charging fees for primary education should be retained.
- With respect to secondary, the Government should finance the cost of all the basic facilities required at the junior secondary schools, including all teachers' housing.

72
5.4 THE LEVEL TO WHICH THE EDUCATION SYSTEM ADMINISTRATION MEETS THE MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

In general, the Botswana Government, despite all its economic constraints, meets the minimum requirements of developing countries. The government is presently committed to free education for primary education and also subsidises all other levels of education.

The local communities are involved in the administration and control of educational institutions (see par. 2.3.2). Through the PTA's and Boards of Governors, parents' participation in decision-making is enhanced and secured.

The organisational structure ensures that administration and its areas of inspection, supervision, operation, personnel, budget, planning curriculum and instruction are all catered so as to ensure an effective and efficient Ministry of Education. Indeed the Government Paper 2 of 1994 has ensured that most of the important recommendations of the Report of the National Commission on Education of 1993 are implemented as government policy. It is therefore sufficient to state that in so far as the capacity of a developing country is concerned, the Botswana education system meets the minimum requirements.

5.5 CONCLUSION

For a developing country like Botswana, which only became independent as recently as 1966, a great deal has been achieved as far as the development and implementation of the education system policy and the education system administration are concerned. This development has occurred as a result of high economic growth rate, a stable political atmosphere, international financial support and a clean, effective and efficient administration (Mouton, 1992:49).

The education system policy and the education system administration are further manifested in the last two components, namely the structure for teaching as well as support services. These last two components will receive attention in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 6

THE STRUCTURE FOR TEACHING AND SUPPORT SERVICES OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF BOTSWANA AFTER INDEPENDENCE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

As indicated in the previous chapter, which focused on the education system policy and the education system administration, the last two components, namely, the structure for teaching and support services will now receive attention in this chapter. The structure for teaching has to do with structural combination of all education institutions at all levels of education. These four levels include the pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary levels. The other elements of the structure for teaching include education and/or training programmes, the learners, the teachers, the medium of instruction and the physical facilities (Steyn, 1994:37-38). The last component of the education system of Botswana as constituted after independence to be discussed are the support services. Elements of this component include services provided to the educators, services provided to teaching activities and structures and services provided to the learners (Steyn, 1994:47). The emphasis and focus of this chapter is therefore on elements of both the structure for teaching and support services. The elements of these two components will then be evaluated against the minimum requirements of the two components of the education systems of developing countries.

6.2 THE STRUCTURE FOR TEACHING

The component, structure for teaching is discussed with regard to education levels and institutions, the learners and physical facilities as elements.
6.2.1 Education levels and institutions

In order to understand the position of each education institution in the Botswana's education system, it is important that the arrangements of school levels or the school system be understood. The first Commission of 1977 recommended that the structure should be changed by 1990 from 7 years primary, 3 years junior secondary and 2 years senior secondary to a structure consisting of 6 years primary, 3 years junior secondary and 3 years senior secondary education. As a transitional step to arrive at this new structure, a 7 years primary, 2 years junior secondary school and 3 years senior secondary structure was introduced in 1988. The second Commission of 1993, however recommended the reintroduction of the 7 + 3 + 2 structure in 1995 as this would ensure school leavers at junior secondary school level are left with only two more years of senior secondary education (Botswana, 1993b:vii). The future structure of the education and training system of Botswana is shown on figure 6.1. on the next page.
FIGURE 6.1
The Future Structure of the Education and Training System (Botswana, 1993b:viii)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>LEVEL</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>22</td>
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<td>21</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS
- DISTANCE EDUCATION AND PART-TIME STUDY
- JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL (3 years)
- PRIMARY SCHOOL (7 years)
- PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOL (2 years)
- NATIONAL LITERACY PROGRAMME
- ADULT BASIC EDUCATION
- TERTIARY
- SECONDARY
- PRIMARY
- PRE-PRIMARY
- EMPLOYMENT
6.2.1.1 Pre-Primary education

Pre-primary education covers a wide range of day care programmes which are run by churches, women's groups, district councils as well as the Red Cross. By 1994, there were more than 200 registered day care centres with a total enrolment of about 7240 children (Kgomanyane, 1995:121). The Ministry of Local Government and Housing is responsible for monitoring, supervising, coordinating as well as evaluating pre-school activities in the country (Kgomanyane, 1994:546).

Before 1977, the development of day care centres was not guided by any serious educational consideration and was done in an unstructured manner. The main purpose was security and socialisation of the child whilst the mother was at work. It was only in 1980 that a special Reference Committee drew up guidelines which resulted in the adoption of the National Policy on Day Care Centres (Botswana, 1993b:62). The present curriculum is not standardised and the training of teachers is done outside the formal teacher-training programmes (Botswana, 1994b:7).

