

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA  
FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

THE DISSONANCE BETWEEN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION  
AND SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE: THE CASE OF BOTSWANA

BY

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement  
for the degree of Masters of Social Work

at

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Date: \_\_\_\_\_

24/02/95

Dedicated to

**My Wife: Semakaleng Shadi Mompoti**  
for your unwavering support and  
encouragement.

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## GLOSSARY

- Boipelelego : Relates to people doing community or group project which does not necessarily have direct and immediate returns accruing to them. It has the connotation of the community striving for self-reliance, and is associated with voluntarism.
- Botswana : The country of Botswana
- Batswana : Citizens of Botswana (plural)
- Initiation schools : Traditional institutions where young men and women of the same age groups were ushered into "the world of" adulthood. Among other things, their roles as men and women were clarified. Rituals which would foster and sustain among them esprit de corps were performed. Initiation school for men was *Bogwera* and the one for women was *Bojale*.
- Kgotla : A traditional meeting place. It is led by the chief and tribal decision making takes place in a kgotla.
- Mma : A title name for women; e.g. Mma-Boipelelego refers to a female social worker
- Motswana : Citizen of Botswana (singular)
- Ra : A title name for men; e.g. Ra-Boipelelego refers to a male social worker
- Setswana : An official language of Botswana besides English (Setswana is widely spoken in the country, but there are other languages too)

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## ABSTRACT

The emergence and development of social work in the Third World countries has been influenced by the practice methods and theoretical knowledge which originated from the developed countries of the West. The influence was exerted during the colonial era and continued after independence through consultancy work and Western style social work education. The social welfare policies also derive primarily from the developed countries. Western social work practice and theory emphasize individual maladjustment of the clients; social welfare policies are influenced by this philosophy. Due to the wholesale adoption of social welfare policies, social work practice methods and the Western content of social work education, there is a lack of fit between these and the practice realities in the Third World.

The purpose of this research is to investigate and explain the existence of the gap between social work education and practice in Botswana. To achieve this goal, the Department of Social and Community Development (S&CD), the main employer of social workers in Botswana, was the focus of the research. Semi-structured interviews were administered face-to-face with social work practitioners and managers in the S&CD, social work educators and students in the University of Botswana.

The respondents are unanimously agreed that the rightful role of social work in Botswana, as in other developing countries, is to assist the masses who are affected by material deprivation. They have identified youth delinquency as the second major problem facing the communities in Botswana, and linked the problem to poverty. The social work practice methods and social welfare policies are seen as inappropriate for the identified problems. Social work education prior to the current curriculum was also regarded as inappropriate because, like practice, it was organized around the casework method.

## INTRODUCTION

The research topic has emerged from my own observation that social work graduates from the University of Botswana are equipped with skills and knowledge which they are unable to practice within their employing agencies. I have hypothesised that this may be an indication of the existence of a gap between social work practice and social work education in Botswana. It should be noted that this statement does not make a judgement of the appropriateness of the training, nor does it claim that practice is inconsistent. I deliberately left it to this research to reveal the source of the hypothesised gap.

However, it is important to highlight that social work must have a vision of a society based on the values of the profession. Social work visualizes a society in which every person is afforded maximum opportunity to enrich his or her spiritual, physical, psychological, emotional and intellectual well-being (Midgley, 1981, Osei-Hwedie, 1993). This envisioned social order is jeopardized by social ills such as poverty, deprivation, hunger, inadequate shelter, unemployment, illiteracy and ignorance.

The task of social work education therefore should be to promote the values, ideals, principles and beliefs which are espoused by the social work profession. It should also aim

to enable graduates to deal with the realities of practice, including organizational constraints, in order that they may contribute to the creation or enhancement of the society that the profession envisions.

Based on my beliefs as briefly stated above, I designed this study to investigate if social work practice and education in Botswana are supportive of each other in the manner that the obstacles to achieving a just and equitable society of the type that the profession of social work envisions will ultimately be achieved.

It is important that I should guide the reader through this paper so that the connection between the various chapters can easily be made:

Chapter 1 lays down the goals and objectives of the study which are the foundation of the research. It also outlines the important questions which this research will endeavour to answer. The question "Why the topic?" is also answered in this chapter. Most importantly chapter 1 is the foundation upon which the research will be built. This refers to the methodology or research design which addresses questions of sampling, method and process of data collection and gives insight into the methods of data analysis.

Chapter 2 explores the political economy of Botswana with the intent to discern the policy issues which are pertinent to social workers in the country. The chapter will show that while Botswana was impoverished at the time of independence, the political climate of the country was very positive after independence, and its economic recovery was marked by growth of unparalleled proportions. Chapter 2 will also talk about the growing inequalities and unchecked unemployment rates. These and more issues directly give birth to the extensive and deep poverty and destitution which affect a majority of the population in the country.

Chapter 3 will examine the influence of the developed countries in the process of developing social work and social policies in the developing countries. The chapter mainly explores the theoretical perspectives and philosophical thinking which have influenced the wholesale adoption of social policies and the social work intervention methods of the developed countries by the third World. The chapter then refutes the beliefs emanating from the modernization thesis that the problems which are experienced by the peoples of the Third World and those of the West are of the same nature, and that the methods and strategies of intervention must necessarily be the same. Social policy, and social work education and practice must find their firm base on the problems which are experienced by the people it

serves.

Chapter 4 helps the reader to trace the historical development of social work education and practice in Botswana. It explores the traditional forms of social welfare and community development, and shows how they were abandoned with the advent of modernization. This chapter will then provide a critical analysis of the social welfare policies and structures which were adopted to fill the vacuum created by the abandonment of the traditional forms. It will also show that the adoption of the current conservative social welfare policies was not driven by the belief that the state has an inalienable responsibility to ensure the welfare of the citizens, but rather as a guise to exonerate the state from taking responsibility. As a result, the state dominated social work in Botswana is failing to address the primary problems of the population because it is limited to the implementation of the wrong policies.

Chapter 5 is the part which tests the hypothesis that social work education and practice in Botswana are poorly conceived and not well articulated with each other. It was necessary to get diverse respondents so that the research questions could be exhaustively answered. To this end, in addition to workers in the field, social work educators at the university of Botswana and the social work students of the



same institution were interviewed. The responses of the managers in the S&CD were also sought. These data will be presented and analyzed in this chapter. Recommendations will be given to improve the fit between practice and training.

## CHAPTER 1

### 1.1 Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this research is to test for the existence of any gap between the educational preparations and the practice realities, and to explore the possible causes and solutions.

### 1.2 Goals of the Study

1. To establish the extent to which social work practice and education enhance each other to accomplish their mission in the context of Botswana.
2. To investigate the discrepancy between social work education and social work practice.
3. To find ways of bridging the gap between social work practice and social work education.

### 1.3 Research Objectives

1. To improve the fit between social work education and practice in the country based on the realities of practice.
2. To provide direction for social work practice in Botswana.
3. To augment the meagre literature on Social Work Practice in Botswana.

### 1.3 Research Questions

1. What do social workers identify as the "realities" of social work practice in Botswana? [By realities is meant the realities of working within a sometimes constraining organizational context, and the realities which are based in perceived social work mission in the communities.]
2. To what extent does social work education prepare the graduates for these perceived realities?
3. What changes might be required in social work education in order to better prepare the graduates for the realities of practice?
4. What changes might be required in the organizational context in order that the educational experience is more fully utilized?

### 1.4 Justification of the Study

Social work is a relatively new phenomenon in Botswana. Osei-Hwedie (July, 1993) quoting from Ngwenya (1991) notes that the first attempt to consolidate social welfare at government level was after independence, especially between 1966 and 1970 when community development was institutionalized as a strategy for national development. To date, social work in the country is trying to find itself. The practice of social work in Botswana, as it is in many other developing countries, is influenced by theories and practice models from the former colonizers in the West.

Without suggesting that these theories should be dismissed en masse, it should be stressed that their utility should be the determining factor in their adoption.

Social work is a people based profession which is practiced within the context of the communities it serves. It should be designed primarily to address both the perceived and real needs of the people. That being the case, the profession should be guided by these needs of the people, given the available resources. Social workers must also be engaged in the creation of informed expectations or needs. That is, where ignorance prevails, social work should play a leading role in informing and educating individuals, groups and communities about available services and how they can have access to them. It should also inform them about privileges, rights and responsibilities. It is also social work's responsibility to enhance people's ability to prioritize their needs and comprehend the extent to which these needs can be met at any particular time.

It is worth noting that as society changes over time needs change and are redefined. Priorities change too. As a result, social work practice should change accordingly to keep up with its mission. It is therefore important, from time to time, to review the compatibility of practice with the needs of the populations served. Osei-Hwedie makes the

same observation that there is a need for continuous discussion about how the profession can adapt to new demands, shift its practice base, and evolve new perceptions. "Thus the collection of pertinent data should be a primary responsibility of social workers" (p.25)

In the same vein, social work education in Botswana is new. The University of Botswana introduced the diploma in social work in 1985. The first BSW graduates were in 1990. Social work education should be informed by practice as much as it informs practice. The argument of which comes first will prove to be a debate without an end. Osei-Hwedie (1993) points out that the rightful basis for social work training must be knowledge from practice. "That is, experience and data from the field and practice should form the knowledge base out of which theory and related elements of social science knowledge for further and improved practice must emanate." p.22. However, like practice, social work education in the country is strongly influenced by theories and practice models which may not necessarily be relevant to the local people. There is an increasing need for social work education to find itself within the context of the served communities. Nevertheless, a balance must be struck between practice or experience as the base for education and the need for innovation. Through research, borrowing from other professions and disciplines, and from other cultures,

social work education must be able to achieve appropriate and innovative approaches to problem solving and prevention.

To date, the Social Work Department of the University of Botswana is engaged in a continuous process of evaluating and reevaluating the curriculum to improve the fit between education and practice. This research will avail educators with the necessary evidence of which issues are more pertinent to Botswana society, and hence point to the desired focus of education in the country.

Social work practice, research, theory and education are intertwined in a sophisticated manner. The present research is aimed to contribute to the continuing effort to generate new knowledge and theory which is relevant to the conditions in Botswana. This knowledge and theory will be passed to the students and to practitioners through the process of education, and will in turn influence practice in a very important way.

### **1.5 Methodology/Design**

This research has been done based on a purposely selected sample. The data collection and analysis were done following acceptable, scientific principles in order to enhance the reliability and validity of the outcome.

## **Sampling**

The purposive sampling method was adopted for this research. This allowed for the use of informants or people who were well informed about social work in Botswana. For instance, social work educators were selected not only base on their involvement in social work education, but also based on their familiarity with social work practice in Botswana.

## **Rationale For Purposive Sampling**

Parton (1984) asserts that purposive samples involve people who are especially informed about topic under study. Neuman (1991) points out three instances in which a researcher may find purposeful sampling method to be the most appropriate. First, he concurs with Parton that the researcher may select certain individuals because they possess special information which the other elements in the population lack. Second, the researcher may use purposive sampling to select members of a difficult-to-reach, specialized populations. Thirdly, purposive sampling may be used when the researcher seeks to identify a particular type of population for in-depth interviews.

The social work practitioners who have been selected for this research fit the above definition of specialized group, possessing special information and they also fall into the difficult-to-get category. At the time when this study was

designed there were only about 160 and 300 social workers holding BSW and DSW respectively. These workers were dispersed throughout the country of about 585000 sq km. However, some areas of the country only have workers with a Certificate in social work or they have no trained workers. This made it necessary for the purposeful sampling to be done in two stages. The first stage involved the selection of villages and towns to be included in the study. Given the resources and time available, I made a conscious selection of these towns and villages based on their accessibility from Gaborone which was the research base. Second, the selection of a town or village guaranteed the inclusion of its social worker(s) in the sample. Usually there would be only one or two workers with a diploma or degree in each of the selected places.

The following areas were included in the sample: Gaborone, Francistown and Lobatse represent towns. Jwaneng is a mining town. Tlokweng, and Ramotswa are peri-urban areas. Molepolole, Mochudi, Moshupa and Kanye are semi-urban areas. Letlhakeng, Letlhakane and Thamaga represent rural populations. This has made the sample to be reflective of social workers practicing among a wide range of populations. Managers were also from different parts of the country.



The selection of the villages and towns based on their easy accessibility introduced an element of convenience sampling. However, the selection was not haphazard. It was premised on the researcher's knowledge of the distribution of the social worker population in the country. That is, the places included in the sample had the units of analysis that this research is interested in. This in turn made it possible for the data collection exercise to be done within the limits of the available resources, both in terms of time and financial resources.

**Issues of Validity:** Validity refers to the extent to which the instruments used in the research have accurately captured what was being investigated. In this research the procedure for conducting an exploratory study was followed. Firstly, the structure of the interview guide as well as the interview process were appropriate for this type of study. The interview guide was designed to allow the respondents to describe their views and feelings in ways which were best for them. Finally, at analysis level validity was enhanced by organizing the data around the most prevalent themes and presenting them in the respondent's own words.

Therefore, the findings are credible and can be generalized to the S&CD as a social work agency. As well, a sample of 50 respondents was adequate to give a true reflection of a target population. The sample was comprehensive in terms of coverage which included most of the stakeholder in social work practice. Further, although the workers responded based on where they were, some have worked in more than one geographic area and were able to reflect on practice in other parts of the country. The students interviewed also have work experiences from different parts of Botswana. The policies which the respondents described are implemented under similar conditions throughout the country. Hence the information gathered is reflective of social work practice in the S&CD everywhere in the country. Therefore, the results of this study are valid for an exploratory study. However, they are limited only to social work practice in the government agency of S&CD.

**Issues of Reliability:** This refers to the extent to which the important features of research such as consistency, dependability and reproducibility were maintained in the process of doing research (Grinnell, 1988). Consistency was maintained through the use of the semi-structured interview guide which meant that the respondents answered the same questions. Since the same researcher did all the interviews, even the follow up questions were pretty much the same. This

means that the same results would be reached if this study was repeated using the same instrument on a sample from the same population. The findings of this study can be relied upon in so far as they apply to the S&CD.

#### 1.6 Method of Data Collection

##### **Interviews**

Four separate but similar semi-structured interview guides were designed and administered to a total of 50 respondents on a face-to-face basis. The interview guides were semi-structured in the sense that they contained both open-ended and close-ended questions. While I took notes during the process of the interviews, I also made audio tape recording of the interviews, especially for the open-ended questions. The recorded version later served as a back up when the analysis was done. However, it should be noted that elaborate note taking did not substitute for the tape recording.

The interview guides were administered to :

- a) thirty (30) workers in the Social and Community Development (S&CD) who graduated from the University of Botswana social work program from 1987 to 1993.
- b) five (5) managers/supervisors in the department in various areas of Botswana.
- c) five (5) educators in the social work department of the

University of Botswana.

d) ten (10) social work students who are in their final year of training at the university.

#### **Rationale For The Method of Data collection**

The choice to use the qualitative open-ended interview method is grounded on the fact that this is an exploratory study. Professional social work is a relatively new phenomenon in Botswana, having begun to take shape in the years between 1966 and 1970. As a result there have not been many direct studies on social work practice in the country. Exploratory design was desired to allow for the necessary flexibility to cover as wide an area as possible and to discover new and relevant issues. Rubbin and Babbie (1989) observe that exploratory studies are essential whenever the researcher is "breaking new ground". Neuman (1991) notes that exploratory researchers often use qualitative methods and that the methods allow the researcher to be creative, to adopt an investigative stance, to be flexible and open-minded and to be able to explore all sources of information.

Since the field of social work in Botswana has not been explored much, it would be a mammoth, almost unachievable task to try to formulate an exclusively close-ended questionnaire. The use of qualitative open interviews was proper, and it permitted me to understand the issues as seen

by the respondents. The respondents were able to organize their feelings and experiences (as social workers) around the research topic, to interpret and to communicate those feelings and experiences in the manner that made more sense to them.

As alluded to earlier, there are also the close-ended questions which then permitted some analysis to be based upon counts. Neuman (1991) notes that the logic of qualitative research does not forbid the use of quantitative questions. Strauss and Corbin (1990) also contend that the two methods can be used effectively in the same research project. The data from close-ended questions are a source of information which supplements or complements qualitative data. In including them, I hoped that they would increase the rigour of data collection and analysis. The analysis will be largely qualitative.

### **1.7 Data Analysis Method**

The qualitative analysis in this study involves the presentation of the data in thematic form. That is, the data are organized around the common themes and presented in the most representative manner possible. Qualitative analysis also involves the presentation of the data in "raw" form; for instance, direct quotes from the interview notes and from the tape recording have also been presented in this

report. Direct quotes are important because they maintain the original meaning, capture the mood, and retain the sensitivity to context. This ensures that interpretation of the data begins from the point of view of the respondents. The components of qualitative analysis mentioned above have been utilised in this research.

Neuman (1991) notes that qualitative data are collected in rather detailed, narrative form, and some times in words which are relatively inductive and imprecise; hence, qualitative analysis is usually the most proper method. However, to partly offset the difficulties of qualitative analysis, some quantitative analysis has also been used. The kind of the quantitative analysis used was restricted to counts, and only to the first few questions which were pre-coded in counts.

Counts were used to reflect the proportions of respondents who agree or disagree with particular views; for example, that interventions were or were not appropriate. Thematic analysis was done for the narrative explanations of the different views, and the narrative demonstration of understanding of issues, and groups of respondents were created based on the similarities in the views they held.

## CHAPTER 2

### 2.0 THE POLITICAL ECONOMY OF BOTSWANA

Botswana has been widely credited for being an island of economic prosperity and political stability within a region characterized by ethnic and racial intolerance, as well as by economic crises and heavy debt burden. The country has also been praised for its multi-party democracy in a growing one-party state dictatorial practice in Africa (Chipasula and Miti, 1989). Since independence in 1966, Botswana adopted a policy that promoted racial and cultural integration. This, to a large degree resulted in racial and cultural harmony among the country's population. Its policy of open economy has enabled the country to make tremendous economic strides. The GDP per capita leaped from P191.00 in 1966 to P1,144.00<sup>1</sup> in the 1980s. Alongside its impressive economic record, Botswana is also characterized by sharp and growing socio-economic inequality, especially in the rural areas.

This chapter seeks to explore the political economy of Botswana. That is, the chapter will trace the country's unprecedented economic and political successes, with the intention of locating the citizens within the political economy in terms of their participation and the benefits

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<sup>1</sup> P stands for Pula, Botswana currency (BWP). P1.00 is equivalent to about Canada \$0.50

which accrue to them in the process. In this regard, it will be demonstrated that in spite of the healthy political climate which permitted the exponential economic growth, there has been very little effort committed to the economic and social development of the general populace. This is evidenced by the conspicuous inequitable distribution of resources, growing unemployment and rampant poverty. The positive aspects will also be presented, such as in the areas of health and education. The chapter begins by highlighting the demographics of Botswana and by locating the country in Africa, and in particular, in the Southern region of the continent.

### 2.1 Brief Demographic Profile of Botswana.

Botswana, attained independence in September 1966, having been a British protectorate since 1885. The country is inhabited by 15 or more ethnic groups. These tribes have a lot of common attributes. They share a tradition of friendship and hospitality; a majority of the tribes share a common language, and the multiple ethnic groups have in the past co-existed in a harmonious relationship. Furthermore, there is no particular ethnic group that was favoured by the British. Hence, the different tribal groups worked together to attain Botswana's independence in 1966. Setswana and English are the official languages, the latter mainly used in work places to facilitate communication with foreigners.



Botswana's population is estimated to be 1.4 million, and is growing at an annual rate of 3.5 per cent. Forty-five (45) per cent of the people are younger than 15 years of age. Twenty (20) per cent of the population are children younger than 5 years of age (CSO, March, 1993). This has implications for the future, and for the use of the limited resources - food, health services, education, and general child care.

About 80% of the people live in the rural areas. However, urban areas are experiencing rapid population growth. For instance, between 1981 and 1991 the population of Gaborone more than doubled, with an average growth of 8% per annum; Francistown and Jwaneng grew at an annual rate of 7% each (Jacques, 1992). This is partly due to natural growth as well as rural/urban migration. The southeastern part of the country is the most populous, accounting for 83% of the total population in 1981 (NDP 7). A very important feature of urban populations in Botswana is their strong bond to their rural roots. Those who are working send remittances to the villages whenever they can and make frequent visits to the villages.

Botswana is a patriarchal society. Intact families are headed by men and the offspring adopt the ethnicity of their fathers. Property is passed to the children according to

their birth order from the eldest son to the youngest female. Whilst intact families are male headed, the 1991 population census shows that 40% and about 50% of the households in urban and rural areas respectively are headed by single mothers. Females constitute 52 per cent of the population.

## **2.2 Geopolitical Position Of Botswana**

Botswana is landlocked, and is situated in the centre of Southern Africa. To the south and east is South Africa, which is the political, economic and military giant in the region (Chipasula and Miti, 1989). South Africa also lies between Botswana and the Indian ocean. Zimbabwe is in the northeast, and to the northwest and the west lies Namibia. A short section of the northern frontier adjoins Zambia.

The country has an enormous land area in comparison with its population size. It has a total land are of 582000 km square of which about 84 percent is a mainly the sand-covered Kgalagadi desert. The Kgalagadi Desert extends through most of the western part of the country. Further, Botswana lies on the Southern African plateau, at an average of 100 metres above sea level.

The southeastern part of the country is the most fertile and enjoys an average rainfall which, although not so favourable for arable farming, is better than in other parts. This is one of the factors that make this part the most populous. The other factor that could explain the concentration of people in the southeastern region of the country is the railway line which runs through the region from the countries to the north of the Botswana to South Africa. This has in the past been one of the few sources of formal employment. It also provided a reliable source of transportation. As a result, most of the urban and semi-urban areas, the big towns and even the capital city (Gaborone) are located along this (and the only) railway line in the country. Therefore, most of the physical, economic, political and social developments followed the railway line too.

