

Wapula N . Raditloaneng
Morgen Chawawa

Lifelong Learning for Poverty Eradication

 Springer

Lifelong Learning for Poverty Eradication

Wapula N. Raditloaneng • Morgen Chawawa

Lifelong Learning for Poverty Eradication

with contribution by Prof. Preece

 Springer

Wapula N. Raditloaneng
Department of Adult Education Faculty
of Education
University of Botswana
Gaborone
Botswana

Morgen Chawawa
Botho University
Gaborone
Botswana

ISBN 978-3-319-10547-5 ISBN 978-3-319-10548-2 (eBook)
DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-10548-2
Springer Cham Heidelberg New York Dordrecht London

Library of Congress Control Number: 2014954712

© Springer International Publishing Switzerland 2015

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are reserved by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed. Exempted from this legal reservation are brief excerpts in connection with reviews or scholarly analysis or material supplied specifically for the purpose of being entered and executed on a computer system, for exclusive use by the purchaser of the work. Duplication of this publication or parts thereof is permitted only under the provisions of the Copyright Law of the Publisher's location, in its current version, and permission for use must always be obtained from Springer. Permissions for use may be obtained through RightsLink at the Copyright Clearance Center. Violations are liable to prosecution under the respective Copyright Law.

The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use.

While the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication, neither the authors nor the editors nor the publisher can accept any legal responsibility for any errors or omissions that may be made. The publisher makes no warranty, express or implied, with respect to the material contained herein.

Printed on acid-free paper

Springer is part of Springer Science+Business Media (www.springer.com)

Preface

This book grew out of discussions and work done by the authors in their different capacities for 9 years on various forms of research 2004 and 2013. We are grateful to many colleagues who informed the book and offered suggestions through related conferences, partnerships with Kellogg Foundation, British Academy and the Implementing the Third Mission of Universities in Africa partners for collaborative action research work which culminated in case studies that gave us an opportunity to write this book. We are especially indebted to Professors Julia Preece of the University of Kwa Zulu Natal, Idouw Biao of Adult Education, University of Botswana, and another colleague from UNISA, Professor Peter Dzvimbo who provided guidance and editorial work to make this book what it is for the readers.

Whether or not “Lifelong learning, poverty and community engagement” becomes a new global reality and whether lifelong learning proves to be an active strategy for poverty reduction and university community engagement remain central questions. The authors simply documented what they existentially experienced during the 8 year period which informed the book.

There are no easy answers and there is much contestation and debate ahead because lifelong learning is not uniform; learning is a very personal and internal process which is never the same for different learners. The sense that learners make out of their experiences is not the same. How poverty is defined determined strategies to tackle it. Some of the poor are better able to make a breakthrough for a transition to non-poverty than others, while some remain poor and destitute despite efforts they make to rid themselves off poverty in their individual, family and wider collective lives.

Community service and engagement is also practiced differently and targets different aspects of human and community life. Community engagement strategies are human and therefore infested with human error. However, the struggle towards lifelong learning, and fighting poverty through community engagement continues within Botswana’s national boundaries, African and global contexts.

General Introduction

This book is divided into fourteen thematical chapters packaged in three parts: Lifelong learning, poverty eradication and community development through engagement as common concepts used to describe varieties of learning from the cradle to the grave.

It portrays an African stance in relation to key concepts and how these are contextualized in Africa, using Botswana as a contact point. The San is a unique group to study because, though historically recognized as one of the first indigenous groups in Southern Africa, it was previously left out in development. However, through the partnership between Kellogg and Ba Isago University, the San community of D'Kar was given an opportunity to benefit from the three year partnership that provided training and guidance in successful entrepreneurship.

In Chapter One, of Part A, the writers argue that lifelong learning is very wide in scope. Africans have and continue to be lifelong learners even before the advent of recorded literature and research on Lifelong learning. Oral traditions passed on from generation to generation through Indigenous Knowledge Systems (IKS) have served Africans as well in articulating their own stories of lifelong learning, poverty reduction, community development and engagement for social justice.