The 1991-1997 National Development Plan acknowledges the government's commitment to the development of a comprehensive policy on preschool education (Kgomanyane, 1994:546). Against this understanding the Government Paper 2 of 1994, as a Revised National Policy on Education, emphasises that at the present time Government cannot commit itself to the provision of pre-primary education on a universal basis as a result of the scale to which the Government is committed on other areas of support. However, the Government will continue to support this level of education and continue with provision of adequately trained teachers and effective supervision (Botswana, 1994b:7).

6.2.1.2 Primary Education

Primary education is at present a seven year course which is freely accessible to all children (Mouton, 1992:35). Since independence, primary education provision has increased three fold and is available to about 80% of the relevant age group of 6-13 years (Cameron, 1983:35). By 1993, there were already 500 primary schools and 6500 teachers. At that time, only 36% of teachers were untrained but the country now has the capacity to train teachers (Whittaker, 1983:5).
The primary school curriculum aims at providing children with a basic competency in language, computation, the laws of nature and appreciation of society, as well as educational experiences that enable them to discover and develop their own special talents and skills. Vocationalisation of primary education is therefore not supported. At the moment, Botswana primary schools offer eleven subjects, of these eleven subjects, five of which are examinable at the end of primary schooling (Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda, 1992:46). These five subjects are Setswana, English, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. The other six subjects which are time-tabled but not examinable are Religious and Moral Education, Agriculture, Home Economics, Physical Education, Art and Craft and Music (Botswana, 1993b:107).

The current primary education has been mostly fashioned and to a large extent moulded by the National Policy on Education of 1977, which was based on the recommendations of the first 1977 National Commission on Education. Amongst others, the policy sought to address

- access to primary education;
- the improvement of the low quality of primary education in general and the differences between urban and rural, self- help and public schools; and
- the orientation of learners in primary education to the world of work (Botswana, 1977:81).

According to the Revised National Policy On Education of 1994 (Botswana, 1994b:8) Government will undertake a phased programme to eliminate the shortage of physical facilities at primary school level and give particular attention to areas where access to primary education is less than the national average. Pupils in the primary school phase are promoted without examination. However, at the end of a primary school phase the pupils write a school-leaving examination which, together with standardised ability tests, are necessary for certification (Mouton 1992:36).

6.2.1.3 Secondary Education

The expansion of secondary education has been even more dramatic than that of primary education. The development of new secondary schools started immediately after independence (Coles, 1985:38).
After seven years of primary education, there are a further three years of junior secondary education followed by two years of senior secondary education to be completed at the age of eighteen (Botswana, 1993b:viii). At the end of the senior secondary phase, an external examination is written in order to obtain or qualify for the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (Mouton, 1992:37) This is also referred to as the Cambridge GCE O Level school certificate which is also the entrance requirement for the University of Botswana. The GCE A Levels are only available at Maru a Pula private school (O'Brien, 1995). The examination is run by Britain and is only recently that arrangements have been made to localise it (Maakwe, 1995).

There are six core subjects for the junior secondary level namely, English, Setswana, Mathematics, Integrated Science, Social Studies and Agriculture. The curriculum in the senior- secondary is determined by the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate Examination. It is therefore a foreign examination system (Kesentse, 1995). Despite the fact that in 1978, the Ministry of Education established the Curriculum Development and Evaluation, efforts to reform the curriculum are tied to a foreign examination (Kgomanyane, 1994:550).

According to the Revised National Policy On Education of 1994 the Government is still committed to providing universal access to junior secondary education. However, to ensure the employability of and capacity for further training of junior secondary school leavers, the programme must be revised in order to emphasise the pre-vocational preparation (Botswana, 1994b:8).

6.2.1.4 Vocational and Technical Education

The proportion of junior secondary school leavers progressing to senior secondary level has fallen. At the senior secondary level the curriculum is restrictive and examinations are yet to be localised (Botswana, 1994b:8). Since independence, more females than males have been admitted into teaching colleges (Fuller et al, 1994:349).

As far as technical education is concerned the growth has been qualitative and quantitative. In 1974, the National Centre for Vocational Training was opened as a way of responding to the training needs of the economy. This centre was supported by the Brigades Movement which had been started in 1965 by Patrick van Rensburg. The expansion of the Brigades led to over 40 Brigades with 30 Coordinating Brigade Centres (Cameron, 1983:26) The National Centre for Vocational Training was upgraded in 1979 in order to produce
higher level technicians and craftsmen and the name was changed to the Botswana Polytechnic.