The political climate in Botswana is harmonious. Since independence the country adopted a unitary multiparty parliamentary system of government. Hence, at independence three (3) parties contested the elections, and since then, elections are held every five years. There is a very strong central government with power over the national economic planning, national defence, law and order. Limited powers are decentralized to the local government system which was created mainly to facilitate developments at local level.

These powers and duties involve primary health, elementary education and local administration. Local government elections are held at the same time as the national elections. In October 1994, Botswana held national elections for the 6th time. Ten political parties contested elections, as opposed to five (5) that participated in the 1989 elections.

Nevertheless, some opinion leaders claim that Botswana is a *de facto* one-party state. Since independence in 1966, only the Botswana Democratic Party (B.D.P.) has been in government, having been successively returned with overwhelming majorities for the past five elections. Opposition parties are very weak. In the 1989 general elections only three (3) opposition members were elected to the National Assembly and they belonged to the Botswana National Front (B.N.F.). Opposition parties have over the years failed to increase their number in parliament; this could be partly attributed to the fact that these parties always approached elections with disunity within themselves as well as between themselves. Because of their poor representation in parliament, the voices of the opposition have been very weak and could easily be undermined by the B.D.P. government. However, in the October 1994 elections the B.N.F. won 13 parliamentary seats, and it is hoped that this will change that shape of the National Assembly.

### 2.3 Botswana: An Economic Success Story in Africa.

Botswana's economic future was bleak at the time of independence. However, in the few years that followed independence, the country experienced economic growth of unprecedented proportions by any standards. In fact Harvey and Lewis (1990) note that in the years 1965 to 1985, Botswana was the fastest growing economy in the world, growing at an annual rate of 8.5 per cent. Good (1992) further asserts that whereas domestic savings as a share of GDP had been negative around the time of independence, "By 1989-90 a per capita gross national product (GNP) of approximately US \$2,300 had been reached." p74. It should be noted that Botswana was able to achieve sustained development and economic growth in spite of the instability in the neighbouring countries such as the former Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), South West Africa (now Namibia), and the then apartheid South Africa. Both these white minority regimes also tried to destabilize Botswana by occasional cross-boarder raids against her.

Botswana's economic success story can be attributed to a number of interrelated factors, three of which are prominent. These are international aid, agriculture and mining. Because at independence Botswana was conspicuously neglected by her former colonial master, the country enjoyed generous and varied assistance from a number of developed

countries and international organizations. At independence in 1966, the aid flow was moderate, the bulk of which came from the United Kingdom which, in addition to budgetary support, provided the bulk of capital funds (Michael, 1981). Management of these external resources was of high quality, and this was an important feature that attracted more donors. By 1969 Denmark and Sweden had joined the UK in funding developments in Botswana. Canada, West Germany, Norway and the United States started donating to the development of the country in 1973. The International Monetary Fund later also played a big role in financing development. By 1977, some 72 per cent of development spending was externally financed (Michael, 1981). One important feature of these external aid and grants was that, in utilizing them, Botswana had to comply with the conditions which were attached. The conditions were such that economic growth was fostered without much regard to social development. Because of her compliance with these conditions, Botswana continued to enjoy the benefit of international aid years after some considerable degree of financial self-sufficiency was achieved in the early 1970s after the discovery of diamonds. The contribution of the diamond industry in the growth of the economy will be discussed later.

The country's political economy has also grown from pastoral farming. Batswana are traditionally an agrarian society based on subsistence herding of cattle and cultivation of subsistence crops. Until the early 1970s, the beef industry was the source of almost all the country's exports (The Europa Year Book, 1987). This sounds contradictory because subsistence farming implies no surplus. However, whilst Batswana reared cattle on a small scale basis, it was necessary for households to sell one or more of their cattle each year in order to send children to school and to buy other necessities. Further, there were a few farmers of South African origin, and some Batswana in the Gantsi area who were practicing commercial pastoral farming. As a result, the Botswana Meat Commission (B.M.C.) predates independence and is one of the main exporters of beef to the European Economic Community (E.E.C.). The beef industry's place as the source of foreign exchange for Botswana has now been taken over by the diamond industry.

Nevertheless, pastoral farming (beef industry) continued to be one of the important engines of economic growth in Botswana. According to Molutsi (1988), at the end of the drought in the 1960s came rains which, although not so good for crop production, allowed the national herd to increase at a fast rate. The national herd increased from 1 million in the late 1960s to 3 million by 1981 (Buiyan, 1987).

However, as it will be seen later, whilst the cattle industry continued to flourish over the years, ownership of the cattle has been progressively shrinking into fewer and fewer hands. Additionally, overgrazing and degradation of land have become national problems which may have future consequences for subsistence farmers.

Observers also attribute a great deal of Botswana's rapid economic growth to "good luck" with the unexpected discovery and subsequent exploitation of minerals, particularly diamonds, copper, and nickel, which to a great extent revolutionised the country's economy (Molutsi, 1988; Harvey and Lewis, 1990). Although at independence there were no mining activities taking place in Botswana, exploitation of mineral deposits since the 1970s became a major activity in terms of Botswana's exports and gross national product (GNP). Diamond production started in 1971; in 1985 diamonds accounted for more than 75 per cent of the total export earnings. Botswana was then the third largest diamonds producer in the world (The Europa Year Book 1987). The diamond industry in Botswana is a joint venture between the Botswana government and De Beers Mining Company.

Botswana's economic base lacks diversity. As it has become evident in the foregoing discussion, the engines for economic growth in Botswana have for a long time been the



mining (diamond) industry, and the agricultural (beef production) industry. The two sectors enabled Botswana's economy to grow at an astonishingly fast rate. Gross national product (GDP) per capita grew from P191 in 1966 to P1144 in 1986 - using the 1980 prices (Charles and Lewis, 1990). In the period 1980 - 1987 gross national product (GNP) grew in real terms by an overall average of 12.8 per cent, whilst GNP per capita increased by an annual average of 9.0 per cent. In the same period, 1980-87, GDP increased in real terms, by an annual average of 11.3 per cent, one of the highest in the world (Europa Year Book, 1993). To this growth, the diamond sector contributed an estimated 43 per cent (of GDP), and the sector accounted for 73 per cent of the total export earnings. It accounted for 80 per cent of export earnings in 1990. By contrast, agriculture contributed only 2.9 per cent of GDP in the period 1980 - 1989. This is a cause for concern because it signifies the decline in agricultural production, which is the traditional source of living for the majority of Botswana. And, hence, it has a bearing on the extent and depth of poverty in the rural areas of Botswana.

#### 2.4 Massive Unemployment and Poverty

Whilst Botswana has enjoyed showers of praises from the international community for being an example of rapid economic growth, unemployment and poverty remain a conspicuous reality for a majority of Botswana. The lack of economic diversity has direct implications for the rates of unemployment and impoverishment of Botswana. The Europa Year Book (1987) notes that, until the early 1970s, nearly 90 per cent of the working population was engaged in agriculture. However, because of the endemic and prolonged drought spells, coupled with a lack of sustainable agricultural policy aimed at improving production in the rural areas, the agricultural sector has been experiencing a decline over the years, both in terms of production and employment creation capacity. By 1990, the percentage of the labour force employed in the agricultural sector had dropped to 63 per cent (Europa Year Book, 1993).

On the other hand, the mining sector which has been growing since the 1970s, and has been increasingly contributing to the economic growth of the country, has not exhibited a corresponding employment creation capacity. In the 1980s, the mining sector provided only 3.3 per cent of the working population with jobs (Europa Year Book, 1990; Europa Year Book, 1993).

At least 25 per cent of the labour force is unemployed. It can be argued that the unemployment statistics are grossly underestimated. This is attributable mainly to the definition of "labour force" and of "employment". The 1981 Population and Housing Census defines labour force as "all individuals 12 years of age and over who, during the month preceding the census, were working regularly for cash, working in family lands or cattle posts, or were actively looking for work or doing periodic piece jobs" (Central Statistics Office, 1987).

This definition leaves out many people who, in my view should be classified as unemployed. For instance, for one to be considered unemployed one has to be "actively" looking for work or doing periodic piece jobs. As such, those who lose hope in the process, the housewives, the disabled, and the lactating mothers who are not earning an income are not included in the labour force and the unemployment statistics.

Moreover, technically, those people working on family lands (subsistence arable farming), and cattle posts are considered as part of the employed segment of the labour force by the 1981 Population Census. According to the 1981 Population and Housing Census Analytical Report, 41.1 per cent of the working population were engaged in subsistence

agriculture. Subsistence farming, especially arable, is failing because of unfavourable climatic conditions and a lack of a suitable agricultural policy. It can therefore be argued that the small, subsistence farmers continue to engage in this highly unprofitable activity because they lack any other option, or simply because they want to continue their long standing tradition. Hence their economic conditions continue to deteriorate into a state of destitution. If the amount or value of the produce from their farming activity was taken into account, while most of these rural lot would fall in the category of the employed, their lot is not much better than those who are unemployed.

As a result of the growing extent of unemployment, there is rampant poverty and destitution among a large segment of the households in Botswana. According to the report on the situation of women and children in Botswana, at the end of the 1970s 46.8% to 54.5% of the rural households lived below poverty datum line. The report adds that incomes of those in absolute poverty were on average about 44% less than the poverty datum line. Overall 30% to 47% of the urban dwellers were living below the poverty datum line (GoB/UNICEF, June 1986).

There are no indications that the situation outlined above has changed as Good, writing in 1992, makes very similar comments that over one-half of the rural households were suffering from absolute poverty in Botswana, and 21 per cent of urban populations live below poverty datum line (Good, 1992; Mompoti, 1990).

### 2.5 The Position of Women, Youth and Other Disadvantaged Groups in the Political Economy of Botswana

Women in Botswana are marginalized politically, economically and socially despite the fact that they make up about 52% of the total population of the country. Because of Botswana's patriarchal nature, women are dominated by men both at party and government levels. This is so in spite of the fact that women comprise a large proportion of the population and that political parties also have a large following among women (Madisa, 1991); party decision making is dominated by men. This is evident in the composition of the central committees of the two main parties in the country - the B.D.P. and the B.N.F. In the B.D.P. central committee only one member is a woman. The B.N.F. has only two women in their central committee. In the same vein, political parties in Botswana have a tradition of fielding men, exclusively, to contest for political office at national level. For instance, only two women contested seats for the B.D.P. in the 1994 general elections. The B.N.F. fielded no woman. A few women try

their luck at the level of local politics. It is not surprising, therefore, that the Botswana National Assembly currently has only 4 women members (two were specially nominated by parliament). We also see male domination at cabinet level. There are two females holding cabinet posts in the country - one minister and one assistant minister.

Top civil service posts such as the posts of "permanent secretary to the president" and "permanent secretary" are held almost exclusively by men. There is currently only one woman permanent secretary. The marginal position of women in politics, in government and in the civil service places women and female-headed families at a disadvantage economically.

However, it is worth noting the effort by Emang Basadi, lately, to start the process of educating women and encouraging them to rally behind female politicians (Setshwaelo, 1994)<sup>2</sup>. Women And The Law In Southern Africa is also making strides in sensitising women to the legislation and policies that discriminate against them (such as the Citizens Act, the property ownership laws, laws that limit them in their dealings with banks, and other laws which

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<sup>2</sup> Emang Basadi is a non-governmental women's organization committed to the advancement of women's rights. However, the agency is very recent in appearance and its mission is not as yet understood by the general population.

subordinate women to men). It is hoped that in the end women will be assisted to gain access to the democratic structures of government and to play a significant role in decision making.

Furthermore, women and the youth feature prominently among the unemployed populations in Botswana. In her presentation to the conference that sought to find ways to incorporate women into the economic mainstream, Setshwaelo (1991) laments that women were relegated to the informal sector where opportunities for training and advancement are minimal. Professor Takirambude, speaking at the same conference, observes that women are in a precarious position as they are more likely to be unemployed or relegated to the informal sector than men. Labour statistics for 1990/91 confirm that this is true. In March 1991 women accounted for only 35 per cent of the formal sector employees country wide (CSO, May 1992) An estimated 40 per cent of the female urban employed populace are in the informal sector, as opposed to only 9 per cent of the urban working men (Women's Finance House Botswana, 1991). The report estimates the unemployed urban women to be 42 per cent compared to 21 urban men who are unemployed.

The percentage of the unemployed women in the rural areas is grossly underestimated to be 28 per cent (CSO & SIDA, 1991). This underestimation can be accounted for by the fact that the rest are said to be employed in family agriculture. As argued earlier, the conditions of the people (women) who are engaged in family crop production are fast deteriorating into a state of destitution.

As a direct consequence of the marginal position occupied by women in the economy of Botswana, there is a growing number of street children or Bo-Bashi as they are commonly referred to in Botswana, most of whom come from female-headed families (Mompoti, 1990). The growth is evident in Gaborone and Francistown. The street children in Botswana share the characteristics of street children in other countries. Among their other characteristics, these children are of tender age - down to 5 years old in Gaborone, and they are a product of rural-urban migration, unemployment and poverty (Mompoti, 1990). Bana Ba Rona Trust (1989) identifies single parenthood as a major contributory factor to the problem of street children. This is particularly true because 45 per cent of Botswana's population is aged below 15 years of age, and a significant portion of these children come from female-headed families, households with insecure and unpredictable sources of income (GoB/UNICEF, 1989).



Although constitutionally all the people of Botswana have the right to the same economic and political opportunities, some tribes and groups of people (on geographic basis) are disfavoured in the political economy of Botswana. These economic and political minorities are referred to as Remote Area Dwellers (RADS). The status of RADS is determined by the location of the communities in relation to the railway line, a factor which to a large extent dictates the poor state of development in those communities. Hence the RADS communities are relatively primitive.

The Basarwa (Bushmen) communities are in the numerical majority among the RADS. Leadership is not alien to Basarwa. Their leadership patterns are established and organised around the family and clan system. However, at independence, Basarwa were marginalised politically. There has not been any affirmative action to assist them to play a role in shaping the laws that govern their day to day lives. Their representatives at local government level mostly come from other tribes, especially from Bakgalagadi. The possibility of having a Mosarwa in the National Assembly is very remote. As such, multi-party democracy that is so acclaimed in Botswana has very little meaning to Basarwa.

Basarwa are also dominant among the Remote Area Dweller population who suffer from rampant poverty. Like other Botswana communities, Basarwa were dependent on land. However, they differed with other communities in that Basarwa were traditionally, and still are, a hunter/gatherer people. The advent of modernisation affected this community adversely. When commercial pastoral agriculture was extended, with the introduction of the Tribal Grazing Land Policy of the 1975, the land that was predominantly occupied by the Basarwa was demarcated into ranches and allocated to big commercial farmers. Most of the land that remained was National Parks and Game Reserves. Not much thought was given to Basarwa's right to land. Thus, the Basarwa were displaced and robbed of their very means of survival - land.

Due to the lack of suitable and sustainable means of subsistence, Basarwa live in acute poverty. Their situation is summed up by a Dutch tourist Susan Brandt as quoted by Mokone (1994 p.6) "They are starving, they sleep on cold ground and have no blankets, but no one seems to care". The only kind of employment available to them is on free hold farms where they live a life that is not better than servitude. They work as herd-boys and do hard labour for payment in kind - with tobacco, liquor, food or old clothing. Those who leave the farms to live like "total human beings" end up leading a life of social lepers. They

survive on wild fruits and vegetables and dig up wild tubers to feed their families. Most end up going back to the farms due to starvation.

## 2.6 Botswana at Independence: The Struggle Against the Odds

It should be indicated from the outset that Botswana was subjected to benign neglect under British rule. At independence, Botswana was counted among the poorest countries of the world with a per capita income of about \$50 per annum (Michael 1981). Molomo and Mokopakgosi (1991) assert that "At independence Botswana had nothing to offer to her poverty stricken populations" p.30. Hartland-Thunberg (1978) makes a similar observation that "When Botswana achieved full independence in 1966, informed opinion was unanimous in assessing the country's economic prospects as dismal". p.1. The most obvious sign of neglect was the fact that the territory was administered from Mafikeng in South Africa.

As a result, it is very important to indicate the government's achievements in the provision of basic infrastructure and human services to the people. These basic services include basic health care, clean water supplies within walking distances, basic education and the provision of supplementary food in clinics and primary schools to prevent malnutrition in younger children, as well as the

provision of infrastructure such as roads.

The country has one of the best primary health services in Africa. While there are communities which are still to be reached by health services, the majority (85%) of the population are within 15 km of a health facility (NDP 7). As a result, the under-five mortality rate decreased from 170 in 1960 to 58 per thousand live births in 1992 (Datta, 1994). The average life expectancy increased from 53 years in 1971 to 56 years in 1981 (Hendenquist, 1992), and was 61 years in 1992, one of the highest in Africa (Datta, 1994).

In terms of the above indices Botswana compares favourably against other countries in the region. In Zambia infant mortality has only decreased from 220 to 203 in the last 30 years, while in South Africa the under-five mortality rate is nearly 70 in 1,000 babies. Life expectancy at birth is only 56 years in Zimbabwe, and 44 years in Zambia (Mokone, 1995).

Education was also neglected at the time of independence. According to Hendenquist (1992), there was only one government-financed secondary school and a few primary schools. There were also a few mission schools. Only 30% of school going age were in primary school and about 1,000 children in secondary school. Since independence there has

been an expansion of education services as well as adult education activities. Education is tuition free up to senior school level in government schools, including vocational training; and adult literacy is currently 75% (UNDP, 1994). In providing these services the government had to make difficult choices which involved numerous opportunity costs.

### 2.7 Growing Inequalities: A Prominent Feature of the Botswana's Political Economy

The country's rapid economic growth has been accompanied by inequitable distribution of resources. However, the preceding arguments have been espoused, especially in government circles, to demonstrate that the government of Botswana has done very well the areas of health, education, provision of clean water and roads. According to National Development Plan 7, (p.34):

*"If these services of government, largely counted as public consumption, could be allocated directly to the households that benefit, the distribution of the nation's income among it households would be seen to be much more equal..."*

The provision of these basic services per-se does not translate into better standard of living for an ordinary Botswana. For instance, the provision of basic health services will not affect the people's state of destitution; the provision of basic education will not improve life if it is not accompanied by employment or any redistributive services.

Further, UNDP (1994) contains statistics which look at the different countries and compare their efforts in the area of human development with their respective potential capabilities to develop their people. This comparison shows that Botswana's efforts to improve (not to prolong) human life has not been commensurate with the country's impressive per capita income.

Further still, in spite of the positive aspects presented earlier, Botswana's economic growth is marked by growing inequalities: There is inequality between rural areas and urban areas in terms of physical, social, economic and political development. The disparities between individual members of the Botswana society in terms of material wealth is of great proportions. This has given rise to the widening and deepening poverty among a great number of Botswana, especially in the rural areas.

Rural areas remain undeveloped, with some areas extremely lacking in this regard. That is, development is basically nonexistent in some areas. Some writers such as Good (1992) attribute this to the lack of a clear policy aimed directly at either creating or increasing production and incomes in the rural areas. It has been argued in some quarters that the government simply does not want to destroy people's traditional way of life. Hence, it has chosen to leave them

as they are. Other observers believe that the government is bent on satisfying the interests of the political and the economic elite at the expense of the rest of the society.

Although the elite as a social stratum in Botswana enjoy enormous economic power, they are basically new recruits. The scanty information which is available indicates no evidence of the predominance of the elite in the pre-independence era. This is particularly true because of the lack of any major economic activities in the territory, and because the fact that the Bechuanaland Protectorate was administered from Mafikeng in South Africa. However, a few individuals who attended college (Tiger Kloof) in South Africa were employed in the territory in a number of capacities such as teachers and agricultural demonstrators, whilst others worked in administrative capacities. At independence these individuals assumed political power and others took up high offices in the civil service. Their economic advancement was enhanced through government grants and loans as shown below, besides their high salaries. Their economic power continues to blossom while the rest of the society is consumed in a state of want.

The distribution of incomes in rural Botswana, where about 80 per cent of the population live, is also very skewed. Good (1992) asserts that the poorest 10 per cent of the

households received only 1.5 per cent of the total rural income, adding that while over 70% of the households in both rural and urban areas shared among them only 17% of the rural income, 20% of the population commanded close to 70% of the total rural income.

The available literature suggests that over the years, ownership of cattle has been progressively concentrated in the hands of a few individuals. According to the Europa Year Book (1987), the national herd is very unevenly distributed among the rural population, of whom almost 50 per cent have no direct access to cattle. It also estimates that about one-half of the national herd is owned by 5 per cent of the households.

According to the Report on the Rural and Economic Survey conducted in 1986 (C.S.O., 1987), there was an unchallengeable evidence of an extreme case of economic disparities in Botswana as "A good number of individuals had no wealth to declare..... On the other hand, there were a few individuals with enormous amount of assets, in some cases as much as P120,000 per household" p.15. Datta (1994), quoting from the 1994 Human Development Report (1994) notes that "Botswana has now earned the distinction of having the highest degree of inequality in the distribution of income among all the countries of the world for which figures are



available" (p. 19). A Motswana from the top fifth income category earns 47 times more than a co-citizen from the lowest fifth (Datta, 1994).

The disparity between the rich and the poor is so extensive because of the government's exclusive and consistent concern with economic growth. In most instances the prerequisite is for one to possess some wealth in order to be assisted to grow. In this respect the rich have enjoyed a wide range of generous assistance from government such as free disease control services for big cattle owners. Unlike the poor, rich people have access to credit facilities because they have collateral security. They can also make the required contributions to acquire financial benefits from such policies as the Financial Assistance Policy.