Lifelong learning includes formal, informal and non formal programs of learning, grounded on Indigenous Knowledge Systems (IKS). Part one explores lifelong learning in four chapters by focusing on its meaning, scope, interconnection with poverty and entrepreneurship skills development training as some of the requisite poverty eradication tools.

In Chapter Two, Lifelong learning, poverty, community development and engagement are portrayed as the present and future of Africa where the past has failed the continent in terms of promoting best practice. Lifelong learning is discussed as one of the most celebrated tools of poverty eradication. The chapter further discusses the poverty situation in Botswana through community development and university engagement to bridge the ivory tower gap.

In Chapter three, the author focuses on Botswana's National Poverty Eradication policy, strategies and programmes. Botswana has a very elaborate poverty eradication policy and strategies peddled by the Office of the President, and supported by international development partners and non- state actors since about five years ago.

Past efforts to reduce poverty which were found to be obsolete were replaced with new initiatives to reduce poverty by 2015. While the goal is not wholly achieved, a few success stories are discussed, hence there is a ray of hope at the end of a dark tunnel.

In Chapter Four, lifelong learning is regarded as very important for sustainable entrepreneurship development. Through lifelong learning, diverse communities can develop new ways of tackling environmental problems, environmental conservation and sustainable development.

Part Two builds on Part One by providing the human dimensions of poverty, with a special focus on the San.

Chapter Five in Part Two builds on to preceding chapters by discussing the interface of lifelong learning and small business development training with a special focus on the D'Kar community of Gantsi in Botswana.

Chapter Six focuses on sustainable environmental issues, MDGs, and poverty reduction. Chapter Seven discusses poverty with a special focus on poverty as generally a global problem that hard hits on the San community who were studied to inform this book. Furthermore, the section explores women's empowerment in business and management skills in Chapter Eight.

Chapter Nine discusses the inventive role of entrepreneurship training in the journey against poverty within the San community in D'kar, in partnership with Ba-Isago and Kellogg Foundation.

The Kellogg Foundation Guidelines as very crucial in the Ba-Isago-Kellogg Foundation are discussed in Chapter 10 as very crucial in the Zooming Approach case studied as promoting best practice in Community service and engagement for poverty reduction and ultimately, eradication.

Part Three carves the way forward in terms of promoting community development with current university community development and engagement initiatives. The book contents draws extensively on four African Universities and the work of Kellogg Foundation within the San Community of D'kar which served as one of the two case studies of best practice in community service and engagement.

The significance of Chapter Eleven in Part three of this book is that it illuminates current strategies and programs geared towards community development and engagement by African universities, and their impact on promoting equity and social justice.

In the past, universities have been ivory towers totally isolated from the recurrent work of communities in their neighborhoods.

In Chapter Twelve, the authors discuss Capacity Building for sustainable development in D'Kar. The chapter gives highlights of some of the actual activities that were undertaken by community members as part of Capacity building for sustainable development. The chapter gives highlights of three key actors in capacity building, and some of the actual activities that were undertaken by community members as part of capacity building for sustainable development. The Dutch Reformed Church, NGOs including Kellogg Foundation, and women as key actors are cited as examples of capacity building within the San community of D'kar.

The chapter further illuminates the work and impact of NGOs over the last ten years in D'kar San Community through the KURU Family of Organizations. Kuru Development Trust was founded as a multipurpose development institution and registered officially with the Botswana Government as a charitable organization in 1986 after lengthy discussions with people in western Botswana and other parts of southern Africa. The chapter further makes a link between capacity building and sustainable development.

Chapter Thirteen is on Building Partnerships for Sustainable Community Development: This chapter uses examples of non-state actors partnerships with the San and Government of Botswana Departments that were invited to inform the people of Dkar on some of the social services and economic empowerment programmes that were available for the people. The ultimate goal of building sustainable partnerships is to capacity building to eradicate poverty for sustainable development.