Vocational training in Botswana is essentially an employer-based training provided through the apprenticeship scheme. Therefore different training centres (like Debswana at the Orapa Mine) were registered by the Ministry of Education as vocational training centres (Botswana, 1993b:195). The number of new apprentice contracts per year from 1988 up to 1992 is shown as follows:

**TABLE 6.1**
Number of new apprentice contracts per year (Botswana, 1993b:195)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. apprentices</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>382</td>
<td>429</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Ministry of Education also offers a full-time pre-employment training course at the Vocational Training Centres. The two-year institutions based course for Junior Certificate school leavers offers 23 trades with the following annual intakes:

**TABLE 6.2**
Annual intake of the two-year full-time trainees in the Vocational Training Centres (Botswana, 1993b:196)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. trainees</td>
<td>493</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>727</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Brigades Development Centre (BRIDEC) established in 1977 is also contributing to the provision of the necessary manpower for the development of the economy in accordance with National Development Plans (Botswana, 1992b:4). The enrolment in the Brigades is shown on Table 6.3.
There are other institutions which are involved in vocational training, some on a smaller scale like the Roads Training Centre and the others on a larger scale like the Botswana College of Agriculture and the Botswana Institute of Administration and Commerce. The enrolment of these in 1992 is shown on Table 6.4 as follows:

### TABLE 6.4
Enrolments in Full-Time Technician-O-Level training 1992 (Botswana, 1993b:199)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTION</th>
<th>ANNUAL INTAKE</th>
<th>TOTAL ENROLMENT: 1992</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Botswana Polytechnic</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana College of Agriculture</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana Institute of Administration and Commerce</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road Training Centre</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>885</td>
<td>1180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 6.2.1.5 Teacher education

Teacher training is numerically the largest element in vocational training. This is supported by the fact that by 1980, the three colleges together had 844 students enrolled and plans were under way to build more (Coles, 1985:42).
6.2.1.6 Tertiary education

Tertiary education refers to Diploma and Degree qualifications offered by Colleges and the University. The University of Botswana started as the University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland in 1964 (Mouton, 1992:39). The UBLS broke up in 1975 when Lesotho unilaterally started its own university. The two countries then formed the University of Botswana and Swaziland (Coles, 1985:45). Historically, the focal point of tertiary education provision in Botswana has been the University of Botswana which was established in 1982 as a result of the 1975 break up to UBLS (Botswana, 1993b:251).

The general provision of tertiary education since independence up to 1976 by Botswana, other African countries and European countries is shown in Table 6.5. as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>BOTSWANA</th>
<th>OTHER AFRICAN COUNTRIES</th>
<th>OUTSIDE AFRICA</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tertiary education in Botswana today involves all education that stipulates a minimum entry requirement of successful completion of senior secondary schooling. Since independence there has been high growth in institutions that offer Diploma and Degree programmes as well as other advanced professional courses. These institutions are (Botswana, 1993b:247-248):

- Botswana Centre for Accountancy Studies/Botswana Institute of Accountants: a centre for accountancy set up by the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning in order to provide tuition for examinations of a number of internationally recognised accountancy bodies.
- Botswana College of Agriculture-Associate Institution of the University of Botswana, under the Ministry of Agriculture, offering degrees and diplomas of the University of Botswana in Agriculture and Agricultural Education.
- Botswana Institute of Administration and Commerce: a mainly training institution for the public service under the Directorate of Public Service Management (of the office of the President) offering diplomas in Public Administration and Accounting/Business Studies.
- Botswana Polytechnic: a Ministry of Education institution offering diplomas awarded by City Guilds of London Institute, and degrees in engineering and a B.Ed. (Design and Technology) awarded by the University of Botswana.
- Molepolole and Tonota Colleges of Education-Ministry of Education institutions offering University of Botswana Diplomas in Secondary Education.
- National Health Institute: a Ministry of Health institution offering University of Botswana Diplomas in Nursing and allied professions.
- Tlokweng College of Primary Education: a Ministry of education institution offering a University of Botswana Diploma in Primary Education.
- Roads Training Centre: a Ministry of Works, Transport and Communications institution offering a High Engineering Diploma.
- University of Botswana: an autonomous institution offering diploma, first degree and Masters courses in the Arts, Education, Humanities and Sciences and awarding degrees and diplomas for approved courses taught by some of the above institutions.

In general enrolments in tertiary institutions has massively expanded since 1978 up to 1991 as shown by Table 6.6. as follows:
The Botswana government still send a significant number of students abroad for tertiary education. This happens in specialised areas which the local University does not provide for, for example medicine, dentistry and mining engineering (Botswana, 1993b:248).

6.2.1.7 Out of School Education

This involves non-formal education which was originally aimed at adult education but later had to deal with the problem of junior secondary school-leavers as well as literacy for adults (Whittaker, 1983:10).

The Department on Non-Formal Education in the Ministry of Education was established in 1978 with the following aims (Mouton, 1992:41):

- to ensure access to educational opportunities;
- to satisfy the educational needs of people who live in rural areas;
- to support literacy programmes;
- to offer correspondence courses as a substitute for formal education; and
- to provide educational radio broadcast programmes.