As if this was not enough, the big farmers have disproportionately benefited from the drought relief program and other government aid programs. The case of the National Development Bank is a good example. The bank has over the years benefited the rich through large sums of money in the form of loans which were not serviced properly. These people were later to be rewarded by the writing off of the loans on the account that they were incapacitated by drought to pay back. This is one way in which government institutions have continued to serve the elite exclusively.

Whilst the situation calls for urgent action, the government seems to be insensitive to it. The Destitute Policy of 1980, which is the only piece of legislation designed to alleviate the conditions of the desperately poor, is very inadequate both in scope and value. In this respect, the state has not demonstrated any commitment to raising the standard of living of the poor; instead it has shown its inclination to entrench the position of the elite in the society.

## **2.8 Conclusion**

This chapter has correctly depicted Botswana's internal political environment as a harmonious one. However, Botswana's democracy is beset by a number of shortcomings. Whilst national elections are held every five years, and whilst five political parties took part in the 1989 general elections, Botswana remained a *de facto* one party state. This is so because the ruling party has been in power since independence in 1966 and it continued to enjoy monopoly of power until in the elections held recently when the opposition increased their presence in the House to 13. The political arena does not include a wide spectrum of society since women, Basarwa and other minority groups do not share in political power.

On the economic scene, this chapter has shown that whilst at independence Botswana was among the poorest countries of the world, during the years immediately following independence the country experienced economic growth of rare proportions. This growth was initially attributable to international aid and development grants. Pastoral farming also formed the traditional back bone of Botswana's economy. The discovery and exploitation of diamonds in the early 1970's resulted in exponential growth of the economy. Currently, the driving engines of the economy are the diamond and beef industries.

It has also been demonstrated that Botswana's economy lacks diversity and that this has implications for the extent of unemployment in the country, which officially stands at 25%. It is possible that this is an under-estimation resulting from the conservative definition of employment/unemployment. The high unemployment rate has resulted from the lack of a comprehensive and sustainable policy directed at employment creation. Beef industry and diamonds have not displayed commensurate employment creation capacity.

Botswana is also a highly economically stratified society, where the rich are really rich and the poor have nothing. As noted earlier, more than 50% of the population have no direct access to cattle, and 50% of the national herd is owned by less than 5% of Botswana. The disparities in the

distribution of wealth can be understood from the developmental history of Botswana's economy. It has been indicated that international aid fostered economic growth without encouraging and fostering a just and fair distribution. When diamonds were discovered and some level of self-reliance was achieved, the obvious tendency was to maintain the status quo. For the new government, the familiar became "the way". Competition and individual accumulation continued to be the basis for growth. The rich enjoyed generous government assistance in various ways and became richer.

The poor became poorer. Due to the neglect and subsequent collapse of subsistence arable farming and due to growing unemployment, an overwhelming majority of Botswana live in absolute poverty. The groups which are affected most are the RADS (especially Basarwa), the youth, the elderly and women (female headed families). This simply demonstrates that Botswana has experienced growth without economic development. Whilst the (GNP) has grown considerably in the last 28 years of independence, none of it has found its way into the hands of the disadvantaged and the poor in the way that the interrelated problems of unemployment, poverty, youth delinquency and housing problems could be alleviated. Economic growth by itself will not eliminate these problems unless it is accompanied by a commitment to a just, fair and

equitable redistributive mechanism supported by comprehensive social policies.

In the final analysis, the disparity between the have and the have not, the government's preoccupation with economic growth without economic development of the people as well as the lack of comprehensive distributive justice have influenced my view. Throughout the analysis, and in the recommendations, I take the position that the role that social work should play in Botswana, among other things, is to strive for social justice.

### CHAPTER 3

#### 3.0 THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL WORK AND SOCIAL POLICY IN THE THIRD WORLD: THE INFLUENCE OF THE WEST EXAMINED

This chapter examines the development of social work practice and social work education in the Third World countries. It also briefly touches on issues of policy development in these countries, and makes specific reference to Botswana. The chapter concludes that social policy, social work practice methods and social work education in the developing countries were designed to meet the needs of the populations of the developed countries and that they were transmitted from the West to the Third World countries. This chapter also reviews the theoretical underpinning that has influenced the transmission of these policies, practice methods and forms of education. This is the modernization theory. The major assumption of this theory is that the problems faced by peoples of the West and of the Third World differ only in degree and not in kind. Accordingly, it concludes that the solutions are similar. However, when we review the Western definitions and practice of social work with the view to assessing their compatibility with the problems that social workers are faced with in the developing countries, we note that the problems are different and conclude that approaches to solve them must be different. Finally, this chapter examines the methods through which this Western orientation was brought about.

The three most obvious methods are colonialism, consultancy or expert advice and Western styled social work education.

### 3.1 Theoretical Perspective

Modernisation theory helps us to put into perspective the adoption of Western styled policies and practices by countries of the Third World. This theory contends that the interests of the developing countries require them to become "modernised", and to adopt attitudes and patterns of social behaviours that are more like those in the North and Europe (Jones, 1990). The model also fosters the belief that Western ideas and practices are superior and worthy of emulation (Midgley, 1981).

The modernisation view embodies many powerful assumptions which have greatly influenced underdevelopment in the Third World countries. The most basic of these assumptions is that the problems in the developed and developing countries are different in degree and not in kind, and that the solutions are essentially similar. The other important assumption is that the newly independent countries need not only to be assisted financially but they also need to be guided technologically to achieve the necessary modernisation (MacPherson, 1982). As a result, according to Hoogvelt (1978), all the modernisation theorists have in common the belief that the developing countries will ultimately (and

inevitably) take on the characteristics of the developed countries because of the diffusion of the Western economic and technological processes and because of the compatible societal structures.

However, there are theorists and scholars who hold a different and sometimes antithetical view. Firstly, the modernisation theory blames the victims of underdevelopment by locating the causes of their problems in the cultures of the people of the Third World countries. The theory fails to recognize the origins of impoverishment and deprivation in the Third World, part of which can be traced back to the history of colonial oppression and exploitation, which was characterized by the extraction of wealth from the colonies by countries of the West and the North (Macpherson, 1982). This robbed the Third World of the very means to develop economically.

Second, the insistence on the Third World communities to adopt Western values as a prerequisite for transformation is rejected as a form of cultural imperialism (Midgley, 1981). Continuous subordination and control of the former colonies by the developed nations is also achieved through the conditions which are attached to the development aid given to these Third World countries. The developing countries need to adopt or develop policies which ensure economic



growth and social development, and they need capital to achieve this end. This puts the Third World at the mercy of the dictates and fate of the capitalist West and of the equally exploitative Eastern bloc.

Social planning in developing countries often adopts the modernisation approach. Thus, policies, programs and standards are imposed on the Third World communities, and there is a lack of fit between them and the local political, economic and cultural climate. As a result, it is difficult and sometimes impossible to implement such policies and programs. Therefore, it can be argued that the primary motive for copying these policies is to appear "civilised" or "modern" in the eyes of the outside world. As argued in chapter 4, the motive is also economic. The state makes economic savings by opting for policies which involve minimal spending; if the policy cannot be implemented, so be it. A very good example of such a policy in Botswana, is the Children's Act of 1980, which will be discussed in some detail in chapter 4 and 5.

### **3.2 Western Models in the Third World:**

#### **A Question of Compatibility**

Various writers have offered definitions of professional social work as it is perceived and practiced in the developed countries of the West. Goldstein (1973) defines

social work as a form of social intervention which enhances, conserves and augments the means by which persons, individually and/or collectively, can resolve disruptions in their social existence. He sees the main objective of social work as the management of social learning. "The attainment of professional purpose is denoted in those changes that take place in the behaviour of persons and in how this behaviour is manifested in social and interactional environments" (P.6)

According to Pincus and Minahan (1973), the purpose of social work is four-fold. It is to (1) enhance the problem-solving capacity of people, (2) link people with systems that provide them with resources, services and opportunities, (3) promote the effective and humane operation of these systems and (4) contribute to the development and improvement of social policy (p.9). They further identify three characteristics of social work frame of reference to be:

(1) Performing life tasks: The profession's concern here is with the various tasks that different social situations require the individual to perform in order to realize his or her own values and aspirations and to alleviate his or her distress.

(2) Interacting with resource systems: Social workers facilitate the individual's interaction with resource

systems. The major task of social workers is to identify factors, e.g. ignorance or some pathological behaviours that may inhibit or frustrate the individuals' ability to interact with the resource systems. The workers then work towards linking the clients with the resources.

(3) Relating to public issues: The practitioner's attention is drawn to finding the relationship between individuals' "private troubles" and the "public issues". Private troubles occur when an individual feels that the values which he/she cherishes are threatened. An issue is when significant numbers of people are affected.

These definitions of social work have a lot in common. First, they have an individualistic view of social work practice in that social workers help individuals within the context of their unique difficulties. Emphasis is put upon individual pathological behaviours which inhibit people's functional interaction with others and their ability to have access to and enjoy the resources which presumably exist within their environment. The purpose of social work, therefore, is to assist the clients to acquire new knowledge and new patterns of behaviour which disposes the individuals toward more effective means of functioning (Goldstein, 1973). The new patterns of behaviour will supposedly also enable the clients of social work to cope with the stress brought about by rapid social change. Second, the common

assumption behind these definitions is that resources exist in the environment. The task of the social work profession, then, is to deal with individual's ignorance about either the existence of the resources and/or how the resources can be attained. Pincus and Minahan (1973) point out that private troubles become public issues when considerable numbers are affected. Social workers may need to act on behalf of the clients to justify the need to expand the services. This denotes the advocacy role of social workers. However, in the final analysis, social work practice that is based on the above definitions is by and large treatment-oriented. It is there to be put into active use when problems exist, which are believed to be amenable to social-psychological treatment.

The newest social work readings also share the same view of social work practice. Gilbert, et. al. (1980) see the two major parts of social work's concern as (1) to provide direct intervention to help people solve their problems and (2) to manage the institutions of welfare. Writing in 1989, Compton and Galaway regard the role of social work as one of bringing about the fit between the individual and his or her environment through the use of a range of change strategies. According to Compton and Galaway, all change strategies are toward modifying the person-in-situation interaction. The change strategies are also toward the treatment and

reforming of dysfunctional transactions between people and their social and physical environments.

It is not within the intellectual capacity of the scholars in the developing countries to challenge the authenticity of the definitions and views of social work as stated above. It should be accepted as a fact that these views were espoused based on the economic, political, social and cultural realities of the Western societies. What remains at issue is the wholesale transferability of these practice models to the countries of the Third World. Unfortunately, there exists a belief among social work practitioners and educators, especially in the developed countries that, values of Western social work are shared universally, and that Western models of social work transcend both the physical and cultural boundaries. This belief is the driving power behind the modernization theory, which assumes that the problems of the developing countries are the same as those of the developed countries and that the desired solutions are the same.

However, there has been a strong counter argument to the modernization view. Social workers in the underdeveloped countries have begun to recognize that Western social work is primarily concerned with the problems faced by the people of the West, and that the methods and strategies developed

to cope with these problems are failing to fit the problems faced by peoples of the Third World countries. Loewenberg (1979, p.134) underlines the importance of culture in the adoption of social work methods, and resents the domination especially of American methods in the international scene. He observes that for instance, the concept and definitions of need developed by American culture and intervention approaches based on these definitions may not be appropriate in another cultural setting. Loewenberg's concern is shared by many writers including MacPherson (1980), Midgley (1981) and Midgley and Piachaud (1984), to name but a few. They share the view that whilst the pathologies of individual maladjustment may require amelioration, "they are of insignificant proportions when compared to the problems of poverty and deprivation in developing countries; hunger, disease, underemployment and unemployment, inadequate shelter, landlessness, illiteracy and ignorance ..." (Midgley 1981, p.108) which are faced by peoples of the Third World countries.

The locus of social work in the developing countries does not rest with social casework. Social work's rightful role in these countries is to meet the most basic, physiological needs of the people as encompassed in the above argument. The concern of social work, in the Third World cannot be to link the clients with resource systems because in most cases

the systems do not exist. The concern should be to create these resource systems in the way that best meets the needs of the people based on the principle of social justice.

Whilst in the Western sense social work is primarily ameliorative and reactive, the approach needs to be different in the developing countries. In order to deal effectively with the primary problems of the Third World such as poverty and starvation, squalid shanty neighbourhoods, illiteracy, ignorance and underdevelopment, social work needs to come out of backstage and take a proactive position. To maximize the effectiveness of social work in this regard, the community as the starting point should provide the context. Chapter 5 discusses the concept of community as the context for social work practice.

It is worth noting at this juncture that direct interventions, of which casework is prevalent, are not the only branch of social work practice even in the Western sense. Social work has another component, which has experienced fluctuation both in application and emphasis. This is the social policy component. The role that social workers play in issues of policy is influenced by the economic and political ideological thinking of the day. Governments which believe in the state's responsibility for citizens tend to give the concerns of social workers greater

weight in policy formulation.

Chile, before the 1973 military government, offered a good example. Beginning in the mid-1960's, the social work profession was re-conceptualized based on the understanding that widespread poverty was not primarily a problem of individual deficiencies but was the result of underdevelopment and inequalities in the distribution of resources (Jimenez and Aylwin, 1992). According to Jimenez and Aylwin, these changes were sweeping throughout Latin America in the mid-1960s as governments were rethinking their social, political and economic policies and were pushing for change. Therefore, the role of social workers in Chile was greatly influenced by the values of social justice embedded in the Chilean society. Social workers were given a bigger role to play in policy planning as professional consultants. They were active policy implementers in that their experiences from practice were important for policy direction in the future.

Although this policy component of social work has been in place since in the 1920s and through the 1970s with the advent of Keynesianism, it has been replaced as a dominant belief in years as successive governments in the Western countries continued to emphasize the preeminence of individual origins over structural origins of social



problems. As a result, there has been a re-emphasis placed on individual responsibility and a return to direct interventions as the dominant emphasis. When social work education was brought to the developing world, direct interventions, especially casework, were emphasized. It will be wrong to suggest that this was because of ignorance about the importance of the other social work approaches, especially policy. This was a conscious economic decision by the Third World governments.

The policy component of social work needs to take its rightful place in order that social workers can play a role in the process of social development. Social workers in Botswana (and in other developing countries) need to grow beyond the role of passive policy implementers. They have to be involved at the stage of social policy design. Their involvement will be more effective if it is done in cooperation and collaboration with professionals from other fields; serving as consultant team to policy makers (Jimenez and Aylwin, 1992). This will make social policy more relevant to the concerns of the marginalized in the society, particularly if it is animated by the concerns for social justice as mentioned earlier.

### 3.3 How Were The Western Methods Exported?

Three major methods through which Western models of social work practice and policy formulation were transplanted into the developing countries are identified. These are: colonialism, consultancy work and Western oriented social work education. According to Midgley (1981) Western forms of social work were transported to the Third World countries after centuries of colonization and imperialism. These methods and forms of social work practice, like the concomitant economic systems, administrative structures, educational and other social institutions which were established during the colonial era survived after independence. As in the West, but in an even more aggravated form, social work in the developing countries was conceptualized so as to serve the same dominant economic interests served by the government.

Further, at independence most Third World countries did not have skilled personnel to design development strategies and policies. Again experts from the developed countries were called in as consultants. These advisors defined objectives which they believed the newly independent countries should strive to attain and provided specific policy recommendations which they urged the governments of the Third World to implement (Midgley 1981, p.45).

Western practice models were and still are transported to the underdeveloped countries via social work education. Academics from the developed countries continue to be called in to design and develop social work programs for universities in the developing countries. This has over the years created fertile ground for the importation of Western models of social work practice and education; the same textbooks, journals, theories and methods of teaching are used as in the universities of the West. The teachers either are citizens of the West, were trained in the West or were trained by teachers with Western training.

Social work education which is imparted to the students of the Third World is based on Western values and on Western economic and social structures. Policies which social workers implement in these countries are grounded on the value systems and aspirations of the peoples of the West and were largely designed to meet their needs. Social work practice models which workers in the Third World countries are trying to implement are based on Western definitions of social work. A combination of these factors resulted in what Loewenberg (1979) calls "value gap", resulting from the incompatibility between policies, education and practice models on the one hand and the problems faced by the peoples of the Third World countries on the other hand. Loewenberg laments that instead of acknowledging and accepting the

differences between the West and the Third World, emphasis was placed on the similarities or uniformities of international social work practice and education.

### 3.4 Conclusion

This chapter has examined the influence of developed countries on the models of social work practice and education, and policy formulation in the Third World countries. Western models of practice have been transmitted to the Third World through various means such as colonialism, consultancy and Western type social work education. The chapter also concludes that there is no necessary fit between policies and practice models which are individual oriented and are based on the values of the West and the problems faced by peoples of the Third World. Social work practice and education in the developing countries need to be oriented towards the community in order to address the societal problems such as poverty and underdevelopment. Social workers must be involved in the creation of resource systems, which are aimed to optimize the benefits to individuals, families and the community at large. This is possible through their involvement not only in policy implementation but also at policy planning stages.

## CHAPTER 4

### 4.0 SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE AND EDUCATION IN BOTSWANA: A DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE

This chapter gives an overview of the developmental history of social work in Botswana. It first examines the traditional forms of social welfare and community development. To this end the chapter will show that social institutions such as the chieftainship, *kgotla*<sup>3</sup>, regiments, initiation schools, the nuclear and extended family all worked together to meet the individual's physiological, psychological, spiritual and social needs in accordance with the norms and customs of the society. The chief was the custodian of the policies, the overall authority in society, and the community members were the vehicle through which social welfare, and community development were ensured.

This chapter also looks at the early aspects of modern social welfare and community development practices. There is virtually no literature on this aspect of the discussion. The only comprehensive study was done for a PhD Thesis by Peter Wass of Edinburgh University in the 1960's and the article was reproduced into the Botswana Notes and Records in 1972. Most of the information in this section of the

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<sup>3</sup> Kgotla is a traditional forum for decision making. Please see glossary for details.

chapter will be based on this (Wass') work. The concept of "food for work" (i.e. people working for food) arises here. The impact that this concept and that of community development have had on the development of social work will also be reviewed. It will be seen that instead of community development developing as a method of social work practice, the reverse occurred.

The brief history of social work education in Botswana will also be reviewed. Formal training of community development officers started in 1972 at the Botswana Agricultural College. The curriculum was revised in 1974 to incorporate some aspects of social work training. This development of social work education as a component of community development has compounded the existing confusion about the difference between social work and community development. The University of Botswana introduced social work education in 1985 and currently the school offers education at three levels of certificate, diploma and degree.

A critical review of the curriculum will show how the introduction of social work training at the University of Botswana failed to help social work as a profession to find a clear identity in the context of Botswana and to suggest relevant direction for practice. The curriculum was designed to orientate the students towards individual casework based

on Western models. The chapter also notes the current efforts of the Social Work Department of the University of Botswana to revise the curriculum in order to identify practice methods and intervention strategies; knowledge and skills which are appropriate to Botswana. Finally the chapter looks at the policies which social workers are charged with implementing. The purpose of this is to examine the extent to which these policies enhance or inhibit social workers in their execution of professional duties.

#### 4.1 Traditional Forms of Welfare and Community Development

The practice of social welfare and of community development in Botswana predates colonialism. Because of a strong sense of community, social and development problems were effectively solved within the framework of the community. Community developmental projects were carried out through voluntary efforts of the tribes. The institution of regiments (*mephato*) was very instrumental in community development. Brown (1983) has referred to *mephato* as the executive arm of the chief, observing further that they were often assigned specific tasks such as collecting stray cattle or constructing a communal dam.

The social welfare of the tribe was also the responsibility of the chief. Individual tribesmen-and-women held land in trust for the chief. In exchange, people were expected to

show responsibility for the society, which could be in a variety of forms. For instance, during the ploughing season households were required to each contribute draught power in the form of oxen to plough a big communal field (*lesotla*) which was held in trust for the community by the chief. Whilst each household had their own field/s to look after, they were collectively responsible for the *lesotla* through to harvesting. Furthermore, members of the community contributed some grains from their fields (*dikgafela*), which together with the produce from the *lesotla* were stored by the chief in big storage facilities called *difalana* or graineries to be used to assist those who for different reasons would need such assistance. This food was also redistributed to the members of the community during drought.

There were other established ways of assisting the poor. Those who did not own cattle of their own had cattle loaned to them by the chief or other members of the community (*mafisa*). In return for looking after such cattle, they used them as draught power, used their milk, and ate their meat when they were dead. However, they could not sell them. There was also a system of *majako*, whereby those members of the community who did not have lands to plough, did not plough their lands, or did not have a good harvest helped in their neighbours' fields in exchange for some part of the



harvest. The Botswana society also had a strong brotherly/sisterly sense of sharing, so that neighbours in a ward, who mostly were related in some way, were expected to share.

There was also traditional forms of child welfare system. Those families who had more children than they could care for placed them within the community in what today can be termed foster parenting and adoption. Members of the extended families were always willing to accept and care for these children in a way that they did not lose contact with their biological parents or lose their identity. Orphans were cared for by members of the extended families according to an established order of responsibility. That is, caring for children was the responsibility of the families as well as of the community at large. As a result of the organization of the community and the role of the extended family, social problems were minimized. There was a low divorce rate, little or no juvenile delinquency, few cases of suicide and fewer cases of teenage pregnancies (Hendenquist, 1992).

Most of the things cited above have long begun to disappear. However, as Hendenquist (1992) notes, some of the institutions, for example, *kgotla*, chieftainship and extended family continue to survive today, but they are in a

much changed form. Brown (1983) also points out that *kgotla* remains the sole legitimate forum for community decision making. However, there has been a shift in power away from individual chiefs and tribes to form a unitary administration. Whilst in the past *kgotla* was used by the chief and the tribe, it is now dominated by political leaders and government officials for community consultation purposes. Institutions such as regiments (*mephato*) and initiation schools (*bogwera\bojale*) have phased out gradually and only their remnants still exist in a very few tribes or communities.