Chapter Fourteen pools together all the conclusions drawn in each of the individual chapters to carve the way forward. Through the third mission of universities, (community service and engagement) is an empowering lifelong learning process to equip the poor with the requisite skills to rid themselves of poverty.

Although the book focuses on the D'Kar community of Botswana, authors cited examples of best practice in community service and engagement in four African countries that were part of the recipients of the Mobilizing Regional Capacity Initiative (MRCI) of the Association of African Universities (AAU) and the Department of International Finance Development (DIFD) eighteen months collaborative research award of 2010-2011.

The qualitative case studies methodology for collecting information to inform all the three parts of this book can be traced back to the last seven years beginning 2006 to date, when the authors engaged in various programmes on poverty reduction in Botswana. A qualitative methodology, as adapted for the book includes, amongst others, case studies on non-formal education programmes of poverty reduction, post literacy programmes in two Botswana Districts on poverty reduction, a pilot case study of the poor in Lentsweletau and Lobatse, community service and engagement projects by four African universities, and Ba Isago university/Kellogg Foundation projects in D'Kar and the ITMUA project.

The Ba-Isago/Kellogg Foundation project is particularly important in that it sought to create a new entrepreneurship mindset to poverty reduction in the remote area of D'Kart. All the projects studied entailed making sense of the assumptions by interviewing poor people in the urban and rural areas, training and retraining of the poor to make a transition from poverty to non-poverty, and working with extension workers during the annual Basic Extension Skills Training Course (BEST) hosted by the Department of Adult Education of the University of Botswana in June 2007.

This book is a must read for all African universities, adult educators, Policy Maker, Economic development practitioners, community development and engagement practitioners, educators from all walks of life and researchers on Long life learning and poverty reduction through Community development and engagement.

Book Methodology

Methodology that Informed the Book

This book is a by-product of the authors' 8 years of research on various projects since 2004 to 2011.

- a. The authors' role in the first ever international conference on Adult Education and poverty reduction- A global priority" hosted by the University of Botswana Department of Adult Education. The conference generated a lot of data on conceptualising the different dimensions of human and gender-based poverty.
- b. The authors' research on poverty and poverty alleviating projects in two Botswana districts in 2006. This research, sponsored by the University of Botswana Office of Research and Development, provided an inventory of successful poverty reduction programmes, factors that contribute to success and why some projects collapsed.
- c. The British Academy African Partnership Initiative (BAAP) research project on poverty and non- formal education from 2006 to 2007 in partnership with the universities of Glasgow where the lead team leader resided, Botswana, Malawi, Nigeria and Lesotho. The research sought to link the role of small scale non formal education projects on poverty reduction in the five countries. The partnership case studies were all consolidated into a book but some data sets outside the cases studied remained unused because of book space constraints. This has been used to inform parts A and B of the book on lifelong learning and poverty.
- d. The Implementing the Third Mission of Universities in Africa (ITMUA) research project within the four universities in Botswana, Malawi, Nigeria and Lesotho built on experiences of the BAAP to focus on yet another solid regional collaborative research on Implementing the Third Mission of Universities in Africa from January 2010 to August 2011. Cases studied during the duration of the project were consolidated into a book while the processes involved in the cases remained without book space. The third part of the book (Part C) is a consolidation of what actually went on during the life of the Ba-Isago/Kellogg Foundation project in terms of the practice of community development and engagement.