The National Literacy Project was established in 1980. This national programme was offered by literacy group leaders who trained on completion of their primary school programme. They would undergo a three-month course to prepare them for their role and responsibility in handling literacy problems (Mouton, 1992:41).
6.2.2 The learners and educators

The quantity and quality of both learners and educators have improved tremendously since independence. This conclusion is based on data from the Report of the National Commission on Education in 1993. The Report gives data on primary and secondary education for both learners and educators. Table 6.7 shows the increase in the number of schools and enrolments for Primary Education from 1978 to 1991 as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>NUMBER OF SCHOOLS</th>
<th>ENROLMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government</td>
<td>Grant Aided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>583</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

85
As the number of schools increased over the years from 377 in 1978 to 647 in 1991, the number of trained teachers also increased from 2,851 in 1978 to 8,529 in 1991, which led to a remarkable improvement in pupil/trained teacher ratio from 50:1 in 1978 to 35:1 in 1991 (Botswana, 1993b:82). In 1991 more than 86% of primary school teachers were trained compared to 64% in 1979. This is shown by Table 6.8 as follows:

**Table 6.8**
Trained and Untrained Primary School Teachers by type of school in 1991 (Botswana, 1993b:87)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trained</td>
<td>7,887</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>8,529</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Untrained</td>
<td>1,185</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>1,304</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9,072</td>
<td>761</td>
<td>9,833</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a result of increase in the number of community junior secondary schools from 33 in 1984 to 146 in 1991, enrolment at these schools also increased from 23,500 in 1984 to 52,866 in 1991 (Botswana, 1993b:140). This increase is shown on Table 6.9 on the next page.
<table>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2 232</td>
<td>2 416</td>
<td>2 750</td>
<td>2 840</td>
<td>3 098</td>
<td>4 671</td>
<td>4 871</td>
<td>5 085</td>
<td>5 943</td>
<td>7 678</td>
<td>8 005</td>
<td>9 553</td>
<td>12 778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3 217</td>
<td>3 665</td>
<td>3 859</td>
<td>3 822</td>
<td>4 319</td>
<td>6 164</td>
<td>5 706</td>
<td>6 005</td>
<td>6 961</td>
<td>9 041</td>
<td>9 978</td>
<td>12 645</td>
<td>16 106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5 449</td>
<td>6 081</td>
<td>6 609</td>
<td>6 667</td>
<td>7 417</td>
<td>10 835</td>
<td>10 577</td>
<td>11 090</td>
<td>12 904</td>
<td>16 719</td>
<td>17 983</td>
<td>22 198</td>
<td>28 884</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1 896</td>
<td>2 168</td>
<td>2 378</td>
<td>2 527</td>
<td>2 730</td>
<td>3 062</td>
<td>4 543</td>
<td>4 788</td>
<td>5 025</td>
<td>5 147</td>
<td>7 717</td>
<td>7 805</td>
<td>10 495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2 780</td>
<td>2 992</td>
<td>3 511</td>
<td>3 493</td>
<td>3 417</td>
<td>4 029</td>
<td>5 912</td>
<td>5 612</td>
<td>5 569</td>
<td>6 123</td>
<td>9 097</td>
<td>9 218</td>
<td>13 487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4 676</td>
<td>5 160</td>
<td>5 889</td>
<td>6 020</td>
<td>6 147</td>
<td>7 091</td>
<td>10 455</td>
<td>10 400</td>
<td>10 594</td>
<td>11 270</td>
<td>16 814</td>
<td>17 023</td>
<td>23 982</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1 725</td>
<td>1 761</td>
<td>1 986</td>
<td>2 235</td>
<td>2 414</td>
<td>2 591</td>
<td>3 007</td>
<td>4 427</td>
<td>4 672</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2 315</td>
<td>2 433</td>
<td>2 550</td>
<td>2 823</td>
<td>3 009</td>
<td>2 983</td>
<td>3 765</td>
<td>5 317</td>
<td>5 249</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4 040</td>
<td>4 194</td>
<td>4 548</td>
<td>5 038</td>
<td>5 423</td>
<td>5 574</td>
<td>6 772</td>
<td>9 744</td>
<td>9 921</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5 853</td>
<td>6 345</td>
<td>7 116</td>
<td>7 607</td>
<td>8 242</td>
<td>10 324</td>
<td>12 421</td>
<td>14 300</td>
<td>15 640</td>
<td>12 825</td>
<td>15 722</td>
<td>17 356</td>
<td>23 273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8 312</td>
<td>9 090</td>
<td>9 920</td>
<td>10 138</td>
<td>10 745</td>
<td>13 176</td>
<td>15 383</td>
<td>16 934</td>
<td>17 799</td>
<td>15 164</td>
<td>19 075</td>
<td>21 863</td>
<td>29 593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14 165</td>
<td>15 435</td>
<td>17 036</td>
<td>17 745</td>
<td>18 987</td>
<td>23 500</td>
<td>17 804</td>
<td>31 234</td>
<td>33 419</td>
<td>27 989</td>
<td>34 797</td>
<td>39 221</td>
<td>52 866</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Before 1988, the school structure was based on a $7 + 3 + 2$ structure which implied that the Senior Secondary School level had a duration of two years. However, the switch from the $7 + 3 + 2$ to the present $7 + 2 + 3$ structure implemented in 1988 led to the increase in senior secondary duration from two to three years. The 23 Government and Government-aided secondary were converted in order to offer Forms 3 to 5 exclusively (Botswana, 1993b:145). The enrolments of pupils in Senior Secondary Education from 1979-1993 and shown in Table 6.10 as follows:

TABLE 6.10
The Enrolment of pupils in Senior Secondary Education from 1979-1993 (Botswana, 1993b:145)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>FORM 3</th>
<th>FORM 4</th>
<th>FORM 5</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1 358</td>
<td>1 193</td>
<td>2 551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1 602</td>
<td>1 288</td>
<td>2 890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1 624</td>
<td>1 508</td>
<td>3 132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1 668</td>
<td>1 552</td>
<td>3 220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1 708</td>
<td>1 557</td>
<td>3 265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2 252</td>
<td>1 612</td>
<td>3 864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2 277</td>
<td>2 091</td>
<td>4 368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2 548</td>
<td>2 184</td>
<td>4 732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>3 545</td>
<td>2 411</td>
<td>5 956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>4 908</td>
<td>4 061</td>
<td>3 399</td>
<td>12 368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>6 368</td>
<td>4 437</td>
<td>3 746</td>
<td>14 551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>6 839</td>
<td>6 286</td>
<td>4 546</td>
<td>17 671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>7 298</td>
<td>7 064</td>
<td>6 681</td>
<td>21 043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>7 980</td>
<td>6 735</td>
<td>6 635</td>
<td>21 350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>7 859</td>
<td>7 902</td>
<td>6 735</td>
<td>22 496</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.3 Medium of instruction

The national language of the Botswana people is Setswana and therefore most children would have Setswana as their first language. As far as pre-school education is concerned, the 1993 Commission on Education recommended that

- Children in pre-primary schools be taught in the language dominant in the area where the school is located. English and Setswana should be introduced gradually.
- Private pre-primary schools may adopt the language policy or use either of the official languages as the medium of instruction (Botswana, 1993b:79).

Prior to 1993, the official language of instruction for the first four years at primary school was Setswana and thereafter English from the fifth year (Mouton, 1992:36). However, the 1993 Report of the National Commission on Education recommended that starting from 1995 the switch from Setswana to English as a medium of instruction should take place in standard 4 (Botswana, 1993b:113).

6.2.4 The physical facilities

The growth of educational physical facilities has been very rapid since independence. This is shown by the fact that in 1967 there were 252 registered primary schools compared with 336 in 1976. Table 6.11. shows this growth to be as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of Registered Schools</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above information is, however, restricted to primary schools between 1967 and 1976. In 1978, there were a total of 377 government, grant aided and private primary schools and by 1991, this number had grown to 583 Government, 14 grant aided and
50 private primary schools (Botswana, 1993b:83). In the same year, namely 1991, there were 40 vocational and teacher training institution with only one University (Trumbull, 1994:569).

Despite the relative growth of facilities in Botswana, the provision of classrooms has lagged behind. All the sixteen Districts recorded classroom shortages in 1991 with the North West District recording the highest percentage shortage of 37.5 and Francistown recording the lowest percentage shortage of 8.9 (Botswana, 1993b:85). This shortage is mainly applicable to primary education and according to the Revised National Policy on Education of 1994, the Government will undertake a phased programme to eliminate the shortage of physical facilities at primary school level (Botswana, 1994b:8).

6.2.5 The level to which the structure for teaching meets requirements of developing countries

According to the findings of the 1993 Commission On Education, the curriculum is relatively restrictive. The diversification attempts to include technical and commercial subjects have also been limited (Botswana, 1994b:8). The curriculum therefore does not seem to be directed towards the general education at senior secondary school level, in order to be vocationally applicable (see par. 2.3.3). However the 1993 Commission had as its second term of reference to implement a review of the curriculum and to consider how it could be consolidated to emphasize the preparation of students for the world of work (Botswana, 1993b:139).

At the present moment Botswana, faces a shortage of competent teachers and therefore relies on expatriate manpower (Picard, 1989/90:267). This is especially the case with secondary science and mathematics teachers (Kapele, 1995). At present, expatriates still constitute a substantial number of teachers in post primary schools. The present situation is that there are 32% expatriates in junior secondary schools, 57% in senior secondary schools, 12% in Primary Teacher Training Colleges, and 66% in Colleges of Education (Botswana, 1994b:11).