#### 4.2 Traces of Modern Welfare and Community

##### Development Practices Appear

Altruism and esprit de corps which were communicated through the spirit of voluntarism continued into the period of colonialism and beyond. Traditional ways of living also continued to be a cornerstone of Botswana society. However, with the advent of modernisation, traditional ways transformed over time to embrace modern technologies. The first traces of modern development were in the mid-20th century, with the establishment of single-teacher schools built by the villagers. Examples are the Isang Pilane School in Mochudi built in 1923 and the Moeng College in Serowe built in the 1930's (Wass, 1972). This was a turning point for the socialization process in Botswana. Prior to this

development, socialization was done within the family system and also through the system of *bogwera/bojale* (initiation schools). With time the socialization role was taken up by the formal school system. Now initiation schools are almost nonexistent.

The British government, which for a long time showed no interest in the development effort of the peoples of the protectorate, only became involved at the end of World War II. Macpherson (1982) believes that the latent motive for the establishment of social welfare in most colonies after World War II was to maintain law and order. According to Macpherson, the British believed that unless some social welfare services were provided for the returning African servicemen they would create unrest and threaten her continued control of the colonies. Hence, at the end of the Second World War the Bechuanaland Soldiers Benefit Fund was established to assist in the rehabilitation of the returning soldiers - to help them re-establish themselves in the community. The assistance was in the form of loans (later converted to Grant fund), and the fund operated until the mid 1960. Care and sympathy for the ex-servicemen remained a keynote of social welfare in the period 1946 to 1960 (Wass, 1972).

Whilst the main focus of welfare was the returning soldiers, the colonial government was also minimally involved at community level. To facilitate adult education and community development, a welfare officer was appointed to work within the Department of Education to carry out "a combination of duties, comprising the following: Scouting and guiding, Adult and Audio-Visual Education; cases of indigence; Bechuanaland Soldiers Benefit Fund; assistance in presenting of Government point of view to the African; assisting in relationship with the press; contribution of articles to the press." (Wass, 1972, p.83).

Wass contends that the colonial government lacked appreciation of the value of the work of the welfare department. Hence, in the period 1959-61 the post of welfare officer lay vacant. The only trained worker was a welfare Assistant who was developing recreational activities for labourers in the compound of the abattoir in Lobatse. Within this period (1959-61) official thinking about the development of social welfare and community development was suspended (Wass, 1972).

A welfare officer was appointed again in 1961 and the second junior welfare officer in the county was appointed and stationed in the shanty areas of Francistown. By then there were only two urban areas in the country (Francistown & Lobatse) and they contained close to 3% of the population.

Wass outlines the duties of the welfare assistants in the shanties of these towns at the time to be:

- (a) rehabilitative casework, investigating individual cases of indigence or other forms of hardships such as physical handicaps, and putting these cases in touch with the relevant authorities where such authorities existed;
- (b) group work of palliative nature, recreational activities, amongst which youth groups featured quite prominently.

Therefore, the period 1961-2 saw the development of occupational therapy work among long term tuberculosis patients in Francistown. The patients were organised into groups of women to do needle work and of men to do leather work. Other groups organized were of adults wishing to do or to continue adult education. Wass (1972) note that these activities were initiated and carried out by members of the community on voluntary basis. Up to this point the government showed no interest.

The period between 1962 and 1968 entailed mainly adult education through cinema and audio-visuals, development of youth movements, in particular, Boys Scouts and Girl Guide movements, the development of community centres, and the creation of mobile team to help communities to come up with projects in the areas of agriculture, health and education,

to name but a few. Wass notes that the phrase "community development" came into use in official documents in this period. An iota of seriousness about the development of community development was seen in 1963 when the Social Service Committee accepted a proposal for a scheme that had two main objectives:

- (a) the implementation of a pilot rural community development project to test the applicability of community development.
- (b) the establishment of community development facilities in Botswana.

To this end, six Batswana were sent to Tanzania for relevant training in 1964, with the intent to involve them in rural development.

After the first elections in 1966, a new ministerial structure was established and the Department of Community Development was located in the ministry of Local Government, and was under the direct supervision of District Commissioners. The department was disbanded and re-organized into the Department of Social and Community Development (S&CD) in 1974. Currently the S&CD is under the Ministry of Local Government, Lands and Housing. However some youth activities are planned for by the Ministry of Home Affairs in conjunction with school authorities under the Education Ministry.

#### 4.3 Food For Work as the Basis for

##### Social Work Practice in Botswana

The practice of Social work in Botswana, especially in the government circles, has its roots in the concept of "food for work." Because of the prolonged drought in the 1960's, the World Food Program assisted on a wide range by donating food in 1965 and 1966. A scheme was devised whereby some development projects were implemented using voluntary intensive labour for which bonus was in terms of food rations. The overall coordinator of this scheme was a Community Development Officer. Therefore the concept of food for work became synonymous with community development.

When the Department of Social and Community Development (S&CD) was created the emphasis continued to be on community development, which focused on the provision of basic infrastructure such as roads, schools, health clinics, and dams. The organizing frame continued to be the interrelated concepts of community development, food for work and self-reliance or *boipelego*. For the fact that social welfare became intrinsically associated with food for work and *boipelego*, the initial conception of social work in people's mind was narrowly restricted to community development\ *boipelego*. Hence Setswana title for a social worker - *Mma\Ra-boipelego*. Osei-Hwedie (1994) contends that this limited conception of social work inhibited it from

developing as a distinctive profession which could be defined to include community development as a method of practice. He adds that "Instead, social work was subsumed under community development and hence lost its identity and critical role in national development" p.9.

The incorporation of some aspects of social work into the community development strategy has bred role conflict for the profession of social work. Its role in the society is ambiguous at best. The ambiguity of the role of social workers within the local government authority, as Ngwenya (1992) observes, gives rise to the apparent lack of focus, and lack of clearly defined operational relationship between the S&CD and other government ministries and departments.

The problems which stand out clearly here are that community development in Botswana has been trivialized and is only seen in terms of infrastructure development; it is not integral to economic and social development. Second, social work has a poor separate identity and, where it has an identity, it is related primarily to casework and not a broader social welfare development.



#### 4.4 Adoption of Social Welfare Policy in Botswana

Social policy is an outline of the course of action in the provision of social services at governmental level.

Therefore, social welfare policy can be conceptualized as a systematic guideline for the society to care for its members. The choice of the policy objectives reflects the values and ideology of the decision makers of the day. In the words of Reamer (1993, p.2),

*"Publicly sponsored social work activities are ultimately shaped by deep-seated beliefs about the goals of government, the rights of the citizens in relation to state, the obligations of the state towards its citizens, the nature of political or civilian liberty and the nature of social justice"*

There are two conceptions of social welfare which are based on two opposing philosophical notions. The residual conception sees social welfare or services as a response to emergency needs of citizens until the traditional social structures such as the family and the market place are again properly working for the individual. This view of social welfare is influenced by the liberal free market economy and political philosophy which can be better summarized by the motto "the best government is the least government".

Individual's needs are to be met in the market place, by family assistance or charity in that order. Government assistance is restricted to when the individual is "naked and starving", is at a minimal level and stigmatized.

On the other hand, there is the institutional approach to social welfare which suggests no emergency and no stigma. This view accepts social welfare as a proper and legitimate function of the state in facilitating people's urge to achieve self-fulfilment (Rochefort, 1986). The institutional conception of social welfare is influenced by the Keynesian economic model which emphasized the importance of government intervention to balance the interests of the capitalists with the needs of the less fortunate masses through redistributive social welfare programs, which, not incidentally, may benefit the economy, particularly in deflationary periods.

On the African continent, social services are generally underdeveloped and governments tend to take a residual approach to social welfare. However, the extent to which states commit themselves to the service of the disadvantaged varies from one country to the other. Ghana is one of the very few states in Africa which provide benefits for the unemployed (Jacques, 1993). According to Jacques, South Africa has a better developed social security system than many other African countries. In additions to the compulsory contributory unemployment benefits, South Africa offers state funded old age pensions, disability benefits and child care benefits. However, during the Apartheid era most of these benefits were enjoyed by the whites exclusively. With

Apartheid out of the way now, we believe that they will be open to all South Africans. These state funded social services are subject to a means test.

In Botswana none of the services mentioned above are provided. Social welfare policy in Botswana has been greatly influenced by the neo-conservative thinking, especially by the thinking of the Thatcher government in Britain in the 1980's which, after coming to power, moved swiftly to reduce government intervention in the market place through the curtailing of social welfare programs and services. According to Manning (1992), although the Thatcher government came to power with a clear manifesto committed to continued support for the most vulnerable sections of the society like the disabled, elderly, and children, in less than twelve months of the Thatcher government in office, these groups of people began to experience the first of a long series of cuts in the scope and value of social security benefits. Manning further notes that government's intervention was also reduced through the imposition of increasingly tight controls on access to those publicly funded services and benefits that remained.

Nevertheless, as stated in chapter 2, the positive aspects of Botswana's social services are in health and education in terms of coverage. Health services in Botswana are provided

by government to the entire population at a minimal cost of P2.00 per visit. Children under the age of twelve, pregnant women and the registered destitute do not pay for these services. The majority of the people have access to health facilities (NDP 7). Education is also accessible to the majority of the population. However, education is not universal as nearly one third of the children are never enrolled (Tummala, 1994; CSO,1994). The other shortcoming is that the education is not compulsory, and hence, not all benefit from it as yet. Since secondary schools are not yet in every community, many children have to live away from home to attend.

The two very important social welfare policies which social workers are charged with implementing were enacted in the 1980's. These are the Destitute Policy of 1980 and the Children's Act of 1981. These two policies reflect conservative thinking in the way they were written and/or in their application. A conscious decision was made to keep any benefits that accompanied these policies at a bare minimum. This is very much consistent with the philosophy that social expenditure is a drain on public resources and that it diverts funds from the overriding objective of mobilizing capital for industrial development (Jones, 1990).

The Destitute Policy defines a destitute person as one who is without assets and whose close family members cannot, and will not assist him or her. This includes those who are not able to work because of physical or mental handicap, old age; orphans and unattached children. The Policy was necessitated by the society's recognition that not every member of the society is always able to care for him or herself, and, particularly with the breakdown of the extended family system, the family does not and/or cannot always absorb the care of the indigent member (Local Government and Lands, 1980). The benefits which the policy confers to individuals and families are very limited, and access to them is very restricted. Registered destitute families living in the rural areas get assistance of P76.00 per month, whilst those in urban areas are entitled to P60.00. Compared with the official poverty datum line the destitute assistance is clearly inadequate<sup>4</sup>. The difference in benefits is designed to keep people in the rural areas. Young adults are generally not eligible even if they have no job and have dependents.

There were about 5000 people country wide who registered to benefit from this policy in 1991 (Hendenquist, 1991). It should be noted that this figure represents only a minute

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<sup>4</sup> Datum line for a family of 6 is P284.99 per month. (Statistical Bulletin 1992, Gaborone). An average family size in Botswana is six.

segment of the destitute population of Botswana. The primary feature of the Destitute Policy is its emergency and temporary nature, beyond which the state bears no responsibility.

The Children's Act was enacted in 1981. This policy was intended to ensure the protection of children against abuse and neglect. It therefore outlines the legal procedures and responsibilities of the parents, guardians and the society to the children. The Act covers everyone from the time of birth to 18 of age. It provides a broad base for a wide range of child care services; and looking at the document one can not avoid forming an impression that Botswana has an elaborate child welfare system.

Part V of the Act addresses the needs of "children in need of care", and defines this category of children to include neglected and/or abandoned children and children who are subjected to physical, psychological and moral abuse. The Act provides that these children will be removed to places of safety, which the Act talks about in Part VII. Part VII also talks about children's homes for the reception, care and upbringing of the children in need of care; youth centres, schools of industry for the care and training of juvenile delinquents who need rehabilitation.

Since the enactment of the Children's Act in 1981, there have been numerous workshops and conferences discussing the problems faced by the youth in Botswana, and the government has been called upon to implement the welfare and rehabilitation components of the Policy, but to no avail. Not even the effort to gradually implement the Act has been demonstrated.

The question that becomes apparent then is "why the policy?". It is quite safe to speculate that the Children's Act is not a result of a thorough and objective assessment of the problems, needs, priorities and attitudes regarding child care; the ability and willingness on the part of the government to carry through the different provisions of the Act is not clear. The Children's Act of Botswana is an offspring of, and actually an importation of the Children's Act that was in place in Great Britain around the 1940s and has gone through amendments. Furthermore, because the British Child welfare system operates in a different economic and cultural context, there is a lack of the necessary fit to make it operational in Botswana.

One very obvious limitation of the Children's Act is its failure to recognize and to put in the forefront the role of the family. The Act does not seek to empower and enhance the ability of the family and that of the community to take full

responsibility for their children and youth. The role that poverty plays in family's increased failure to take proper care children needs to be recognized. It is shown in chapter 2 that the children who are more likely to be in the streets, or in trouble with the law, are from poor families. It would therefore be morally wrong to suggest that the affected families do not want their children home or that it is the children's choice to be what they are. Therefore, greater family emphasis is needed, and child assistance should be offered within the family system. The connection here is that the economic and social structures should enable the families and the community to take appropriate responsibility.

Nevertheless, children's homes may still be necessary to care for orphans who are without guardians and for unattached children. Schools of industry are necessary for rehabilitation purposes. The government and the society at large must take greater responsibility for the youth through the enactment and implementation of a Youth Policy which is long overdue.

An integrated approach is needed to address the poverty related family problems, juvenile delinquency, and youth problems. This can be achieved by bringing the Destitute Policy, the Children's Act and the awaited Youth policy



closer to each other to form a concerted effort toward a comprehensive solution to the problems of our society. This is the only way we can avoid the Brazilian scenario, where because of government's failure put in place any social security or child care system, members of the community are taking the law into their hands and are literally shooting and killing these children to deal with the overwhelming phenomenon of street children, (Powers, 1990).

#### **4.5 Social Work Education: Formal Training**

Social work education is a fairly recent phenomenon in Botswana. Whilst the first social welfare worker was appointed by the British government in the early 1960's, no formal training took place in the country until 1972 when the training of assistant community development workers began at the Botswana Agricultural College (B.A.C.). The training was at certificate level and no specific social work courses were included. In 1974 the curriculum was revised and a few social work courses were introduced. The program was then renamed Certificate in Social and Community Development. This way, some semblance of social work education found its way into the dominant community development model at the level of formal training (Ngwenya, 1992). Ngwenya contends that this was a "marriage by default" which inevitably placed social work training and practice within the confines of community development. This

faulty start of social work education has contributed to the current failure in the minds of people to distinguish between social work and community development, food for work (drought relief) and self-reliance (*boipelego*).

The University of Botswana started training social workers in 1985 with a two year Diploma program (DSW). In the same year the Social and Community Development training program was transferred from B.A.C. to the University of Botswana, and it became known as Certificate in Social Work (CSW). The CSW and DSW programs run two academic years. The first bachelor of Social Work degree (BSW) intake was in 1986 and the program runs four years.

According to the current mission statement of the department of social work at U.B., the Certificate and the Diploma programs are more practical in their orientation while the degree program includes more theoretical content as well as a number of social science courses. The Certificate program provides basic knowledge and skills of social work methods to enable graduates to practice as assistant social workers. Certificate holders are by definition paraprofessionals. The Diploma program educates students for basic professional practice in social work, and enables them to operate at middle management positions (Department of social work, U.B.). The degree program prepares the graduates to operate

at a level higher than that of the diploma graduates. Both the diploma and BSW programs are considered "professional" programs.

#### 4.6 A Critique of Social Work Education in Botswana

Social work education in Botswana, as in many other developing countries, is influenced by practice knowledge, values and skills from the developed countries, especially the United States. This has caused increasing concern among local educators regarding the transferability, appropriateness and adequacy of this Western oriented social work education (Hammond, 1988). Ngwenya (1992) refers to this as the "agony of irrelevance". Midgley (1981) calls it "professional imperialism".

In order that we may better understand this state of things, it is important that we revisit the brief history of social work education in Botswana. A concrete analysis of curriculum development for the University of Botswana has been offered by Hutton (1994). When the social work department was established at the University of Botswana most of the staff had been educated in the West and their initial conception of what constituted social work training was influenced by their own Western orientation. Hutton notes that the first external examiner, who came from the U.S.A., recommended a program structure which duplicated the

CSWE curriculum required in the U.S.A. for accreditation.

After examining credentials of professors and programs designed before her assumption of office at the University of Botswana, Hutton (1994) concludes that the first professor and head of the Social Work Department, like the first acting head, had a strong background in psychology and that he saw social work as primarily concerned with meeting the needs of individuals. As such "he designed a degree program which was firmly rooted in social sciences" (p.6) Furthermore, Fulbright scholars from the U.S.A. and other members of the department (also educated in the West) taught whatever they brought with them. Hence the courses taught in the social work methodology focused primarily on casework based on the Western (American) theoretical notions.

As a result social work in Botswana suffers from conceptual confusion and practical difficulties. It is therefore critical that social work education curriculum development in Botswana must give adequate attention to finding its ideological underpinnings, philosophical base and must develop clear pedagogical assumptions (Hammond, 1988). The main thrust that develops is that it should be broadly grounded on the local socio-economic, political, cultural and demographic circumstances. It is in this general spirit that the University of Botswana social work department has

begun a systematic review of the curriculum with a view, among other things, to answering the question "What do we need to teach in order to enable the students to make appropriate professional judgements for social work practice in Botswana?" (Hutton 1994, p.8). The review involves a critical look at practice needs and situations which can be among the considerations guiding the curriculum development efforts.

In this respect the department identified community based practice as the starting point and curriculum organizer. According to Hutton (ibid), this organizing frame derives from the recognition that community provides the context for social living and for identity. In this context, the community is seen as the primary source for meeting the individual's needs. Social issues in Botswana such as poverty and unemployment, rural - urban migration, rapid social change, adolescent pregnancy, delinquency and family breakdown, to mention but a few, are primarily community problems (Hutton, 1994). It goes without saying that central to the resolution or alleviation of these problems is the economic and political empowerment of the community. Therefore, one of the important frames of reference for social work education in Botswana is to enable the graduates to work for greater measure of social justice and social development, which is the second aspect of social work

education in Botswana. Social change is the third aspect of social work practice that social work education should strive to achieve.

## CHAPTER 5

### 5.0 DATA ANALYSIS

The results presented in this chapter are based on a total of 50 respondents, who are in four categories of 30 workers (15 diplomates and 15 baccalaureates) and 10 students comprised of 5 degree aspirants and 5 diploma aspirants. Other respondents are 5 managers and 5 social work educators. As outlined earlier, the data will be presented in thematic form. Quotations will, in most part, be used extensively in order to enhance the preservation of the authenticity of the data as much as possible.

### 5.1 Issues Of Fit Between Social Work

#### Practice And Educational Preparations

##### **The Identified Problems of the Social Work Clients in Botswana: The Workers' Views**

The biggest problem that social workers have to deal with is poverty/destitution. Eighty-three per cent (83%) of the workers identified poverty/destitution as the number one problem in their areas of operation (table 1).

Poverty is defined in relative terms. The relative deprivation exists when a person cannot afford the minimum required for social (as distinct from merely physical) survival within the realm of their social environment. It is defined in terms of the individuals' or families' economic situations in comparison with their respective poverty datum

lines. The relative view of poverty recognises that what people actually value is not simply their bodily existence, but also their existence as socially significant persons, able to honour their family, societal and community obligations (Jones, 1990, pp.36).

On the other hand, destitution is defined in absolute terms. The destitute Policy defines a destitute as an individual who is without assets. Examples of assets are given as inter alia, livestock, land and cash. In many instances this definition is not confined to individuals, but it fits families because families form a support base for members. When families are impoverished, the conditions are manifested in the standard of living of their members. It is with the absolute form of poverty, i.e. destitution, that the S&CD as an agency seems to be concerned. However, the respondents do not confine their responses to destitution because they do not see their work to be restricted to it. They deal with people who are in poverty at different levels in a continuum. Hence, for the most part, the discussion refers to poverty. The respondents use the term destitution mostly when referring to the registered destitute. However, the two terms are sometimes used interchangeably.



Table 1

The Order of Problems as Identified

Poverty		J.d.		Others		Total	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
25	83	2	7	3	10	30	100

*J.d = Juvenile delinquency*

The second biggest problem identified is juvenile (youth) delinquency. Whilst only 7% of the workers have cited juvenile delinquency as the major problem in their areas of operation (table 1), 72% of the workers who have identified poverty as the main problem have named juvenile delinquency as the second biggest problem (table 2). Table 1, as read with table 2 show that 73% of the workers interviewed have mentioned juvenile delinquency as at least one of the two biggest problems in their areas.

Table 2

The distribution of problems identified as Problem 2

After	Poverty	J.d.	Others	None	Total
Poverty	N/A	18	3	4	25
J.d.	2	N/A	0	-	2
Others	0	1	2	-	3
TOTAL	2	19	5	4	30

There are two definitions of juvenile delinquency, which can be used interchangeably for the purpose of this report. The first definition is the legal one and the second is contextual.

The legal definition of juvenile delinquency refers to anybody between the ages of 14 years and 18 years, who is found guilty of a criminal offence (Children's Act, 1981). The contextual definition derives from the prescriptive, normative views of the appropriate behaviour. This definition of course includes the youth who are involved in criminal activities. However, it also includes the youth who are doing nothing criminal in the legal sense but are merely involved in activities which are out of accord with accepted behaviours such as drinking and smoking at tender ages, hanging around bars and night clubs, and playing truant. This set of youth behaviours can be better summed in one word "rebelliousness" or *boitaolo/boganana* in vernacular. Most of the respondents appear to attach the normative definition to their understanding of juvenile delinquency.