Contents

Part I Lifelong Learning

1 Lifelong Learning: Its Meaning and Scope	3
1.1 Introduction	3
1.2 Lifelong learning: An Overview of the Literature	3
1.3 African Contexts for Lifelong Learning.....	5
1.3.1 North-South Debates	5
1.4 African Perspectives for Lifelong Learning.....	7
1.5 Social Justice and Lifelong Learning.....	9
1.6 African Policy Contexts for Lifelong Learning	11
1.7 Botswana and Its Policy Context	14
1.8 Concluding Summary.....	15
References.....	16
2 Poverty and Community Engagement	19
2.1 Introduction.....	19
2.2 Brief Summary of Lifelong Learning	19
2.3 Botswana Lifelong Learning Policy Context.....	20
2.3.1 Delivery for Promotion of LLL	20
2.3.2 The Poverty Situation	21
2.4 Community Engagement for poverty reduction.....	23
2.4.1 Community Service—Types.....	24
2.4.2 Themes Explored by Community Service(s) included the Following	24
2.4.3 Objectives of Community Service(s).....	25
2.4.4 Number of Faculties in Each University	25
2.4.5 Number of Projects Begun by Individuals.....	25
2.4.6 Age of the Community Service Projects.....	26
2.4.7 Community Development.....	32
2.4.8 Issues.....	33
2.5 A Statement from the Community Development Foundation (UK)	34

2.6	Conclusions	35
	References	36
3	Botswana's National Poverty Eradication Policy and Strategies	37
3.1	Introduction	37
3.2	State Based Poverty Reduction Policies and Programmes	38
3.2.1	The Ghanzi Settlement Policy	39
3.2.2	Poverty Eradication Programmes	41
3.2.3	Citizen Entrepreneurship Development Authority (CEDA) Programs	42
3.2.4	Young Farmers	42
3.2.5	Backyard Vegetable Gardening Projects.....	42
3.2.6	Sponsorship for Education and Training	43
3.2.7	Education and Training of Learners with Mild Intellectual Ability	43
3.3	Botswana's Poverty Eradication Strategies.....	43
3.3.1	Research and Development	44
3.3.2	Poverty and Illiteracy.....	44
3.3.3	Adult Education and Poverty Reduction—A Global Priority ...	44
3.3.4	Poverty and Post Literacy.....	45
3.3.5	Poverty and Identity Formation	45
3.3.6	Identity Formation	45
3.4	Critique of State Based Responses to Poverty	46
3.4.1	Charity for Exploitation of the Poor	46
3.4.2	Non State based Responses to Poverty Reduction	46
3.4.3	Non-Formal Educational Interventions	47
3.5	Poverty Eradication.....	48
3.5.1	President's Housing Appeal	49
3.5.2	Access to Housing for Public Servants.....	49
3.5.3	Poverty Eradication Requires a Multi-Sectoral Approach.....	49
3.5.4	Poverty Disproportionately affects Human Populations	49
3.5.5	Poverty Eradication and the National Agenda.....	50
3.5.6	Direct Foreign Investment	50
3.5.7	Education and Training.....	50
3.5.8	University of Botswana Advocacy	51
3.5.9	CEDA and other Poverty Eradication Success Testimonies.....	52
3.5.10	Mogotsi-Morekwe Mills.....	52
3.5.11	Peo Boswa Insurance Brokers	53
3.5.12	Makaleng Brick Moulding Project	53
3.5.13	Botswana Insurance Holdings Limited.....	53
3.5.14	Dedicated Markets as Outlets	54
3.5.15	Community Development Projects.....	54
3.6	Conclusions.....	55
3.7	Recommendations	55
	References	56

4 Entrepreneurship Development Training and Lifelong Learning 59

4.1 Introduction 59

4.2 Background of the San Community at D’kar Reformed Church Farm and Context of Entrepreneurship building Workshops.... 60