With regard to physical facilities, there is indeed a shortage, especially in Primary Education. The Government is however, committed to eliminate this situation. The introduction of a three - year JC in 1995 will result in the need for more facilities for pupils and teachers (Botswana, 1993b:151).
As far as the medium of instruction is concerned, Botswana indeed meets the minimum requirements (see par. 2.3.3.). English is not the only official language of the country but it is also used as the medium of instruction from the fifth year in the primary phase (Mouton, 1992:36).

As a developing country, Botswana therefore meets most of the minimum requirements with regard to the structure for teaching.

6.3 SUPPORT SERVICES

Support services are an important component of the education system. This is especially true as all education systems need specialised services in order to improve the quality and effectiveness of the educational activities (Steyn, 1993:47). The support services provided to educators, support services provided to teaching activities and structures and support services provided to learners are all discussed as elements of this component of the education system in chapter two.

6.3.1 Support services to teaching activities and structures

The Ministry of Education established the Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation in 1978. The mandate of this department was to provide leadership and coordination in the development, implementation and evaluation of the total instructional programme of the school system. The other component of this department includes curriculum development, research and testing, educational publication, guidance and counselling and examination. This department started with one officer in 1978, then six in 1985 and in 1992 it had grown to twenty curriculum developers and four advisers who were provided through donor funding (Kgomyane, 1994:550).

Educational radio broadcasts were recommended by the 1977 Commission on Education as being important in order to lend support to teachers in remote primary schools. The 1977 Commission recommended that the Broadcasting Unit should work closely with the proposed new Curriculum Development and Testing Unit (Botswana, 1977:197). Indeed school broadcasting is still catered for in the revised structure of the Ministry of Education (Botswana, 1993b:379).
6.3.2 Support services to educators

The support services to educators are mainly in the form of in-service training. These types of services would therefore be in line with problems with occupational skills of educators (Steyn, 1994:46). The 1977 Commission On Education recommended that Botswana should develop a comprehensive range of in-service courses that would include the upgrading of teachers at all levels, specialist techniques and curricula (Botswana, 1977:161).

There have been positive developments since 1977 (Mosalakgomo, 1995). Since the education system is expected to grow both quantitatively and qualitatively the 1993 Commission on Education has made recommendations at the various levels which demand intensified programmes of in-service training to both teachers and their supervisors (Botswana, 1993b:352). With respect to staff development the 1993 Commission on Education further recommends that a comprehensive and long term staff development and training plan for teachers be established in order to help them with further academic and professional development (Botswana, 1993b:35).

The Ministry of Education has up to now established eleven education centres throughout Botswana. These are at Francistown, Ghanzi, Kasane, Lobatse, Maun, Mochudi, Molepolole, Selebe-Phikwe, Tlokweng and Tsabong. The role of these centres is to provide courses for serving teachers at all levels of the education system (Botswana 1993b:356).

6.3.3 Support services to learners

All education systems have some kind of educational support services. The educational broadcasting and career guidance and counselling programmes are two key services in the Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation. There is, however, a lack of educational psychologists to assist children with special needs (Botswana, 1993b:115). The 1993 Commission on Education recommended that educational broadcasting programmes be updated and expanded, Guidance and Counselling programmes be strengthened and Educational Psychologists' positions be established so as to advise teachers on children with special needs (Botswana, 1993b:116).

With regard to other support services, only the feeding scheme in primary schools is functional. The local parents are involved in preparing food for primary schools (Mogobye, 1995).
6.3.4 The level to which the support services meet the minimum requirements of developing countries

The education system of Botswana does not have adequate educational support services (see par.2.3.4). For example, the Career Guidance and Counselling Unit is run by only seven professional staff which caters for the whole education system. However, the fact that there is a special Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation augurs well for Botswana's education system as a developing country.

In general, support services for teachers and teaching activities and structures are functional (Kgasa, 1995). Very little support is given to learners in order to ensure quality education for them. As a developing country, Botswana needs to expand the availability of support services. These include the basic ones like health, pedagogical and didactic support services. The government must still address the lack of educational psychologists in order to assist children with special needs (Botswana, 1993b:115). There is also the problem of shortage of educational facilities. This is equally true for educators who have a problem of shortage of accommodation (Katse, 1995). The level to which the support services meet the requirements of developing country is therefore unsatisfactory (Botswana, 1994a:14).

6.4 CONCLUSION

The two components of the education system, namely, the structure for teaching and support services are important for the efficiency and effectiveness of any education system. It has emerged from the above discussion, that whilst the education system of Botswana has grown quite substantially since independence, a lot still has to be done. The lack of physical facilities to cater for both learners and educators as well as the dependence on expatriate manpower remains a challenge that faces the Ministry of Education. Localisation remains one of the government's top priorities.
CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will briefly summarize the issues that have been discussed in the previous chapters. The findings will be discussed and recommendations with regard to further research will be made.