I should point out that poverty, especially in the urban areas, breeds numerous underlying problems such as abuse of alcohol (traditional brew), spousal abuse, incidents of prostitution and a host of criminal behaviours. However, a most of the respondents in this research have indicated that

they deal with these phenomena less frequently than they do with poverty. The phenomena are generally regarded to be related to deprivation.

On the other hand, youth delinquency is on the increase both in the rural and urban areas because of a combination of factors including high population growth rates and the preponderance of children under the age of 15 years. There is also high school dropout rates. According to Tummala (1994) nearly one third of the people aged 5 years and over have never been to school. Of the children who have been to school, nearly 55% drop out of school, a significant number dropping out before they reach standard 7 and/or Form 1 (Tummala 1994, p. 11). Most of the children complete their junior high school around the ages of 15 years and because of limited spaces at high school level, coupled with limited opportunities for employment, most of them end up roaming the streets. There is also a visible lack of recreational facilities for the youth. Therefore, social workers have to contend with a host of youth problems that result, including youth delinquency which workers see as one of their main tasks.

It is also important to note that the respondents in the category (workers) base their responses on the problems as they see them where they are. However, there are those who

have worked in more than one place and are able to reflect on practice in other areas of the country.

The workers in the rural areas are more likely to identify poverty as the main problem their agency is dealing with regardless of in which villages they are stationed. This is so because of the relative economic homogeneity of the populations in the rural areas.

On the other hand, urban populations tend to be more stratified and segregated according to their economic status. As a result, the social workers in the urban areas are faced with two different sets of problems according to the strata of the community in which they are working. The problems are more of poverty and destitution nature in the impoverished areas and the more personal and behavioral nature in the more affluent areas. Therefore, the people working among the more affluent populations, especially in urban areas, are less likely to identify poverty as the main problem.

#### Are the Interventions Appropriate?

It is in order, at this juncture, that the S&CD's response to the prevalent problems which have been identified by the respondents should be described. As alluded to earlier, poverty appears to be the biggest problem that the S&CD has

to deal with country wide. The basic assistance available is food stuffs to the tune of P60.00 per month for the urban registered destitute and P76.00 per month for the rural ones. Access to the assistance is based on a very strict needs test in accordance with the definition of a destitute given above and in the earlier chapters of this paper.

The provision of counselling is the intervention strategy that the agency uses to deal with juvenile delinquency, as well as with the cluster of problems referred to by the respondents as intrafamily problems.

Counselling is also employed by some of the workers as a strategy to deal with the problem of destitution. However, when the respondents make reference to the destitute assistance, they are referring to the food handouts.

The respondents who cited poverty as the main problem think that their intervention strategy is not appropriate. This view is represented by 64% of this category of respondents (table 3).

**Table 3**  
**Appropriateness of Interventions**

Interventions are Appropriate	Problem	
	poverty	J.d.
NO	(16) 64%	(11)61%
YES	(9) 36%	(7) 39%
TOTAL	(25)100%	(18)100%

The respondents believe that the intervention creates dependency. This means that the assistance only enables people merely to continue to exist while their conditions do not improve. There is persistent reference to the lack of the economic rehabilitation component in the destitute assistance package.

By dependency the respondents also mean that people are becoming increasingly dependent on the food rations. The recipients feel that they are helpless and have lost control of the situation. They feel economically too handicapped to recover. This becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy as the spirit of self reliance begins to dwindle. For instance, statements such as "*The intervention creates dependency*" and "*It has killed the spirit of self reliance*" are common throughout the responses. Some workers have observed that some of their clients have become comfortable with the label "*destitute*" as they are assured of continued monthly

government assistance. As a result, the respondents feel that the destitute assistance program is failing to address the problem.

The majority of the workers also feel that the destitute assistance has not encouraged or resurrected the spirit of voluntarism which continues to die away. There is a concern among the workers that people are starting to be self-serving and too preoccupied with their every day existence. This means that when the people are poor, they are dispirited and are not likely to be willing to participate in voluntary community projects. One worker put this in a more concise manner; *"People are no longer keen to work for no immediate personal returns."* He added that

*"The only community projects which the people are willing to be involved in are the drought relief projects because of the wage attached, meagre as it is."*

On the other hand 36% of the workers believe that the intervention strategy that their agency has in place to deal with the problem of destitution is appropriate (table 3). About two subcategories can be identified within this main line of thinking.

The first subcategory is of those whose agencies have limited the destitute assistance to the elderly, and to the physically and the mentally disabled individuals. They argue

that their clients cannot be rehabilitated because of their disabilities or age. According to them, the only possible assistance is the provision of food, and of clothing and shelter where necessary and if available. A common feature in this subcategory of respondents is their quickness to identify the tendency of the able bodied and young relatives, or even children of the registered destitute or "clients" to depend on the destitute rations. There are common statements such as:

*"The assistance we give to our clients is enough, but sometimes lazy members of their families and relatives who do not want to work depend on these destitute rations."*

The respondents are failing to understand this tendency from the point of view that with the high level of unemployment, these relatives are usually as destitute as the registered individual. These may include grandchildren who are often left behind by young parents as they go to the urban areas to look for employment which is usually not available.

The second subcategory within the respondents who think that their agency intervention is appropriate is of those who argue that the destitute assistance is only a temporary measure. Whilst their agency assistance goes beyond the elderly and the disabled, this group think that laziness and unwillingness to work is the root cause of poverty. As a result they believe that individual counselling is necessary to deal with the individual maladjustment. Minimal provision



of basic food stuffs is necessary whilst counselling is being provided. The assistance should be kept as unattractive as possible to discourage dependency on it. It is easily noticeable that these respondents are inappropriately assuming that jobs are abundant and that people simply do not want to work. Apparently this is the prevailing view of the policy makers and government leaders.

Five of the workers (17%) identified either juvenile delinquency or intrafamily problems (category others) as the major set of problems in their operation areas (table 2). All these workers believe that their agency intervention strategy, which is the provision of counselling services, is appropriate.

The common denominator here is that these workers are in towns/cities and they operate in the geographic locations where the residents are not as directly affected by poverty on a large scale. For example, one is in a mining town where only employees and their dependents are allowed to reside. Destitution is usually not an issue in such a place. Others are in places like Gaborone, in the parts of the city which are not afflicted by poverty. As a result, according to the respondents in these areas, counselling is all that is needed. These workers have responded with confidence that counselling has worked for most of their clients. However,

it should be remembered that this is only a minute percentage of the total respondents and they are operating among a numerically small population of people.

This must not be misconstrued to mean that there are no family problems or juvenile delinquency incidents in the poor segments of the cities/towns and in the rural areas. They do exist, but are overshadowed by the overriding problem of destitution which is affecting peoples in these areas almost universally. Again, as demonstrated below, juvenile delinquency and other problems are generally regarded to be the outgrowth of unemployment and the resulting poverty.

A majority (61%) of the workers who have listed juvenile delinquency, defined both legally and contextually, as the second biggest problem after poverty, attribute the problem directly to poverty in the families involved. Research across the cultures has shown that the children from poor families are more prone to displaying delinquent behaviours, and these respondent's observations confirm it (please refer to table 3).

These workers believe that the most important factor which influences the behaviour of these children is their living conditions. One worker interviewed in one of the urban

areas commented that

*"They live in crowded households where sometimes the children and the adults have to sleep together in a small shack. In most instances these children's antisocial behaviour is a product of the densely populated, poverty stricken and crime ridden neighbourhoods in which they live."*

Another worker, sharing these sentiments, states that in a many cases these children commit petty theft to get money to buy food and clothing, and sometimes even to pay rent. Other workers within this category blame these children's situation on the absence of a child care legislation, and resent that the Children's Act serves no purpose in this respect.

The majority of the workers who link juvenile delinquency to poverty think that their agency intervention is not appropriate. They are not content with the belief of their agency that these children can be counselled to cope with the hardships in their homes. These workers believe that the agency intervention should be geared towards making the home an economically secure place for the children to live without having to fend for themselves.

They also think that their training was not appropriate for the purpose of dealing with these problems.

The remaining 39% of the workers who listed juvenile delinquency as the second biggest problem after destitution do not make any link between the two problems. They

attribute juvenile delinquency to different factors which may not necessarily be related to poverty, such as unstable families, peer group pressure and sometimes behavioral maladjustment of the youths involved. Consequently they believe that juvenile delinquency and other intrafamily problems can be solved through the provision of counselling services (table 3). Hence they would like the status quo to be maintained.

They think that their training was appropriate for the purpose of offering the counselling they believe to be necessary.

#### Was Training Appropriate?

Forty-eight per cent (48%) of the 25 workers who have identified poverty as the major problem think that their training was not appropriate (table 4). The reasons for this conclusion are varied. First, according to these respondents,

*"The training was organized around the individualised casework method. It was based on the assumption that the resources existed in our working environment and that our task would be to assess the individuals and place them in the appropriate welfare programs such as the homes for the elderly."*

Additionally, the workers felt that because most of the instructors came from the Western countries, inevitably they based their examples on their knowledge and experiences from the West. Hence not only were the theories based on the

Western experiences, practice models were also Western. A very concerned worker lamented that

*"If case studies from the field had been used or examples drawn from the field, that would have given us an insight into the issues we were going to face as practitioners."*

Furthermore, they felt that the training was such that they would better function as counsellors. Most of them made it clear to their agency supervisors that they expected to be assigned to do casework. *"In fact I made it clear to my supervisor on my arrival here that I had been trained as a caseworker."* There was a consistent reverberation of statements like

*"The training was designed for people to work with problems that require counselling, when in fact the main problem here is either poverty or other problems related to poverty."*

Table 4

Appropriateness of Training

Training is Appropriate	Problem	
	poverty	J.d.
NO	(12) 48%	(10) 56%
YES	(12) 48%	(6) 33%
DON'T KNOW	(1) 4%	(2) 1%
TOTAL	(25) 100%	(18) 100%

One worker, conceding with all the others that their training was too theoretical and abstract, and lacked the

practical relevance commented that:

*"I only learnt to deal with the problems in the field through experience. To solve the problem of poverty we cannot deal with people on individual basis. We need to deal with the problem at the community level but the community methods of intervention were not provided to us during training."*

Another 48% of the 25 workers who identified poverty as the major problem think that their training was appropriate for them to deal with the problem (table 4). It should be noted that the percentage of the workers who hold this view is as high as that of those who hold an opposing view that the training was not appropriate. The reasons espoused by the former category of respondents will be explored below.

From the outset, it needs to be stressed that a majority of the people in this category are of the view that counselling can solve problems that poverty brings to the families. They not only think that their training was appropriate, but also that their agency intervention is appropriate. The statement that

*"During training we were taught casework, and we are practicing it here. Casework is appropriate to help the destitute to see the need to do something for themselves."*

shows how these respondents appreciate the marriage between their training and practice, which is grounded on the individualized intervention methods.

Some of the respondents in this category believe that material things must be provided to alleviate the conditions of their clients. While they think that their training was appropriate to deal with the problem of poverty and deprivation, they argue that

*"The problem is that my agency does not have adequate resources to assist the poor."*

The essence of this statement is that the inadequate policy entitlements for their clients makes them (the worker) unable to perform their role adequately. That is, the problem was not their training but the inadequate policy development.

Yet other respondents took a very moderate position. They believe that training only provides a broad base and that the individual workers should have initiative and learn more on their own. *"What is needed is for the workers to have a little more initiative."* Because of the absence of any visible progress in their efforts to deal with the problems of the poor, the workers holding this view are apt to blame themselves for lacking the necessary creativity. One of such workers responded: *"We have not started anything here, but as I said, we need to be innovative."*

There is contradiction in the responses of some of the workers who have said that their training for the purpose of dealing with the problem of poverty was appropriate. There

is some inconsistency in their responses to the second part of the question, which relates to the adequacy of their training. Their answers to this part of the question include comments which negate the validity of their responses to the first part. Some of the comments were as follows:

*"Most of what we did was theory, and not much practice."* One worker observed that:

*"When you go into the work situation it is a different atmosphere altogether. .... Most of the time you have to abandon what you have learnt and depend on your experience."*

In addition to these sentiments, the some of these workers talked about the conspicuous absence of community work methods from their training, which they resented. These respondents are not unequivocal about their feelings that the training was appropriate. In fact, their comments sound strongly supportive of the view that the training was not appropriate. This might be an indication of the lack of clarity about either what they were taught or what they learned. It may also be a result of their narrow mandate in their agency which does not allow them to implement most of their learned knowledge and skills.

At this juncture I wish to point out that the respondents in the workers category must be understood within the context of the fact that they graduated between 1987 (first social work graduates from the University of Botswana) and 1993 when the old curriculum was taught. That is, most of the



people in the category "workers" based their responses on the program which was firmly grounded on behavioral sciences, and was not proper for Botswana.

The responses of the workers who identified juvenile delinquency as the second biggest problem after poverty are presented in table 4, and may be seen in the same light as pointed out above. Fifty-six per cent (56%) of them do not think that their training was appropriate for the purpose of solving the problem. Some of these respondents question the relevance of casework to the solution of youth delinquency. These are the people who have been cited above to be attributing juvenile delinquency to economic deprivation and thinking that their training should have been geared toward solving the root cause, which is poverty.

However, a word of caution is necessary here. Whilst youth delinquency can mostly be attributed to high rates of school dropouts, youth unemployment, child-poverty and boredom, other causes such as dysfunctional families and peer group pressure need to be considered. Therefore, counselling may also need to be considered as an intervention tool.

Others in this category do not necessarily question the relevance of casework but they think that their training was too theoretical and lacked the practical skill development

component. One noted that they used case studies from American situations which were not relevant to the local conditions.

Some of the respondents in this category argued that the content of their training in respect to youth delinquency was not very relevant, as one of them complained: "We discussed too much abnormal psychology."

The other 33% of the workers who identified juvenile delinquency as the second major problem after poverty are of the view that their training was appropriate to deal with the problem. Like the ones who hold the same view with respect to the problem of poverty, these respondents believe that all what is needed is counselling. Therefore, they feel that the training was proper because it was organized around casework.

There is a fair amount of consistency between appropriateness/inappropriateness of intervention and appropriateness/inappropriateness of training. For instance, the 5 workers who identified juvenile delinquency or intrafamily problems as the main problem think that their training prepared them to deal with the problems. In addition to all the respondents in this category believing that their intervention is appropriate, 60% of them (3 out

of 5) think that their training was appropriate. They appreciate that adequate time was devoted to casework. However, they resent that counselling was not done in sufficient detail.

Further, 9 of the 25 workers who cited poverty as the main problem think that their agency intervention was appropriate. The majority of them (7 or 78%) also think that their training was appropriate.

On the other hand, of the 25 people who cited poverty/destitution as the main problem and think that the intervention is not appropriate, fifty-six per cent (56%) think that training was not appropriate. Only 31% think that training was appropriate and 13% did not say.

#### The Views of the Workers Regarding Their Training Compared with Their Work and Job

Interventions which are taught during training are internalized and regarded as all that there is by the new graduates. Therefore, when the call of duty demands a different approach from the one to which the workers have been oriented by training, they are affected by anger and frustration. As alluded to earlier, a considerable number of the workers who cited poverty as the main problem in their areas were of the opinion that their training had been

appropriate for the purpose of this problem. These people expressed their satisfaction with casework as the approach which their training took. Conversely, these workers are apt to express dissatisfaction with their functional roles in their agency. The dissatisfaction is heightened when they are assigned to the sections of the agency whose functions are not primarily casework. However, some of the workers who think that their training was not appropriate also share these feelings.

There is a talk of misplacement and frustration because, as one of the disenchanted workers pointed out, *"People must be deployed to do what they have been trained to do"*. The workers feel that in spite of their training as caseworkers,

*"There is a lot of misplacement of staff in this agency. For instance, people are asked to do community work and home economics when they have not had any training in those areas."*

One worker whose frustration appeared to have reached insurmountable proportions complained

*"We know that social work basically is casework. I was trained as a case worker, and I hate to be frustrated by being made to do what I have not been trained to do."*

On the brink of breaking into tears, she added *"We are going to sit here and our knowledge will rot."*

These comments do not only depict the worker's anger and

frustration, they also show her inexperience and inability to exercise professional judgement. Furthermore, the comments may be indicative of the narrow focus of their social work training. The worker is failing to realize that there are alternatives to casework, and is unable to make a judgement that the approach that she is so comfortable with might be unsuitable for the tasks which are to be performed. One of the workers cautioned against these feelings:

*"We complain about misplacement in our agencies, but I think that this is a sign of the gap between training and the field. The university says it is providing generic training, and the agencies expect us to fit anywhere in the field of practice; but we don't always fit."*

The amount of disgruntlement appears to subside when, either through internal staff movements or other means, the workers are redeployed to the social welfare unit. For instance, one worker recited how disappointed and bitter she was when her initiation into the agency was to be sent to a rural area where community work was more important than casework, and where she did not have immediate supervision. Talking with a sigh of relief, the worker said

*"I am happy now that I have been transferred to one of the major centres in the district and redeployed to the unit which does mainly casework."*

This is indicative of the fact that some of the people who assert that their training was appropriate to deal with the problem of poverty want to do casework because that is what they feel they have learnt during training. It is also a

good example of goal displacement, where the means substitute for ends.

The responses of the workers in the field strongly suggest some inconsistency between their social work training their practice realities. This gap may be a result of the students' own attitude towards learning. Therefore, it may be necessary for us to be careful not to assume that "what was learned" is equal to "what was taught". Often, students may fail to make linkages from one class to another, and later, to transfer their learning to their work places. Second, the gap may be a result of the way teaching was conducted, which sometimes only prepared students to pass exams without learning. The bottom line is that people emerged with little learned intervention skills and knowledge.

The negative reaction which has been displayed against community development by some respondents needs to be examined at this juncture:

Some respondents separate community development from social work. They see community work as "Boipelego of infrastructure development nature" and social work as "casework". This view is especially held by the respondents who have expressed the desire to do only casework because of

their orientation which, they feel, had casework as the main emphasis. Their conception of community development is limited to the supervision of activities such as building community centres, rural roads, dams and other infrastructure; and the coordination of drought relief projects. This category of respondents are less willing to be involved in community development projects, because they feel that the status and sparkle is with doing casework.

However, there are other respondents whose conception of community work goes beyond the notion of infrastructure development to include the different methods of community intervention. Hence, as will be seen later, the majority of the respondents appreciate the importance of community development as part of their intervention strategy. They have a view of a people oriented approach, which is more of social and economic development nature. A worker, arguing that people have a limited view of community development said that:

*"Community development is also aimed at people's attitudes towards self improvement, and the social workers must be able to offer professional assistance. The government and social service agencies must provide material assistance."*

In this way community development is seen as a tool through which individuals, families and communities are helped to take charge of their lives, and have their spirit and sense of togetherness rebuilt.

Another respondent pointed out that community development will have served its purpose when the problems and attitudes that accompany poverty, illiteracy and ignorance have been dealt with; for instance, when the people appreciate the value of education and do send their children to school, and when the people are capable of making contributions not only to infrastructure development but also to the social and economic development of their communities.

### Responses of The Students

Like the workers, the students identified poverty as the major problem which social workers have to deal with in the field of practice. Nine (9) out of 10 (90%) of the students hold this opinion. Only one student rated juvenile delinquency as the main problem that social work practitioners are faced with. Of the 9 students who identified poverty as the task for social workers 7 (78%) think that the intervention strategies that the agencies have in place to deal with this problem are not proper.

Five (50%) of the students who responded identified juvenile delinquency as the second biggest problem after poverty. Three (3) of the 5 students disagree with the intervention strategy that the S&CD in particular, has in place to deal with the problem of juvenile delinquency.



Most of the perceived inappropriateness of the interventions for the two problems cited above, especially poverty, stems from the palliative interventions which are not designed to raise the recipients out of poverty. Like the workers, the students talk about the destitute assistance making people to be dependent instead of rehabilitating them economically.

Inadequate policy development has been cited by the students as another cause of the inappropriateness of the interventions. One of the students warned that "*Poverty is a nation wide problem which needs a national policy or program to address it.*" He notes that the present Destitute Policy is very limited in scope, and its entitlements are very insignificant compared to the magnitude of the problems faced by the recipients. Another student, commenting about the interventions for juvenile delinquency said:

*"For Juvenile delinquency we have the Children's Act, but as you know, this policy is not backed by any resources or infrastructure."*

The students have responded extensively to the questions regarding their current program of training vis-a-vis the work of social workers in the field. The results of the student's responses in this respect are presented below.

In their responses the students are communicating two messages which are not necessarily complementary to each

other. The first message relates to the shifting of the training away from casework, and the second message relates to the bias against the direct social work practice methods.

First, the students are unanimous in agreeing that their current training is appropriate for the purpose of dealing with the problem of poverty and destitution. Eight (8) of the 9 students who have identified poverty as the main task for social work think that their training is appropriate. As well, 3 of the 5 students who identified juvenile delinquency as the second most compelling problem after poverty think that their training was appropriate.

However, because the diploma and the degree programs have different focus and content, the students cite different reasons for their views and convictions arising from their training.

For the diploma students, the aspect that makes their training to be appropriate is its focus which is policy, supervision and management oriented. What is implied here is that the diploma students are being prepared to deal with the problem of poverty at policy and administrative levels. One of these students said of the training: *"It has given me a better understanding and appreciation of social problems, as well as the root causes of poverty."*

Another student, also praising the orientation of their

training commented:

*"It introduces us to issues of supervision, policy analysis and management, and we can influence decisions made about our clients."*

Yet another student who was equally excited added:

*"The training qualifies me for a supervisory position and so, I will have some influence in the decision making; as a supervisor who has the relevant training, I will be able to understand my subordinates better."*

As in the case of some workers who believed that casework was all that they were going to do upon graduation, some diploma students are strongly convinced that the focus or orientation of their training is a determinant in the positions they will occupy in their agencies immediately on leaving the university. The following statement summarises the responses of the majority of the diploma students with regard to this issue:

*"With the knowledge in policy issues, program planning and program evaluation we will be able to influence the policies and effect change in the programs. This will be possible because we will be entering the agency at managerial positions."*

These comments are in sharp contrast with the realities of work as experienced by the graduates interviewed. The workers have pointed out that practice as it is currently does not demand for the graduates to be well versed in management because there are virtually no social programs to be managed. Policy is a prerogative mainly for politicians. As such, the place for social workers is seen to be directly

working among the people, helping them to find practical ways to deal with their problems.