4.3 Theoretical Framework 60

4.4 Relating Entrepreneurship Training to Lifelong Learning? 61

4.5 Entrepreneurship Training Workshop 61

4.6 What are the Characteristics of an Entrepreneur? 62

4.7 Structure of the Workshops 63

4.8 Content of the Workshops 64

4.8.1 Building a Business Plan 64

4.9 What are the Advantages of Starting Your own Business? 65

4.10 What is SWOT Analysis?..... 66

4.11 Requisite Skills for Entrepreneurship 67

4.12 Section C: Characteristics that Lead to Success 68

4.13 Additional Characteristics 70

4.14 The DNA of a Prototypic Entrepreneur..... 72

4.15 Session D: Food for Thought 74

4.15.1 Format for the Group Project 74

4.15.2 Abstract..... 74

4.15.3 Introduce and Sell Your Business Idea 74

4.15.4 Background Theory/Literature Review: Are there Related Businesses? 75

4.15.5 Business Roles and Responsibilities and Methods 75

4.15.6 Monitoring, Review and Celebration 75

4.15.7 Other Important Factors in Setting up an Enterprise..... 75

4.16 Response to the Workshop by Participants 76

4.17 Conclusions..... 76

References 76

Part II The Human Dimensions of Poverty

5 Lifelong Learning and Small Businesses Management Skills..... 81

5.1 Introduction..... 81

5.2 Theoretical Framework 81

5.2.1 Kuru Development Trust 83

5.3 Summary Notes and Exercises..... 84

5.3.1 Presentation 1: Planning Skills 84

5.3.2 Presentation 2: Leading Skills For Managers 86

5.3.3 Presentation 3: Organising Skills For Managers 87

5.3.4 Organizing Production Processes 88

5.4 Day 2 89

5.4.1 Presentation 4: Controlling Skills For Managers..... 89

5.4.2 Presentation 5: Coordinating Skills For Managers 91

5.4.3 Presentation 6: Communicating Skills For Managers 92

- 5.5 Day 3 93
 - 5.5.1 Presentation 1: Purchasing Skills..... 93
 - 5.5.2 Effective and Systematic Purchasing..... 94
- 5.6 Day 3 94
 - 5.6.1 Presentation 2: Management of Staff..... 94
 - 5.6.2 Staff are Resources 95
- 5.7 Day 3 95
 - 5.7.1 Presentation 3: Record-keeping 95
- 5.8 Day 3 95
 - 5.8.1 Presentation 4: Record-keeping 95
 - 5.8.2 Types of Records 96
 - 5.8.3 Importance of Record-keeping in Business..... 96
 - 5.8.4 Sample simplified cash books were presented for participants:... 97
- 5.9 Conclusions 97
- References 98

- 6 The Human Environment and Sustainable Environmental Education..... 99**
 - 6.1 Introduction 99
 - 6.2 Rationale for Participatory Approaches 100
 - 6.2.1 Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) 100
 - 6.2.2 Participatory Action Research (PAR) 101
 - 6.2.3 Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA)..... 102
 - 6.3 Environmental Sustainability and the MDGS..... 103
 - 6.4 Global Environmental Issues 104
 - 6.4.1 Acquiring Environmental Knowledge 104
 - 6.5 Structuring Environmental Education for Global Issues 105
 - 6.5.1 Environmental Education in the SADC Region 106
 - 6.6 Decision-Making and Global Issues 106
 - 6.7 Curriculum Needs and Global Issues..... 107
 - 6.7.1 Environmental Problems in the SADC Region 108
 - 6.8 Botswana’s Environmental Profile..... 109
 - 6.9 Major Environmental Problems in Botswana 111
 - 6.9.1 Desertification in Botswana..... 111
 - 6.9.2 Statistics and Impact on the Environment 112
 - 6.10 Conclusions..... 113
 - References 115

- 7 Fighting Poverty Within the San Community..... 117**
 - 7.1 Introduction..... 117
 - 7.2 The San Community in Botswana..... 117
 - 7.2.1 Background..... 117
 - 7.2.2 Basarwa (San)—the first people of Botswana..... 118
 - 7.2.3 Language Barriers..... 118
 - 7.3 Development Models for Poverty Eradication..... 119
 - 7.3.1 Loss of Land by the San 120