7.2 SUMMARY

The problem of research has been stated as follows:

- What changes took place in the Botswana Education System since independence with respect to meeting the minimum requirements of education systems of developing countries?

Emanating from the problem of research was the aim which was as follows:

- to indicate changes in the education system of Botswana since independence and to describe to which level the education system meets the minimum requirements of developing countries.

In order to reach this aim, the following objectives were formulated:

- to identify the minimum requirements of the education systems of developing countries;
- to provide a historical description of the education system of Botswana before independence;
- to identify the determinants of the present education system;
• to evaluate the level to which the education system policy and education system administration of Botswana meet the minimum requirements of education systems of developing countries; and
• to evaluate the level to which the structure for teaching and support services of the education system of Botswana meet the minimum requirements of developing countries.

In order to achieve the aims and objectives of this research, the following methods of research were used:

- literature study and
- interviews.

All the above-mentioned issues were discussed in Chapter 1.

In Chapter 2, the minimum requirements of the education system of developing countries were discussed under the four components which describe the educational system as a logistical framework, namely, the education system policy, education system administration, structure for teaching and support services.

In Chapter 3, a historical perspective on the education system of Botswana before independence was provided. Areas discussed include non-formal education, formal education and general education provision before independence. The chapter maps the educational development during the pre-Difaqane, pre-literate, missionary, colonial and Dumbrell eras.

In Chapter 4, the determinants of the education system after independence were discussed, and the emphasis was placed on the National Ideal of Kagisano, the philosophy of life, culture and demography as determinants. Culture as a determinant was further discussed under language, history, the economy and politics as sub-topics.

In Chapter 5, the education system policy and the education system administration of the education system of Botswana after independence were discussed. The education system policy focused on the National Commissions on Education of 1977 and 1993. The discussion of the education system administration focused on the organisational structure of personnel, control and financing, and is concluded with an evaluation of
the level to which both the education system policy and the education system administration meet the minimum requirements of developing countries.

In Chapter 6, the structure for teaching and support services of the education system of Botswana after independence was discussed. The structure for teaching focused on education institutions, curricula, the learners and educators, the medium of instruction, and the physical facilities. The analysis of the support services covered such services with regard to teaching activities and structures, educators and learners. The chapter is concluded with an evaluation of the level to which both the structure for teaching and support services meet the minimum requirements of developing countries.

7.3 FINDINGS

7.3.1 The education system policy

The level to which the education system policy meets the minimum requirements of developing countries is discussed in paragraph 5.2.2. From this discussion, it is very clear that Botswana as a developing country has her education system policy geared towards access to basic universal education. The 1977 National Policy on Education and the recommendations of the National Education Commission of 1993 are all representative of broad principles which are acceptable and important for developing countries (see par. 5.2.2).

The government of Botswana came up with the Government paper 2 of 1994 which became the revised national policy on education (see par. 5.2.1.2). All this is in line with strategies of developing countries in ensuring that the educational system policy addressed the needs of such countries. The study confirmed Botswana's continued commitment to development.

7.3.2 The education system administration

The level to which the education system administration meets the minimum requirements of developing countries is discussed in paragraph 5.4. The study reveals the extent to which the administrative structure has expanded since independence (see par. 5.3.1). The organisation, control and financing of the education system of Botswana reveal a conscious and deliberate strategy aimed at ensuring effective co-ordination and
management (see par 5.3.1). The study reveals a decentralised pattern of governance where parents are fully involved in the running of schools (see par. 5.3.2).

With regard to the financing of the educational system, the study reveals an annual growth in the education budget (see par 5.3). The study therefore confirms Botswana's commitment to an acceptable education system in line with that of developing countries.

7.3.3 The structure for teaching

The level to which the structure for teaching meets the minimum requirements of developing countries is discussed under par 6.2.5 and reveals that some of the minimum requirements are met. These are for example the provision for primary education (see par. 6.2.1.2) and secondary education (see par. 6.2.1.3). For example, primary education provisioning was available to about 80% of the relevant age group of 6-13 years by 1983.

The growth of physical facilities (see par. 6.2.4), for primary education is very slow and this affects the provision of quality education. The study reveals that on the whole Botswana's education system is geared towards creating the structure for teaching that is in line with that of developing countries.

7.3.4 Support services

The level to which the support services meet the minimum requirements of developing is discussed under paragraph 6.3.4. The study reveals a lack of support services in Botswana since independence (see par. 6.3.2 and par 6.3.3). As a developing country, Botswana is in need of support services for learners and teachers. There are however, recently established education centres throughout Botswana (see par. 6.3.2) as a way of helping teachers at all levels of the education system.