It should be accepted as the responsibility of social work training not only to mirror practice but also to point the way and guide practice. It also needs to be realized that to deal effectively with the problem of poverty and most other issue pertinent to social work practice, the structural and policy questions must be addressed during training. However, when the issues of social policy development and implementation are addressed, the gap between training and practice is destined to appear because the structures for responding to social needs is more limited and policy is not well articulated and developed. Again, the gap here is attributable not to social work education but to the limited mandate of the workers.

Nevertheless, it does not necessarily follow that policy matters are irrelevant in social work education, especially since today's students will be shaping tomorrow's policies (Hutton, 1994). Knowledge in policy also adds weight to the social workers' call that they should be given an active role to play in the social policy design process.

However, the contrast between responses of the workers and those of the students points to the need to balance the indirect with the direct practice methods. The workers in the field have asserted that contrary to their orientation, they are front line workers in the villages and do not do administration work. Therefore, whilst knowledge in policy and administration is also very important, the current exigencies of practice which require workers to be generalist workers at grassroots level must not be ignored or neglected.

As mentioned above, the second message which is communicated by the students is about the conspicuous bias against the direct social work practice methods. There is still a general feeling among the students that their training is more theoretical and academic than it is practice oriented.

A diploma student asserted that

*"The training introduces us to broad theories and concepts. However, as to whether it is appropriate for the purpose of dealing with the problems of poverty and juvenile delinquency, I cannot say."*

The one striking thing about the responses of the diploma students is the total failure to mention direct social work intervention methods as part of their newly acquired learning. A student, lamenting this situation stated:

*"I believe that community work was meant to be a part of our training but we ran out of time before we got into it. All the time was spent on management issues and casework."*

The degree students responded with even a higher level of abstraction than the diploma students. Like the diplomates, the degree students also believe that they have done very little in terms of social work intervention methods. As one such a student observed:

*"The first two years we did not do much, especially in the area of social work intervention methods. We started learning something in the third year when we did a course which introduced us to some community development intervention strategies. We have learnt different definitions of community work."*

Many have alleged that there has not been any noticeable change in the approach from their previous programs, which emphasised the individual maladaptive behaviours. That is, there is a feeling that the program is organized around behavioral sciences. This particular conclusion is supported by the persistent reference by the students, to courses which help in the understanding of human behaviour: *"There are courses which help us understand human behaviour such as social psychology and psychology for social workers."* This is particularly true because prior to 1993/94 academic year the program was firmly grounded on abnormal psychology.

There are also some statements which are indicative of the feeling that the training is biased in favour of courses from the other social sciences against the social work practice methods: *"We tend to bring in a lot of courses from other disciplines at the expense of the core courses."* This

echoes the sentiments expressed by Professor Hutton (1994). She feels that the social work program which was designed before she had joined the faculty did not balance out the need for these social sciences and the need for the method courses. The lack of connection which results from this lopsided orientation exacerbates the gap between social work training and practice as people are not able to carry the knowledge into their work places.

The department of social work mission statement indicates that the BSW degree program is organized around professional content areas of social work theory for practice, social policy, administration and research.

*"In addition the program includes a broad base of related social science content which is intended to support and complement the practice theory and knowledge." (p.1)*

As well, the different writers in the field of social work such as Compton and Galaway (1989), have illustrated the importance of social work being informed by the knowledge from other social science disciplines. However, when these other courses overshadow or replace the supposed core courses it becomes a genuine concern.

As is the case with the diploma students, the responses of the degree students also indicate the virtual absence of the social work practice methods as part of the new learning they have acquired. Examining the course offerings for the

1992/93 academic years (Appendix B), it becomes easy for one to understand and appreciate the concerns of the respondents regarding this virtual absence of practice content from the syllabi. For instance, a glance at the degree program reveals how grave the lack of practice methods is.

Therefore, the students felt that relative to the foundation knowledge in the social sciences, practice knowledge and skill development were insufficient.

The phrases such as *sensitized about issues, understand issues better* and *appreciate issue* characterize the responses of the majority of the students. Unfortunately, these phrases do not indicate how clear the students are about what they have learnt. They only denote further uncertainty and add to their level of abstraction.

It would appear from the responses gathered that the basic social work practice methods have not been part of the training, especially at the degree level. As such, only those who have gone through some training previously have made some minimal gains from the program as they have been helped to recapitulate the broad social issues and put them in perspective by exploring the various theories.

This is reflected in the responses of some students who believe that: *"The degree program builds upon the lower programs of CSW and DSW; so that those who have not gone*



*through the lower programs might be left behind."*

The students who have previous work experience feel that they will benefit from their training more than those who have not worked before.

The very important question of **how much practice education is enough** arises. For the lack of a scientifically tested yard stick this question may not be conclusively answered. However, the time allocated to social work practice courses, as well as to fieldwork relative to the aggregate time available for training might indicate the importance attached to practice:

The 1992/93 calendar shows that there were a total of 19 hours for year one. Only 3 hours were allocated for an introductory course in social welfare (SW 102). In second year 3 out of 18 hours were allocated to a practice course (SW 205). Third year saw the introduction of a 3 hours field component in addition to 3 hours of a practice course. That is, a total of 6 hours. In the final year there is 6 hours of field work and nothing in class. In aggregate, out of 73 hours for the degree program 15 hours are allocated to social work practice (9 to field work 6 in class). I do not consider the course (SW 102) Introduction to Social Welfare a practice course since it only introduces students to theories and concepts.

In the diploma program, 12 out of 39 hours are allocated to practice courses; 6 hours in class and 6 hours on field placement. The question that comes to mind again relates to the kind of practice methods taught. If, as the students claim, the methods are of casework nature, then there might be very little that will benefit them as practitioners. What this information suggests is that very little practice base forms part of the training. As a result both the students and the graduates are clear about insufficient practice knowledge and skill building in their training.

This leaves us with the conclusion that when these students go back into the field, and have to work as front line workers, they will fall back on their past practice experience. Those who have not worked before will be frustrated and disgruntled as shown by the workers interviewed. This seems to be confirmed by the managers' observation that those who have worked before always fare better regardless of the level of training. It is also consonant with the assertion made earlier by a worker that most of the time workers have to put aside what they have learnt and depend on their experience.

By the same token, this may denote poor fit between social work education and job, more so than a necessary shortcoming of the education. That is, it may result from the improperly

constructed job of a social worker. For instance, the extent to which the social worker puts into practice what they have learnt may be restricted by their mandate within the agency.

However, as indicated in the quote a few paragraphs above, there is one component which the students appreciate and feel should be consolidated in their program. This is the community work course (SW 301) which is ushered in at third year. The students feel that this is a very relevant component which will more likely be applicable in the field. This course has now been moved second year so that the students can start with a strong background in community approaches.

#### Responses of the Managers

The managers are unanimous in viewing the social work training that their subordinates have had as inappropriate for the purpose of the primary problems with which the graduates have to contend in their field of practice. The managers tend to distinguish between those workers who had some work experience in a social service agency before going for training and those who were fresh from high school. Their responses are not only in agreement with each other, but they are extremely alike. This elaborate quote from one of them is representative of the manager's views:

*"I will talk specifically about those graduates who had not worked before they went to the University. It takes*

*them time to adjust to the practical work. I think they have theory but no practical training. The only thing that these graduates are competent in doing is casework. In the rural areas like here, the workers are require to have knowledge in community approaches."*

The distinction that the managers make between the graduates who had work experience prior to their training and those who did not is in total congruence with the distinction drawn by the students who have responded. It also goes back to the suspicion that probably the graduates depend more on practice wisdom than on their learned intervention methods thus further pointing to the gap that exists between social work education and training in Botswana.

A quote from another manager completes the message:

*"Perhaps we, as managers, do not properly orientate these graduates into their work; to tell them that they are not only going to do casework. ... But it does not show that they have been taught the other methods of social work intervention."*

The managers think that the important factor in the worker's ability to work with the people is their intuition and the length of their service, that is, the experience they have accumulated over the years of their employment.

Whilst I am not in any position to dispute the assertions and observations of the managers, my sense is that their responses may have been influenced by the long standing

belief that social work education must enable the students to be well versed in the specific operations of the S&CD. This expectation stems from the historical development of social work education in Botswana. As discussed in chapter 4, at its initial stages social work education in Botswana was designed for practitioners in the S&CD.

### Responses of the Educators

The University of Botswana is the only institution which offers social work education in the country. As a result, the Department of Social Work in the university has to cater for a variety of needs and interests in order to enable the graduates to practice in different practice agencies and situations. However, it must be realized that as in many developing countries, social work agencies in Botswana exist within the larger social context of the people who are affected by poverty and underdevelopment. This earns the S&CD a very central role in social work practice as it is the biggest social work agency.

In this research the educators responded to questions which related specifically to how training enables the graduates to perform their roles proficiently within the context of the S&CD. In that respect, the responses of the social work educators are basically congruent with the general aggregate response of the majority of all the respondents.

The social work educators interviewed are also unanimously agreed that in its short history in Botswana, social work education has been inappropriately organized around the individual casework method. However, the department of social work in the university of Botswana has realized this shortfall of the education and has since been working relentlessly to find the most suitable approach which will be relevant to the practical problems of the social work clients in the country.

As such, in his response one of the educators noted that "*In the past two years there has been a shift towards the community based social work practice; but I would not say that we have found our grip on that.*" It seems crystal clear that all the educators have realized the need to find a suitable approach to social work training in Botswana. However, the search is destined to continue for sometime as the choice of such a guiding principle involves long periods of debate considering the numerous factors that may come into play in the implementation phase. What is important is that the process has been set in motion.

Some of the responses regarding the appropriate conceptual framework for social work training in the university are reflective of the different orientations of the department members which have influenced their views about the role of

social work in society. Some responses have more normative or ideological base and others are based on what is seen as the empirical demands of practice. As such, one of the educators pointed out,

*"We should have our organizing frame as human rights and social justice ....."*

Another teacher, also signalling the continuation of the debate suggested a different area of focus; that is, the social change approach. According to him *"We should produce the graduates who will play an active role in the process of social change."*

As a result of the continuing debate and search for the most appropriate focus of the social work training in Botswana, most of the teachers who responded feel that the department has not reached its goal of shifting away from casework as the approach of the social work education. They feel that the spirit of change which has been displayed in the different forums must be translated into visible action. As such, one of the educators, also recognizing the effort of the department to organize teaching around the concept of the community, commented that *"... However, if you look at the individual courses, they are not designed to embrace this concept."* Acknowledging that their approach is still organized around the casework method, the educator added:

*"The training by and large is not about helping the communities to create their own resources. It prepares people to provide palliative interventions and not to*

*bring about fundamental changes in the communities."*

All these comments indicate the fact that casework is still the main thrust of social work education in Botswana. They also show that the approach has proven to be inappropriate for the problems faced by the social work clients in the country. The department is involved in the effort to find a suitable guiding principle; as one of the professors noted:

*"We are still working on the program. As of now it is not well thought out. We need to impart the students with the knowledge and skills to work with the poor in a way that can empower them to deal with their poverty."*

He added that social work is political and therefore the students need to be made aware of that fact.

Due to the different orientations and the different ideological beliefs held by the department members, unanimity may be difficult to achieve. Therefore, my sense is that the current mission statement and the syllabus are tentative materials whilst effort continues to be made to understand social work for Botswana.

This fact may be very indicative of the unfairness of this research, which partially presents itself to be a mini-evaluation of department of social work education in the University of Botswana. As stated earlier, social work education at the university is very recent. Hence, it might



de a bit too soon to expect everything to be well defined. However, since it is the training that informs practice, the incompatibility and the gap are real.

## 5.2 Constraints and Opportunities for Change

### Suggested Changes in Social Work Education

As stated in the earlier chapters, social work must have clarity of purpose grounded on what is seen as the domain of the profession. Therefore, social work curriculum endeavour must be premised on a clear vision of what the education must enable the graduates to achieve; then the courses will be designed to achieve these desired values of the profession.

It should be acknowledged from the outset that the social work graduates are employed by the agencies which require them to work within the confines of specific policies, mandates and practices. These agencies may not necessarily have an identical or even similar mission to the one cherished by the social work profession, and may not necessarily see the alleviation of poverty and other social hardships as their mandate. As one respondent pointed out, the structure of the government agencies, which are the biggest employers of the social workers is such that social work is not meant to alleviate the primary problems of poverty and underdevelopment.

Therefore, it would be very undesirable for social work education to be designed to enable the students only to meet the needs and interest of these agencies without much care to what the mission of the profession is.

Nevertheless, there are all indications that social work education in Botswana is limited in as far as it is organized around the individual casework approach. In the same vein, social work practice, especially within the government agency of S&CD, is limited to the provision of palliative and curative services. One educator has made it clear that:

*"If our conception is different from what the agencies see as the domain of social work; if me and you agree that the domain of social work among other things, is to alleviate poverty, then the university is not preparing the students to be able to deal with the problem of poverty alleviation."*

As a result of these sentiments changes in the social work education have been suggested.

Some of the teachers were quick to point out that a clear vision of what the role of social work should be in the lives of Botswana must be worked out and serve as a point of departure for the curriculum design.

The majority of the respondents, the workers, students and managers, are of the view that, notwithstanding the importance of theory in broadening the scope of thinking,

theory should not be the dominant factor in social work education. They feel that the practice methods courses should be emphasized to bring these theories to bear on the practical problems of the populations served by the graduates. As a result, a unanimous call has been made for more method courses to be incorporated into the training, including an increase in the hours set aside for field work. The totality of the responses in respect to this issue has been captured in the following quote from a worker:

*"Training needs to address the practical aspects of social work in Botswana.... Students need more time doing field work. They should spend about 1/4 of their time in class and 3/4 of the time in the field. Communication skills and assertiveness need to be addressed too. The university is training for a diverse field of practice, so, it must give generalist training with electives to allow students to be more proficient in their areas of interest."*

Whilst this statement may sound a bit overboard with regard to the time allocations between class work and field work, it shows the need for the training to be made more practice oriented.

In recognition of the need for the students to be equipped with intervention skills an educator commented: *"I would like us to have an extra one or two practice courses, and an extra field component."*

As well, the majority of the interviewed educators have expressed the need to have more content into the program,

especially skill development courses.

*"We need to have one term courses for the BSW so that we can have some additional content put in. We also need to have some specialized elective courses; and more hours of field work."*

The workers and students, as well as the managers have indicated the need for a shift in the emphasis or focus of training away from the individual casework method to the community oriented practice methods. However, they want it to maintain a generalist approach in order to take account of the practical imperatives in the field. One student blasted that: *"Training is not as generic as it should be. We end up doing only casework."*

Also stressing the need to balance out time for all the intervention methods in order to produce generalist workers, one of the graduates interviewed made a call that

*"All the methods of social work practice such as casework, community methods, group work, home economics, and other indirect methods of intervention must be taught; with special emphasis on the community intervention methods."*

Training the students to be generalist workers will give them the edge to be able to fit into the various social agencies, and the different practice situations. One educator pointed out that, for this to be possible:

*"The university must prepare the graduates to respond to the various problems which they are likely to face in the field, be they problems of poverty, bureaucracy*

*or ignorance with some degree of flexibility and spontaneity."*

Whilst the respondents in general feel that there is a need for training to shift the emphasis away from casework to an alternative approach relevant to Botswana, and whilst the majority of the respondents are of the view that counselling skills are not as important as the skills for meeting the basic needs, there are problems which some respondents believe need to be resolved through the provision of counselling services. As indicated earlier, this category of respondents are content with the training centering around casework. They have applied their knowledge to their practice situations with positive results.

Nevertheless, this group of respondents have expressed the need for their training in casework and counselling to be made more indigenous. As one of them pointed out; *"The training should be related to our social context. Examples must be drawn from the experiences of Botswana."* They believe that, for instance, some behaviours which social workers may want to deal with through counselling may be culturally explained. Hence, different approaches from those used in the West may be needed. In essence they are calling for the theory to be adapted to the local social and cultural conditions.

The faculty members interviewed regret that the current university structure allows only for the full year courses to be designed. They see this system to be an impediment as it does not allow for more content to be incorporated. According to them, this state of things does not auger well for the dynamic professions like social work.

The faculty members have also suggested that creative teaching needs to be part of the curriculum. *"We do not encourage creative learning; we make the students too passive to impart change in their work place."*

The other problem which has been mentioned as needing to be attended to is with regard to the social work teaching staff in the university. The respondents feel that for the standard of teaching to be improved significantly, more staff members need to be employed so that they each can carry a lighter course load, and so that the courses can be taught by people who are well versed in the subject areas. This will also solve the problem whereby the overwhelmed teachers end up spending more time in the courses which they are more comfortable with. Where possible the teachers must be recruited locally, from within the region and from the continent. This especially came from the workers and managers in the field. It particularly stemmed from the fact that during their training there was serious shortage of

staff; hence teachers were not necessarily experts on the subjects which they taught.

Social work education is relatively new in Botswana. As such, it has not caught up with many employees of the social work agencies in the country. For this reason, the respondents believe that social work education should be carried beyond the walls of the class room. The Professors recognized this fact too, as one of them noted:

*"There is not enough in the class room that we can teach the students and make them effect change in the field. We need to work closer with the social work agencies to help them create the climate that is conducive to the implementation of what we teach. That includes working with government committees and availing our selves for workshops and short courses."*

This means that, assuming that what is taught is what is needed, the extent to which it can be implemented will be limited and almost impossible if the attitude in the agencies is not supportive. If the level of comprehension and appreciation of what the graduates know is inadequate, and if the agency policies are not affected to accommodate the newly acquired knowledge and skills the inconsistency will always exist.

This is a particularly important point to note because the orientation that the university of Botswana is trying to move away from is the same orientation around which the agency interventions are organized. If the university

succeeds in its endeavour but the agency practices and worker's mandate remain unaffected, the gap between training and practice will be immense.

Organizational Constraints:

The appropriateness of training to the problems that the social workers are faced with in their field of practice does not entirely depend on how well the training has been conducted. The employing agencies must have conducive atmospheres for the implementation of what has been learnt.

As one of the respondents note:

*"The adequacy or inadequacy of training may not be exactly tested in our situation because the students go out into the field only to do what is offered in the agencies. Even if the students were given the skills 100%, they would still not test them out because they may not be mandated to deal with the problems the way they would want to deal with them as social workers."*

The respondents have been asked questions relating to the constraints within the organizational context which may inhibit the implementation of what has been learnt during training, and hence contribute to the hypothesised gap between social work education and practice realities in Botswana.

To this end, the respondents have generated a list of the factors which they deem limiting to the applicability of the graduate's learning. These included:

1. The policies and service provision are inadequate. That



is, the problems are too widespread and extensive for the available interventions. For instance, according to the respondents, the Destitute Policy is very limited in coverage. This view is particularly held by workers and students who see poverty as the main task of social work in their agency. The workers experience the feelings of helplessness when they are confronted with the realities of the needy families and individuals, and they cannot offer any meaningful assistance. According to them, often, the number of the people who can be assisted in any given financial year is predetermined through a ceiling imposed by the political decision makers. Hence, for the majority of the destitute Batswana there are no services available.

With regard to the problem of juvenile delinquency, the only service available is counselling. The majority of the respondents have argued that delinquent behaviour in the children and youth is mostly a result of the want of material things. Regrettably, the provision of material needs is not part of the intervention strategy for this problem.

Some students and workers believe that juvenile delinquency is independent of poverty, and can be dealt with through counselling. However, even these respondents think that counselling needs to be augmented by additional or

alternative services including rehabilitation programs and recreational facilities for the children. The Children's Act, which is a relic of the British policies of the 1940s or so, is not backed by any resources. A worker asserted that

*"One thing that makes people to resign is the feeling of powerlessness where there are just no resources in the face of mounting unemployment, poverty and suffering."*

2. The resources are insufficient even where the policy and resource entitlement exist. This relates particularly to the destitute assistance of food worth P76.00 and P60.00 per month in the rural and urban areas respectively. What depresses the workers even the most is the fact that the policy entitlements take no consideration of the family size as it only talks about the registered destitute. Usually the head of the family is registered as such.

3. The agency infrastructure is underdeveloped. This is one of the major constraints in the agency. The workers have complained that the S&CD within the local administration is given the lowest priority when it comes to the allocation of the needed infrastructure such as office space. The situation is worse in some rural areas where sometimes the workers have to share small office spaces with people in other departments because they do not have offices of their own.

Their work is also stifled by the lack of transport and telecommunication system. This problem is excessive in, but not confined to, the rural areas. A worker in the situation said: "Once you are in here, you are cut from the rest of the world; unless someone comes by and gives you a lift." She added that to get to the nearest telephone one has to walk a long distance. This results in serious lack of motivation for the workers.

The problem of shortage of man power has been cited as a big constraint to the performance of the graduates. A manager asserted that:

*"The shortage of manpower is a serious problem in this agency as a whole. The problem is immense in the rural areas where one person may be responsible for up to five villages with inadequate transport, and where the facilities are undeveloped."*

The manager added that the level of frustration is compounded by the fact that social workers have to work in the most remote areas where they may be the only people with any university qualifications at all.

4. Field staff, i.e., social work supervisory and management staff are bureaucratic. The workers and the students (who have worked) resent that everything they do has to be censored from their district's main office, and has to be done only in the way which is familiar and acceptable to their supervisors. The lower officers complained that this

stifles their creativity and erodes their sense of worth as part of the agency.

The workers have also talked about their frustration at their lack of discretionary powers in spite of the fact that most of the time, especially in the rural areas, they work alone in geographic areas far from their supervisors. A worker recounted how he was castigated for taking a decision with the community, regarding a community project, before seeking permission from his supervisor who was about 100 km away. The workers lament that this lack of discretionary powers is also very limiting to their creativity and the extent to which they can apply what they have learnt.

5. The attitudes of supervisory/management staff are not conducive to the implementation of the learned knowledge. This issue is a very emotional one for the workers and the students interviewed. One worker commented that *"The main problem in this agency is that the graduates get very little assistance or cooperation from their supervisors."* Another one, while acknowledging other constraints, hastened to add:

*"But the biggest constraint is management. Sometimes I wonder why I am here. I am extremely frustrated by always being criticized for everything I do to do."*

There is a general feeling that the agency supervisors are out to frustrate the efforts of the graduates. This is a

result of the mistrust that seems to be prevailing. "They are so protective of themselves as if they feel we are trying to prove them wrong." One of the respondents echoed that:

*"The supervisors in the S&CD have a fear emanating from the mistrust that the graduates have come to unseat them from the top positions in the agency. They feel intimidated and inadequate."*

Hence, they want to demonstrate that they are in control. In the process they close out new ideas which may threaten the old but stable order, resulting in the marginalization of the graduates.

6. Another constraint that workers cited is the differences in orientation when colleagues are either untrained or are from different disciplines. This according to the workers, is problematic because these co-workers may have a different understanding and appreciation of problems. Their view of their role in the agency and to their clients may also be different from that of their trained counterparts. These differences may affect the extent to which the implementation of the learned knowledge is enhanced or inhibited.

The situation is worse when the supervisors or managers are untrained or have insufficient training in social work. In most instances the managers are from the old school or from no school. The old school orientated its graduates only to

*boipelego*. The managers and supervisors are usually grown up people who have gone up the structures of the agency through experience and long service. As such the workers complained that often times their supervisors cannot offer skills enhancement supervision; they cannot diagnose and coach performance problems, or address questions arising from policy inadequacies with any professional tone.

It is equally frustrating to the workers that some managers are unwilling to accommodate new ideas. They are not only capable of giving unprofessional and sometimes capricious instructions, but they also have the power to enforce them. As a result, there is general lack of the necessary commitment to the values and aspirations of social work. The respondents resent this resistance to change;

*"Again the S&CD does not grow and improve: As the problems have become more sophisticated and need different approaches, we are sticking to Boipelego."*

However, I should point out that, while these responses and observations are common in most interviews, some respondents have communicated that cordial relationship and mutual understanding existed between them and their supervisors.

7. The agency lacks purpose and direction, and its mandate is not clear or understood. Even the managers realize this as one of them commented: *"There is a lack of clarity of what social workers are doing. We are expected to be jack of*

*all trades.*" The examples that he gave as trivializing the work of social workers included doing casual work e.g. in preparations for a minister's visit or during national events and celebrations. This state of things has been resented by many respondents who observed that while this was an integral part of *boipelego*, maintaining it as part of the job for social workers is undermining the integrity of the social work profession.

The respondents also derive the conclusion that social work practice lacks clarity of purpose from their observation that not only policy decisions but also operational decisions are dictated by people who are motivated by ideological thinking which does not necessarily enhance the mission of social work. As such, they say: "*Social work in Botswana is not about change. It is not about improvement of life either.*" This suggests that it is primarily about political appeasement. In this regard, social workers are seen to be acting as the cooling agents of the state. That is, the social workers are used by the state to shift the blame for human impoverishment and suffering away from the structural causes to the individual victims of deprivation, and to manipulate the poor into accepting the individual maladjustment thesis.

8. Another critical factor which has been identified as undermining the effort to bridge the gap between social work training and practice is the lack of involvement of social workers in the formulation of the policies that affect them and their clients. Most of the respondents have suggested that the problem of poverty cannot only be addressed through direct intervention methods without major restructuring at policy level. The respondents feel that without policy endeavour being made part of the social worker's mandate, their effort to contribute meaningfully to the solution of their client's problems will be futile.

*"Social workers can only have an influence in the alleviation of poverty and the accompanying problems if they have a say in policy at the design stage."*

According to the respondents, the lack of participation by social workers at policy level has been exacerbated by the fragmentation of the policy formulation functions which directly influence the day to day work of the social workers between the various government units and departments. For instance, the Social Welfare Unit (administrative unit) which is under the ministry of Home Affairs has the charge of policies which are implemented by the S&CD under the Ministry of Local Government, Lands and Housing. The drafting of the Youth Policy which is currently underway, is taking place under the auspices of the Ministry of Home Affairs. The implementation will in most part be carried out by the S&CD. As a result, policy design efforts are



structurally divorced from the social workers who are implementing these policies under the Ministry of Local Government.

Some of the constraints cited above may sound trivial and unworthy of inclusion in this paper. However, it is their very nature that trivialises and vilifies the social work profession in a very damaging way. They need to be highlighted in order that they can be included in the cleansing operation plan which needs to be put in place.

Further, most of the constraints mentioned above amplify the gap between social work training and practice in Botswana. Therefore, deliberate effort has to be made to rectify at least a good number of these organizational malfunctions if social work education and practice are to benefit from each other.

#### Suggested Changes in the Organizational Context

It is generally expected that upon graduation people will be able to produce visible result based solely on the quality of their training. However, a word of caution has been given by one of the respondents that:

*"It is necessary to note that there is a general fallacy whereby it is believed that social work training will necessarily enable the graduates to impart change. They may not have the capacity to impart what they have learnt because of the lack of resources, incompatible attitude in the agency or the lack of*

*political will on the part of the authorities."*

Based on the constraining factors cited above, and on the cautionary statements like the one just above, the respondents have given suggestions which not only seek to address the gap between training and practice, but also to address the most compelling problems of the social work clients in a meaningful way. The suggested changes are with regard to policy development, infrastructure development and changes at the operational level.

**Policy development:**

The respondents have called for policy and structural changes which will enable the graduates to fulfil their professional responsibility of improving the lives of their clients. One respondent stressed:

*"There needs to be a major change in government policy regarding the distribution of resources. There is too much emphasis on economic development which only benefits the rich, and no effort to help the rural communities improve their standards of living..."*

The existing policies such as the Destitute Policy and the Children's Act which are in place to deal with the problems of poverty and children's/youth problems respectively are seen not only to be extremely limited but also out of step with time. Many of the workers have complained that *"The Destitute policy and Children's Act which we use as our guide for practice are outdated and need to be reviewed."*

Some workers have charged that these policies have been copied from other countries and are failing to address the problems of Batswana. Therefore, they suggested that replacement policies need to be worked out with the maximum possible input from the local people.

For the envisaged policies to bear on the problems of the social work clients, greater involvement of social workers in the formulation process is required. That is, the mandate of the social workers must be expanded to include policy responsibilities. The involvement of the social workers is expected to improve the fit between policy formation and implementation. This of course is based on the assumption that social work education will equip the graduates with the necessary knowledge and skills to play this role.

Greater involvement of the social workers in policy formulation means that the consultation machinery within the agency and between the agency and the relevant government ministries must be improved. On the issue of the fragmentation of the social policy responsibilities among the different government ministries and departments, the respondents have called for the constellation of these fragments under one ministry. Again, this view is held by the majority of respondents including managers and educators. One educator commented:

*"Government institutions have to be reorganized so that we can have a ministry which will have both the policy formulation and implementation responsibilities. This move will be more convenient, efficient, and effective."*

The respondents have challenged the government through its agencies, to develop comprehensive policies and programs which not only provide handouts but also promise to bring lasting solutions of poverty and other concomitant problems. To this end, the respondents in all the categories have pointed out that the Youth Policy is long overdue. According to the respondents this would set government agencies on the road to confront the people's problems at an earlier stage, hence avoiding the high price paid through human suffering for the neglect of this responsibility.

Still on the question of policy development, the majority of workers who feel that the problems of their clients are caused by structural defects rather than self-inflicted have made suggestions which are more of the verbal reflections of their envisaged broad policy directions. Their suggestions in this regard are presented below:

As hinted earlier, the workers have cautioned against the tendency to regard handouts as the end results of the intervention. They stated their favour of an assistance package which people will take advantage of, build upon and

move themselves out of poverty. In this respect the government, through the S&CD will be a facilitator in the process of achieving familial self reliance. A worker commented:

*"The agency must play a facilitating role. We must work with these people and engage them in income generating activities in order to help them to rehabilitate economically at the community level."*

Some have suggested small income projects like gardening. Yet others, also showing discontentment with food rationing as a strategy to deal with poverty think that:

*"These problems can only be solved at governmental level through the government's commitment to the creation of employment in both the urban and the rural areas."*

According to the respondents, this will elevate people from the state of beggary to self sufficiency.

Those workers who hold fast to the belief that most juvenile delinquent instances are directly linked to poverty in the respective homes are of the view that

*"In order to solve or alleviate the problem of juvenile delinquency we need to deal with the problem of poverty and ignorance in the homes. We cannot hope to impact upon this problem by dealing with the individual children through counselling."*

The above comments are reverberations of one and the same message that the agency interventions in respect of poverty and juvenile delinquency should be aimed at restoring the families' control over the situations.

Consequently, according to the workers, the response to the problems of social work clients in Botswana has to be family oriented and have the community as a support base. That is, any assistance that is given to families which are in poverty has to be aimed at strengthening these families economically in order that they can take more responsibility for their members.

To this end, the respondents point out that there is a need for a support system for the elderly, the disabled and the children, which will be based on need and will be subject to a means test. The emphasis is on the support to be given within the family.

The workers in the field as well as the students (who have worked) have tried to battle with the idea of institutionalization which they derived from the examples from the West cited during their training, and also derived from the statutes such as the Children's Act of 1981. Whilst these may be regarded as fears emanating from the respondents' mere imaginations, they should be considered as cautionary against the destructive tendency to ignore some very important ethos of Botswana as a people. The conclusion reached is their opposition to the idea of widespread institutionalization of the children, the disabled or the elderly, and they say that all the assistance that is

necessary to sustain this segment of the population should be offered within the institution of the family and in the community.

Further, the respondents are adamant that some assistance packages such as the old age pensions, disability allowance and child care programs can go a long way to enable the families to fulfil the inalienable obligation of caring for their less advantaged members. One student, commenting about the care of the people in need and encouraging the utilization of the extended family system said that in the absence of the nuclear family members:

*"There are always some distant family members who are willing to act out of compassion, goodwill or sense of duty to take care of the orphaned children or the elderly relatives."*

However, she observed that the economic implications of this well intended action deter a majority of the people to act on these convictions. Hence the government is called upon to play its part in this endeavour and assist the families financially.

With reference to the children in need of care, the majority of the workers and students also say that the extended family system should be utilized to the fullest possible extent. They are against the removal of the children from their families and community, warning that:

*"The bond between the children and their parents or*

*other members of their families is very important and must be protected. We must have a child welfare system that seeks to enhance the ability of families to care for their children."*

However, the institutionalized care of the children might be necessary in rare cases; for instance, where a parent who did not have other relatives dies and no member of the community is willing to care for his/her children. They may be sent to an orphanage pending their adoption. There is also a forecasted possible need for orphanages created by the AIDS epidemic. However, the central concern is that the removal of the children from their families and community should be considered as the last resort.

There is a recognition that some individuals in the community may need more individualized interventions, eg the elderly who have lost contact with their relatives and the children who are unattached. A worker in an urban area said:

*"This is a metropolitan area in which people from all directions and origins are found. Some of them left their places of origin long ago and they have lost touch with their relatives. As a result, there are the elderly people who do not have close relatives to care for them. We need to have nursing homes for them where they can be properly cared for."*

An experiment in Francistown, one of the oldest towns in Botswana, may be regarded as indicative of the need for such nursing homes in the country, especially in the urban areas. Four residential houses have been constructed at two



different locations in the town, each house with three rooms (i.e., 12 rooms). According to the source, these residential houses were built through the joint effort of the municipal authorities and private donations. The residences care for the needy elderly people aged 60 years and over, and are maintained by the municipality through the S&CD. The residents are given all the necessary care including bathing, feeding and general hygiene. The fact that the residences are fully occupied all year round, and the possibility that more and more people are being turned back, is a living proof that this is an essential and probably overdue service for the unattached elderly people.

Whilst these services are obviously needed for some elderly persons, the general feeling is that, they should not be used in a way as to encourage the dereliction of the elderly by family members. Only on rare and special circumstances should institutional care be considered for the elderly people with families.

Other contingency plans and actions have been embarked upon by the local authorities in many parts of the country to alleviate the problem of destitution and homelessness. Towns such as Lobatse, and villages such as Serowe for example, have houses which are occupied by the destitute individuals and families. For instance, in Francistown, separate from

the nursing homes for the elderly which have been talked about, there are two roomed houses on 8 different lots (16 rooms) to be used for this purpose. These were also built through the joint effort of the municipal authorities and private donations, and they are administered or run by the S&CD.

A respondent in one of the S&CD offices in Gaborone said that the agency had 16 rooms in her area of operation. The rooms were occupied by families; one family to a room. One important fact to note is that these rooms are occupied by families and not individuals. The worker asserted that

*"The largest family that we have in one of the rooms has 9 members. .... This is supposed to be a temporary assistance pending the identification of other alternatives; but most of the families stay in the houses as their permanent homes."*

For the large families, tents are usually provided where possible in addition to the one room.

Based on the fact that the effort to secure funding to build shelters to house the destitute is a continuous one, the numbers of houses and rooms quoted above may be inaccurate. Furthermore, these facilities may be existent in other parts of the country not mentioned or which were not visited for the purpose of this research.

However, the bottom line is that the examples given above signify a need. The fact that most of the available facilities are used by big families point to the fact that it is the families and not the individuals who should be the focus of social work attention. The findings point to the need for the more family oriented interventions which go beyond the palliative services currently in the offering.

### **Changes at the Operational Level**

In the discussion of the organizational constraints above, the state of qualifications of agency employees, unfavourable attitudes of the agency staff and the unfavourable operational environment at large featured prominently as some of the factors which are inhibiting to the usefulness of the graduates both to the agency and to their clients. A number of suggestions have been made to correct this situation and create conducive climate for the graduates.

The respondents have stressed the importance of the agency employing qualified social workers instead of people from other disciplines. A manager suggested that to enforce this

*"The agency should have a policy which will prevent the employees from obtaining further education in disciplines other than social work, unless if they want to go on transfer after the training."*

According to her, this will ensure a cordial working relationship in the agency because people will have the same

orientation.

Talking about the quality of staff, one respondent said:

*"I feel that we are failing as professionals to work change into our agency. We need to take the initiative. For this to happen, people at the supervisory and management levels must have training in social work."*

This is supposed to reduce the alleged rivalry between the graduates and their untrained supervisors. Another respondent pondered the same point:

*"The supervisory and management staff must be people who have some training in social work. Lest there will always be rivalry between the graduates and management with the result that any initiatives from the graduates will be frustrated."*

The teachers have also demonstrated their belief that they have a role to play in the improvement of the working conditions in the agencies where their graduates work. This will benefit them in that they will not only gauge their success as trainers by the numbers of graduates they have produced but also by how much their graduates become useful once they are in the field. Hence throughout this report they have communicated their sense of duty to their graduates and the profession:

*"Those in the top management who do not have the relevant training must be assisted to deal with their feeling of insecurity by providing training for them to update them on the new developments and knowledge in social work theory and practice."*

Again, this is based on the assumption that the theory and the practice models are relevant to the problems of the

communities served.

Another teacher added that:

*"It is important for the university to have extension courses to enable the people who are at the top of the S&CD ranks who do not have social work training to be orientated to social work issues, values and practices. This will make them appreciate the value of the contributions from the graduates."*

The teachers have the opportunity to do community education through activities such as presenting papers at workshops, organizing supervisors' workshops (for agency staff who supervise social work students), and through participation in the various community and government committees.

It is believed that if the social work education is extended to the employees of the social work agencies through the various methods, the spirit of professionalism will be instilled in the agency personnel and a conducive working environment will be created for the graduates.

This might also benefit the faculty as it might have to expand its services to cater for the increased need for trained social workers which they will have helped create.

However, there are counter arguments about the need for managers to be trained social workers. Whilst most respondents interviewed are agreed that the grassroots workers and their supervisors need to be qualified social workers, some respondents do not think that managers

necessarily have to be trained social workers. Some qualifications may be more important; for example, demonstrated administration abilities in a social service agency.

### 5.3 Conclusion

In this chapter the data pertaining to the hypothesised gap between social work education and practice in Botswana have been presented and analyzed. The majority of the respondents have identified poverty and juvenile delinquency as the first and the second biggest problems respectively which social workers in the country are dealing with. The data confirm the central hypothesis that there is a gap between social work education and practice in Botswana. The gap appears at two levels. First, it is between social work education and social work practice. Second, where consistency between training and practice exists, the gap is between both training and practice on the one hand and the work which ought to be done to address especially poverty on the other. However, in the areas where poverty is not the major problem, there is consistency between training and practice.

The respondents are unanimously agreed that the interventions that the S&CD has in place to deal with poverty/destitution are not appropriate. Numerous reasons

have been given including the failure of the interventions to rehabilitate the people and put them in a position where they can take control of their lives and situations. The respondents believe that the problems are too widespread and complicated to be solved through the provision of handouts and counselling. Also, the majority of the people who have identified juvenile delinquency as the second problem have attributed it to poverty, and they think that their agency intervention is not appropriate. In this connection, the gap that exists may not necessarily be attributed to the inadequacies of training, but to the inappropriately designed job, insufficiently developed infrastructure and insufficient understanding of the nature of social work.

Almost half (48%) of the workers interviewed think that social work education that they have received is not appropriate for the purpose of dealing with the widespread problem of economic impoverishment. They blame the inappropriateness on the orientation of their training around casework because they do not believe that their client's problems are psychological. Therefore, they suggest that a different frame of reference has to be found for social work training in the country.

On the other hand, another 48% of the respondents think that their training was appropriate. Some of these respondents

have said that their training was appropriate in the same sense as their intervention strategy was seen as appropriate, both of which are based on casework. Most of them believe that the provision of counselling is adequate to solve the problem of poverty. They believe that poverty is self inflicted through unwillingness to work. The narrow mindedness and the lack of analytical ability which have been communicated here only put social work education in further disrepute.

It has also been shown that some of the people who praise their training have demonstrated inflexibility in their approach to solving the identified problem of poverty. They insist on doing casework and complain of misplacement in their agencies. Their failure to realize that what they have learned might be inconsistent with the work which ought to be done indicates the lack of professional judgement, which strongly implies some deficiencies in their training. The lack of a connecting framework may also be responsible for the inability of graduates to make a relationship between the various courses they took during training and to apply the knowledge in the field. Training which sometimes only prepared students to pass examinations without stimulating their thinking. Therefore, training may need to be strengthened.



Only 5 of the 30 workers interviewed have identified juvenile delinquency and other intrafamily problems as the most prevalent in their areas of operation and they think that counselling is appropriate. As well, they think their training was appropriate for the purpose of dealing with the problem.

Only 33% of the workers who identified juvenile delinquency as second after poverty are of the view that their training was proper because of its orientation toward casework. The majority (56%) do not think that the training was appropriate for them to solve the problem of youth delinquency. They think they discussed too much abnormal psychological theories and were not enabled to deal proficiently with youth delinquency.

The department of social work in the University of Botswana has realized the existence of the gap and have since begun to work at bridging it. This has been communicated by the educators who indicated that they are relentlessly working at identifying an alternative approach which will be more appropriate for the local practice demands.

On a different note, we have to give due recognition to the fact that it might be too early to expect a full shift to have been achieved already. Changes and improvements cannot

be made instantly, but over some period of time. In the mean time the gap between social work training and the practice realities lingers on.

The data have also revealed some limitations in the social policies which social workers implement. The biggest factor which is inhibiting in the process of implementing these policies is the lack of participation by social workers in their development. In this respect, the gap is exacerbated by the limited mandate that the workers have. The essence here is that even if the training was appropriate, it would not be applied due to the limited mandate of the workers.

## CHAPTER 6

### RECOMMENDATIONS

The analysis of the data in respect to this research reveals a variety of factors which contribute significantly to the gap which exists between social work education and social work practice in Botswana. The task now is to find ways of bridging the identified gap in order to make social work education and practice benefit each other as well as the clients of social work. To this end, some recommendations will be made pertaining to the problematic areas in dealing with the identified problems.

It is important to note that whilst most of the recommendations derive from the data analysis, some are influenced by the literature reviewed as well as by my own knowledge of the conditions of practice in Botswana. My ideological inclination for a social justice model may also have some impact. The recommendations are directed to areas of agency interventions and working conditions, social policy development and social work education.

#### **Agency Interventions and Working conditions**

1. The focus of the S&CD interventions with regard to poverty need to change from the individual to the family and the community. This is important because this research has shown that the majority of the registered destitute share

their benefits with their families, and hence the assistance is never sufficient. For example, the shelters which the agency has in some towns and villages are not occupied by individuals but by families. This will harmonize the relationship between practice and the new focus of social work training which is community oriented.

2. Youth delinquency as well as other intrafamily problems may have origins which are more complicated than they appear on the face value. Whilst in many instances a link can be made between these problems and poverty, the results of this research have shown that poverty cannot always be held accountable. As such, a wide spectrum of direct and indirect interventions, and prevention strategies need to be worked out. Prevention needs to be a top priority, and families and communities to be empowered to take more control of their welfare.