With regard to support services to learners, the feeding scheme is identified as the most functional at primary schools (see par. 6.3.3). On the whole the education system of Botswana does not satisfactorily meet the minimum requirements as far as support services for developing countries are concerned.
7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the research, the following are recommended for the education system of Botswana:

- The continued research on the education system that gave rise to a Revised National Policy on Education must continue. This research must be based on the need to revise the education system policy to continue to be relevant for Botswana as a developing country.
- There is a need to empower administrative agencies within the education system in order for the decentralisation of education to be administered effectively and efficiently. The empowerment could be in the form of in-service training for the administrative personnel.
- The country must budget continuously for the provision of educational facilities to ensure that all its citizens are catered for, from pre-school up to tertiary level. Although the study revealed a continuous increase in recurrent unit cost of various levels of education, this is not enough for a developing country and the pre-school level is not catered for at all.
- As a developing country, the education system of Botswana needs to be backed up by numerous support services to teaching activities and structures, educators and learners. A concerted effort is needed to raise the level of support services.

7.5 PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED DURING THE PERIOD OF RESEARCH

The following problems were encountered during the period of research:

- The fact that Botswana is another country which is independent and sovereign, means that one had to travel from time to time to that country and be restricted in terms of availability of resources and information.
- Most of the relevant information on the Department of Education in Botswana is not readily available to outsiders or foreigners.
- The South African universities do not have enough information on the education system of Botswana and therefore one had to travel to Botswana from time to time in order to get information from written sources as well as through interviewing local people.
7.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The field which need further research include the following:

- Pre-school education: To what extent does this cater for the citizens of the country.
- Secondary education: What is the availability of teachers and schools at this level of education, and how does it affect quality education?
- The Brigades of Botswana: What is the effectiveness of the curriculum of the Brigades movement with regard to education with production?
- Educational technology: What level of educational technology has been achieved by Botswana since independence?

7.7 CONCLUSION

Botswana is a typical example of a developing country in Africa, and shares the characteristics of other developing countries in the world. The study focused in particular on the education system of Botswana since independence. Indeed, for the past thirty years there has been significant developments in the education of the Botswana citizens, the Batswana people. These developments were discussed under the four components of the education system, viz. the education system policy, the education system administration, the structure for teaching and support services.

There have been remarkable changes and improvements in the entire education system of Botswana since independence. The study has indeed indicated this positive trend. However, like any other country Botswana has a challenge of ensuring that all its citizens are developed so that they will be able to face the challenges of the entire technological world.

The various Commissions on Education since independence are proof that Botswana recognises education as a necessary vehicle for the development of its people. The increase in the number of educational institutions coupled with the increase in the education budget throughout the thirty years of independence are proof that Botswana as a developing country can compete satisfactorily with similar countries all over the world.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


APPENDIX 1

LIST OF INTERVIEWEES

• Katse, M. F. 1995: Regional Education Officer, Kanye, Botswana.
• Kapele, W. 1995: B. Sc Agric student, Botswana College of Agriculture, Northern Gaborone, Botswana.
• Kesentse, C. M. 1995: Teacher, Ramatlabama Primary School, Ramatlabama Village, Botswana.
• Kgasa, C. M. 1995: Deputy Head Teacher, Motsatsing Primary School, Kanye, Botswana.
• Moarabi, K. 1995: Village Development Committee Chairperson, Ramatlabama, Botswana.
• Mogobye, S. M. 1995: Principal of Ramatlabama Primary School, Ramatlabama, Botswana.
• Mosalakgomo, B. 1995: Teacher, Crescent School, Lobatse, Botswana.
APPENDIX 2

QUESTION SCHEDULE

- To what extent is the present education system relevant to the needs of a developing country such as Botswana?
- What exactly is meant by education for Kagisano in Botswana?
- Is education accessible to all citizens of the country?
- What influence does the politics of the country have on the education system?
- Do you still have any relationship with Britain on educational matters?
- Who determines educational policy?
- How is the policy published?
- What is the role of the Minister of Education?
- What role is played by different communities in educational matters?
- Would you say education is centrally controlled or decentralised?
- Are there enough educational facilities for all education or training levels in Botswana since independence?
- How independent is Botswana with regard to expatriate manpower?
- What type of differentiation exists?
- Do you think pupils who leave secondary education are immediately employed?
- Are the Brigades movement still relevant to the needs of the community?
- How dependent are you on the neighbouring countries like Zimbabwe and South Africa?
- Were there any changes to the education system of Botswana, i.e. from 30 September 1966?
- If there were changes, why were they necessary?
- What significant changes took place in your education system since the report of the National Commission on Education of 1977?
- How far are the recommendations of the report of the National Commission on Education of 1993 been implemented?
- What is your general comment on the level of progress made in education for the past 29 years since independence?