3. The insufficient infrastructure development which inhibits the social workers to put into use the knowledge, skills and abilities acquired during training, and to play part in the solution of their client's problems needs to be addressed as a matter of urgency. This includes the shortage of office space, transportation, communication system and other utilities.

4. Sufficient numbers of qualified social workers must be employed to enable the workers to carry out their mandate with the least amount of stress. This way the workers will be able to be thorough in their work to maximize the benefits to the people they serve. Nevertheless, familiarity and sympathy with the concerns of social work may be necessary.

However, whilst it is important for grassroots workers and supervisors in the S&CD to have training in social work, it might not be necessarily important for the managers to be qualified social workers.

5. The agency service delivery system must be culturally sensitive. That is, the intervention strategies must respect and protect the cultural values of Batswana such as the family. This should be reflected in the intervention strategies of the agency.

#### **Policy Development**

6. On a larger scale, the economic independence of families and communities can be achieved and sustained through government's commitment to employment creation. The government must attract business to the rural areas where 80% of the people live. It is extremely important that the government must take responsibility to provide the

infrastructure needed by prospective investors and business people, such as electricity, telecommunication system and roads in the rural areas. It has been proven by research done on this issue that private business is unwilling to provide the infrastructure because of the costs involved.

It is possible for the government to actively partake in employment creation. However, because of the De Beers Mining Company's monopoly over the diamond market, nationalization of diamonds might be too risky. That being the case, effort needs to be concentrated in increasing the share of the local people in the diamond industry; for example though their involvement in the production of finished diamond goods. Employment creation is also possible in the textile and other manufacturing industries. This will bring visible qualitative changes in the lives of Batswana.

7. To curtail the lack of fit between social policy formulation and implementation social workers must be involved in the process of policy formulation. That is, the participation of social workers at the policy design stage should be a requirement for the very process of social policy formulation. This will not only ascertain that the interests of the social work clients are considered more intensely, but will also ensure that the possible logistical difficulties are addressed. This of course will require that

at least the BSW graduates should possess policy development and advocacy skills so that these learned skills and knowledge will be utilised fruitfully.

8. Comprehensive policies are required to meaningfully address the identified problems of poverty, youth delinquency and other resulting problems. The current Destitute Policy and the Children's Act have failed to address these problems. Therefore, they must be replaced with policies which have a clear vision of what they want to achieve. This will ensure that the efforts of social workers to improve life is not an illusion.

The envisioned Children's Act must be realistic and have adequate entitlements aimed at restoring and/or strengthening the family's capability to give proper care to the children. The fine details cannot be worked into this paper but, in addition to having adequate entitlements, the policy must clearly spell out the rights of the children and the responsibility of both the maternal and paternal parents (married or not) to the children.

Pertaining to destitution and income insecurity, an income maintenance policy for the elderly and the disabled is well over- due. This policy should have adequate entitlements and must be based on a relaxed needs test to ensure that only

and all the people who need the support will get it.

In doing this it must be recognized that a small minority of people will need a more individualized (institutional) care. For example, the elderly people who have lost contact with their relatives, orphans without guardians and the unattached children. Provisions must be made for these instances, but access should be subject to thorough screening to ensure the maximum use of the family and community as the support base and context for interventions.

Numerous calls have been made in different forums and in the various reports produced before for a Youth Policy to be designed to address the youth problems which are threatening to engulf the country. Since this issue resurfaced over and over in this research, the call is repeated once more. This policy is important to guide the proactive efforts of social workers and other professionals in dealing with the youth problems.

9. The people must be empowered economically to take charge of their own lives. While it is important to have monthly income assistance for the families in need, there is an inherent danger in regarding handouts as the end results of government intervention. Therefore, more people-oriented economic development activities must be embarked upon to



achieve the ultimate goal of familial self reliance. This may include engaging community groups and syndicates in a variety of income generating projects.

10. A comprehensive Housing Policy is necessary to address the acute need for accommodation which the S&CD is trying to deal with throughout the country. The policy should aim to alleviate this problem through the provision of houses in the urban and rural areas. New package may have to be worked out for the rural areas. However, the existing programs such as the Self Help Housing Agency (SHHA) may need to be modified to benefit the rural areas as well. The government sponsored Botswana Housing Corporation is charged with the provision of housing, but at present its services are limited to the urban areas and the rentals are exorbitant.

#### **Social Work Education**

Recommendations may not be easy to make for improvements in social work education because of the complexities of training, which are compounded by the diversity of interests that the department of social work in the University of Botswana has to serve. However, based on the data collected broad suggestions can be made:

11. A conceptual framework needs to be found to guide social work education away from casework around which it has been organized since its inception. This will be in keeping with the findings of this research that social casework is failing to address the problems which are brought about by economic deprivation. Chan (1985, p.36), expressing doubts about the capability of casework to deal with the problems of the developing countries states:

*"If counselling succeeds in persuading an unemployed client to accept his or her lot in life, its value is clearly of a narrow and not altogether positive kind."*

Hence, an appropriate focus for social work education is needed; and a clear focus of training will determine the role that social work plays in the lives of their clients.

12. Despite the long and tedious process of finding an appropriate focus for social work training which is in progress in the University of Botswana, I recommend the **community-based social justice approach**. This model will provide a common ground for all the contesting ideas in the ongoing debate. The focus and emphasis of social work education and practice in Botswana should be the attainment of *social justice*. In working towards this primary goal, *social change* becomes an imperative necessity. The *community* should then provide the context within which greater social justice is achieved. In my view, social justice, social change and community are the three interrelated and

crucially important concepts which need to be meshed to develop a solid and comprehensive frame for social work education and practice in Botswana.

Social justice relates to the socio-economic conditions of all the citizens. It addresses questions of equitable distribution of resources. Morton (1985, p.1) refers to distributive justice, which "centres on the fairness of the distribution of the conditions and goods that affect individual's well-being". Well-being here is used broadly to include its psychological, physiological, economic and social aspects. Therefore, the ultimate objective of social work education in Botswana should be to enable the graduates to bring about and promote sustained improvement in the well-being of the individuals, families and of the community at large.

Social change is necessary to allow for the process of bestowing of benefits on all people. The notion of social change should not be misconstrued to suggest that social workers should cushion the effects of the poorly planned rapid economic growth through ameliorative services such as counselling to "help" the victims to adjust to their problems. Social change as used here connotes quantitative and qualitative structural transformation of institutions (economic, political and social) that affect individual's

functioning within the community.

Social restructuring is a political endeavour since it seeks to change the structures which were created through political processes. As such, political action must be seen as an important part of social work professional function. This calls for the social work education to enable graduates to handle this politically charged aspect of their work.

A community which is based on social justice is that whose social institutions are designed to optimally benefit individuals in the community equitably. According to Bender (1978) the word community has quite positive connotations that are associated with visions of good life. However, this vision is being eroded by planning which lacks sensitivity to the needs of the community.

It is recognised that social workers, especially in Botswana are public officers and as such they are expected to implement the policies of their political masters, and not engage in political activity against those policies (Jones, 1990). Nonetheless, social work education will serve no good purpose if it instils in the graduates the feeling that they are helpless to deal with the structurally created problems of their clients, such as poverty.

I have to acknowledge that this puts social work educators and practitioners in a precarious situation, given the economic and political thinking of the day. Teachings and practices that explicitly seek to achieve social justice and social change as understood in this paper will be seen negatively as anti-government and may result in undesired consequences for the profession and the professionals. This is a practical dilemma which social work practitioners and educators will have to contend with in Botswana as they do elsewhere. Therefore, ways need to be found to minimize these possible side effects of the community grounded social justice approach.

Larochelle and Campfens (1992) suggest that social work methodology courses should enable the students to gain substantive analytical knowledge to respond appropriately to the socioeconomic realities of their future clients. The notion of community grounded social justice should gradually and incrementally be worked into the curriculum.

At practice level the task of the workers will be to empower the people to get their share out of the national pie; to equip the communities with organizing skills, negotiating skills and analytical skills so that they can carry on the struggle to improve their own lives. Empowerment also means helping people to rethink and reconceptualize their role in

their self-improvement, in prevention and in providing support for each other. The workers will not necessarily be engaged in confrontational activism, but will be educating the communities in their day to day work situation.

The embracing of the community grounded social justice approach is also possible because passage of time will play its role. As the *boipelego* batch of workers and supervisors fades away through retirement and promotional transfers, more university graduates will take up positions of responsibility in the S&CD and a change in attitude will be witnessed, which will be conducive to social justice. Numerous other ways can be identified in response to experiences from practice; but the key is gradualism and incrementalism.

13. The training must aim to produce generalist practitioners. This means that it has to inculcate in the students a dynamic way of thinking so that they can make appropriate professional judgements for social work in Botswana. This will enhance the graduates' versatility to fit in a range of practice situations, and to perform a variety of tasks; for example empowerment, education, facilitation, brokering, advocacy, counselling, research and policy development, to mention but a few (Hutton, 1994).

14. In the effort to rework the curriculum, the department of social work needs to recognize the importance of maintaining adequate balance between methods training and practice experience on the one hand and theoretical content as well as content from other social sciences on the other hand. "Where more theory than practice is taught, more prejudice against social work practice and methods is communicated." (Speigel and Wegner, 1989, p. 132). However, the content taught must be relevant to the local socio-economic and cultural conditions of Batswana.

15. It may be necessary to introduce half courses, especially at degree level, in order that more content can be incorporated into the curriculum. This will allow for the students to deal with more social work issues than they currently can. Coverage of more content in training will earn the graduates the leverage to comprehend their broad social environment and to handle the various problems of their clients.

16. A more broadly based research on the question of fit between social work education and social work practice may need to be done in order that a multi-faceted approach can be adopted to address the various gaps which may have not been uncovered by this research.

## THESIS SUMMARY

This report has investigated the existence of a gap between social work education and social work practice in Botswana. The paper starts from the standpoint that the methods of social work practice as well as education in the Third World countries are failing to address the problems that the social workers in these countries are dealing with. The literature surveyed shows that the social work intervention methods and theories which are used in these countries have been imported or borrowed from the developed countries of the West, which are mostly the former colonizers. Since social work is a people oriented profession, the intervention methods which are divorced from the socio-economic, cultural and political conditions of the society in which it is practiced will not serve a very good purpose.

The report has looked at the political economy of Botswana and noted that over the years after independence Botswana experienced accelerated economic growth which was matched by no other country in Africa. On a positive note Botswana deserves credit for the provision of basic services such as basic education, primary health services and safe water supplies, which are accessible to a majority of Botswana.

The political economy has been examined in as far as it directly affects the clients of social work. The literature



in this connection suggests that the political and economic philosophical positions of the day are not sensitive to the plight of the disadvantaged majority of Batswana. There has been some bias in the distribution of resources in favour of the rich people against the poor. Growing unemployment and the absence of any substantive effort to counter its effects account for the extent and depth of poverty which is affecting a majority of the population. Women, youth and minority groups like Basarwa are most disfavoured.

The analysis of the data in respect of this research indicates that the major problem identified by social workers in Botswana is poverty or destitution. The accompanying problems include inadequate shelter, squalid shanty neighbourhoods, landlessness, malnutrition, poor school attendance, early school dropout and ignorance. The respondents cited youth delinquency as the second biggest problem that social workers have to assist the communities to deal with. This problem has been linked to the major problem of poverty.

The interventions that the S&CD has in place have been found not to be appropriate for the purpose of the identified problems which are too overwhelming to be addressed through the casework method. Generally, the social work education in the country is also not favoured as appropriate to enable

the graduates to proficiently address the identified problems. Like practice, training has been organized around the individual casework method. Whilst the education and practice may be supportive of each other at some point because of their common orientation, they are failing to address the problems of the down trodden clients of social work whose conditions are seen to originate largely from structural inadequacies rather than their own maladjustment.

There is a need for both social work practice and training to shift their focus away from casework. Social work educators are already addressing these inadequacies by searching for an appropriate focus or frame of reference. The government needs to address the policy inadequacies rather than attempt to deal with the deep seated problems of massive poverty and youth problems through the provision of handouts and counselling.

APPENDICES

A. Interview guides:

- (a) Workers
- (b) Students
- (c) Managers
- (d) Educators

B. The 1992/1993 course offerings for the degree and diploma programs.

Appendix A: Interview Guide

(a) INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR WORKERS

A. Background Information.

1. For how long have you worked for the S& C.D.?
2. At what capacity are you currently working?
3. For how long have you worked in your geographic area?
4. What social level of work training do you have?  
CSW DSW BSW

B. Social Work Practice and Your Training

5. (a) Can you list the various activities that you carry out in your organization? \_\_\_\_\_

(b) Can you give an estimate of the time you spend in each of the activities you mentioned above? \_\_\_\_\_

6. What would you say are the most prevalent problems experienced by the clients that you are serving? Name 2 in order of importance.

(I) \_\_\_\_\_

(II) \_\_\_\_\_

7. (a) In relation to the first problem you mentioned, what intervention strategies or services does your agency have in place? \_\_\_\_\_

(b) are the interventions/services appropriate?

A, Not sure, Don't know, DA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

(c) are the interventions/services adequate?

A, Not sure, Don't know, DA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

8. (a) In relation to the second problem you mentioned, what intervention strategies or services does your agency have in place? \_\_\_\_\_

(b) are the interventions/services appropriate?

A, Not sure, Don't know, DA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

(c) are the interventions/services adequate?

A, Not sure, Don't know, DA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

9. In relation to the first problem you mentioned above, is

the social work training that you have:

(a) appropriate?

A, Not sure, Don't know, DA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

(b) adequate?

A, Not sure, Don't know, DA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

10. In relation to the second problem you mentioned above, is the social work training that you have:

(a) appropriate?

A, Not sure, Don't know, DA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

(b) adequate?

A, Not sure, Don't know, DA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

11 What are the organizational constraints faced by workers in responding to the first problem you mention above? \_\_\_\_\_

12. What are the organizational constraints faced by workers in responding to the second problem you mentioned above? \_\_\_\_\_

**C. Your Suggestions for Change.**

13. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in your agency to improve interventions/services for the first problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

14. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in your agency to improve interventions/services for the second problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

15. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in social work education to enable graduates to respond to the first problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

16. Can you summarize the changes you would like to see in social work education to enable graduates to respond to the second problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

**D. Your Concluding Remarks**

17. Is there any other thoughts or ideas that you would like to share based on what has been discussed above?

(b) INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR STUDENTS

A. Background Information.

1. Program and year of study: BSW III DSW II

2. Before you started in the program in which you are currently registered did you have work experience in a social work agency? Yes/No

- If No, go to 4.

(a) for how long had you worked?  
\_\_\_\_\_

(b) what position did you hold?  
\_\_\_\_\_

(c) where were you based?  
\_\_\_\_\_

3. What social work training do you have other than your current training? DSW CSW None

B. Prior to Current Program of Study.

4. During your practice period what would you say were the most prevalent problem experienced by the clients that you served? Name 2 in order of importance.

(I) \_\_\_\_\_

(II) \_\_\_\_\_

5. (a) In relation to the first problem you mentioned, what intervention strategies or services did your agency have in place? \_\_\_\_\_

(b) were the interventions appropriate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

(c) were the interventions adequate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

6. (a) In relation to the second problem you mentioned, what intervention strategies or services did your agency have in place?

(b) were the interventions/services appropriate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

(c) were the interventions/services adequate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

7. What are the organizational constraints faced by workers in responding to the first problem you mention above?

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8. What are the organizational constraints faced by workers in responding to the second problem you mentioned above?

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**C. Your Current Program of Study.**

9. What difference is the between your current program of study and the social work Training you have had before?

10. In relation to the first problem you identified, your current training is preparing you to respond more ably.

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

11. In relation to the second problem you mentioned, your current training is preparing you to respond more ably.

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

**D. Your Suggestions for Change.**

12. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in the agency to improve interventions for the first problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

13. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in the agency to improve interventions for the second problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

14. Is there anything else you would like to state in that regard? \_\_\_\_\_

15. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in social work education to enable graduates to respond to the first problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

16. Can you summarize the changes you would like to see in social work education to enable graduates to respond to the second problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

17. Is there anything else you would like to state in that regard? \_\_\_\_\_

**E. Your Concluding Remarks**

18. Is there any other thoughts or ideas that you would like to share based on what we has been discussed above? \_\_\_\_\_

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(c) INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MANAGERS

A. Background Information.

1. For how long have you worked for the S&C.D.?
2. At what position are you currently working?
3. For how long have you worked at your current position.
4. For how long have you worked in your current geographic area?

B. Social Work Practice and Graduates in Your Area.

5. What would you say are the most prevalent problems experienced by the clients that your agency is serving? Name 2 in order of importance.

(I) \_\_\_\_\_

(II) \_\_\_\_\_

6. (a) In relation to the first problem you mentioned, what intervention strategies or services does your agency have in place? \_\_\_\_\_

- (b) are the interventions/services appropriate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

- (c) are the interventions/services adequate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

7. (a) In relation to the second problem you mentioned, what intervention strategies or services does your agency have in place? \_\_\_\_\_

- (b) are the interventions appropriate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

- (C) are the interventions adequate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

8. In relation to the first problem you mentioned above, do you find the social work training that your workers have:

- (a) appropriate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

- (b) adequate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

9. In relation to the second problem you mentioned above, do you find the social work training that your workers have:



(a) appropriate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.  
Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

(b) adequate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.  
Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

10. What are the constraints faced by workers in responding to the first problem you mentioned above? \_\_\_\_\_

11. What are the organizational constraints faced by workers in responding to the second problem you mentioned above? \_\_\_\_\_

**C. Your Suggestions for Change.**

12. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in your agency to improve interventions/services for the first problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

13. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in your agency to improve interventions/services for the second problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

14. Is there anything else you would like to state in that regard? \_\_\_\_\_

15. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in social work education to enable graduates to respond to the first problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

16. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in social work education to enable graduates to respond to the second problem you identified? \_\_\_\_\_

17. Is there anything else you would like to state in that regard? \_\_\_\_\_

**D. Your Concluding Remarks**

18. Is there any other thoughts or ideas that you would like to share based on what has been discussed above? \_\_\_\_\_

(d) INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR EDUCATORS

1. What is the main thrust of Social work education at the University of Botswana? \_\_\_\_\_

2. If there is none what do you think it should be?  
\_\_\_\_\_

3. What do you see as the major problems experienced by the clients that Botswana graduates from the University of Botswana are serving? Name 2 in order of importance.

(I) \_\_\_\_\_

(II) \_\_\_\_\_

4. In relation to the first problem you mentioned, is social work training that you are offering

(a) appropriate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

(b) adequate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

5. In relation to the second problem you mentioned, is social work training that you are offering

(a) appropriate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

(b) adequate?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

6. (a) What are the organizational constraints faced by graduates in responding to the first problem you mentioned above? \_\_\_\_\_

(b) Does social work education prepare the graduates to deal with these constraints?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

8 (a) What are the organizational constraints faced by graduates in responding to the second problem you mentioned above? \_\_\_\_\_

(b) Does social work training prepare the graduates to deal with these constraints?

SA, A, Don't know, DA, SDA.

Please explain. \_\_\_\_\_

**YOUR SUGGESTION FOR CHANGE**

9. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in social work education in order to enable the graduates to respond to the first problem you identified?

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10. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in social work education in order to enable the graduate to respond to the second problem you identified?

-

11. Is there anything else you would like to state in that regard? \_\_\_\_\_

12. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in the organizational context in order to improve the interventions/services for the first problem you identified?

-

13. Can you summarize the changes that you would like to see in the organizational context in order to improve the interventions/services for the second problem you identified?

-

14. Is there anything else that you would like to state in that regard? \_\_\_\_\_

**YOUR CONCLUDING REMARKS**

15. Is there any other thoughts or ideas that you would like to share based on what has been discussed above?

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APPENDIX B

BSW PROGRAMME  
from 1992-93

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Year 1

SW 102: General Psychology	3 hours
SW 103: Introduction to Social Welfare	3 hours
Law 105: Law for Social Workers	4 hours
Soc 101: Introduction to Sociology	3 hours
Eng E121: Communication Skills and Introduction to Literature	6 hours

Year 2

SW 205: Social Work Practice 1: Community Development and Social	3 hours
SW 206: Interpersonal Communication Skills	3 hours
SW 207: Psychology for Social Work	3 hours
Ec 101: Economics	3 hours
P.A 101: Introduction to Public Administration	3 hours
Soc 205: Modern Social Problems	3 hours

Year 3

SW 306: Block Field Placement 1	3 hours
SW 307: Social Work Practice 2: Individuals, Families and Small Groups	3 hours
SW 308: Research for Social Work 1	3 hours
SW 309: Social Policy	3 hours
Soc 302: Sociology of Development	3 hours
Dem.303: Demography of Botswana	3 hours

Year 4

SW 401: Social Work Organization, Management, and Supervision	3 hours
SW 403: Planning for the Social Services	3 hours
SW 406: Block Field Placement 2	6 hours
SW 407: Research for Social Work 2: Projects	3 hours
One of:	
Soc 402: Rural Sociology	
Soc 405: Industrial Sociology	
Dem 408: Family Demography	
Dem 403: Population Growth and Development	3 hours

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Diploma Program

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Year 1

DSW 111: Principles and Techniques of Social Work Intervention 1	3 hours
DSW 112: Psychology: Human Growth and Behaviour	3 hours
DSW 113: The Social Services of Botswana	3 hours
DSW 114: Home Economics	4 hours
DSW 119: Interpersonal Communication Skills	2 hours
Eng 121: Communication Skills and Introduction to Literature	6 hours

Year 2:

DSW 211: Principles and Techniques of Social Work Intervention 2	3 hours
DSW 217: Block Field Placement of 12 weeks	6 hours
DSW 218: Supervision in the Social Services	3 hours
DSW 219: Administration and Policy in the Social Services	3 hours
Soc 205: Modern Social Problems	3 hours

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