7.3.2	Close Kinship Ties.....	121
7.3.3	Hunter Gatherers, and Nomadic Life.....	122
7.3.4	San's Status.....	123
7.3.5	Minority Status.....	123
7.3.6	Poverty and Lack of Educational Opportunities.....	124
7.4	Programmes to Develop the San.....	124
7.4.1	Post-independence Abolition of Subject Groups.....	124
7.4.2	Poverty with a Special Focus on the San.....	125
7.4.3	Kuru Development Trust.....	125
7.4.4	The WK Foundation Workshops.....	126
7.4.5	Education with a Focus on San Mother Tongue.....	126
7.4.6	Women, Ethnicity, HIV and AIDS.....	126
7.5	Human and Gender-based Poverty among the San.....	127
7.5.1	Ba Isago University College and WW Kellogg Foundation Project: Long Term Poverty Eradication Programmes.....	127
7.5.2	Fighting Poverty Among the San.....	127
7.5.3	Kuru Family of Organisations KFO.....	128
7.5.4	Mission.....	128
7.5.5	To be Responsible.....	129
7.5.6	To Heal.....	129
7.5.7	To Give.....	129
7.5.8	To have Courage.....	129
7.5.9	To Enable.....	130
7.5.10	To have Personal Integrity.....	130
7.5.11	To Know the "Face of God".....	130
7.6	Interventions by Ba Isago and Kellogg Foundation.....	130
7.6.1	Fighting Poverty through a Change of Mindset.....	130
7.6.2	Benefits Derived from the Project.....	131
7.6.3	From the Workshop Participants and the Community.....	131
7.6.4	Social Benefits.....	132
7.7	Successes/Challenges of Running the Project in D'Kar- Ghanzi.....	132
7.7.1	The Involvement of Letloa in Fighting Poverty.....	133
7.7.2	Management and Leadership Development Programme.....	133
7.8	Interventions by the University of Botswana and Tromso.....	135
7.9	Conclusions.....	135
7.10	Recommendations.....	136
	References.....	136
8	Developing San Women's Business, Governance and Management Skills in the Arts and Craft Project.....	139
8.1	Introduction.....	139
8.2	The Tie-and-Dye Project for San Women in D'kar Farm community...	140
8.2.1	Final improvements.....	144
8.2.2	The Future of the Projects.....	145

- 8.2.3 Project Cycle Management (P.C.M.) 146
- 8.2.4 Details of the training module 148
- 8.2.5 Workshop on Project Management 149
- 8.3 Project Indicators and Means of Verification 151
 - 8.3.1 The Tie-and-Dye Project for San Women in D’kar
Farm community 151
 - 8.3.2 Workshop on Business leadership 153
 - 8.3.3 Changing the Mindset of San People 153
 - 8.3.4 Lessons for the Workshop 154
 - 8.3.5 Final Improvements 154
 - 8.3.6 Development of Self Recognition 155
 - 8.3.7 The Future of the Art and Crafts Project 155
- References 156

- 9 Reducing Poverty by Inventive Entrepreneurship Skills 159**
 - 9.1 Introduction 159
 - 9.2 Invention, Innovation and Entrepreneurship 159
 - 9.2.1 Invention 160
 - 9.2.2 Innovation 160
 - 9.2.3 Entrepreneurship 161
 - 9.3 Training on Entrepreneurship skills 165
 - 9.3.1 Workshop Methodology 165
 - 9.3.2 Presentation 1: Design 165
 - 9.3.3 Presentation 2: Starch Mixing and Applying 165
 - 9.3.4 Presentation 3: Mixing Pigments and Emulsion to
Make Paint 166
 - 9.4 DAY 2: Presentations 167
 - 9.4.1 Presentation 4: Removing of Paste and Heat Fixing of Paint 167
 - 9.4.2 Presentation 5: Overlapping Colours and Other
Paint Techniques 168
 - 9.5 DAY 3: Presentations 168
 - 9.6 Results of the Training Workshop 169
 - 9.6.1 Results of Workshop- Evaluations 169
 - 9.6.2 Evaluation Comments 169
 - 9.7 Workshop TWO 170
 - 9.7.1 Training Materials 170
 - 9.7.2 Stationery 170
 - 9.7.3 Key Aspects of Marketing 171
 - 9.7.4 Product 171
 - 9.7.5 Place 171
 - 9.7.6 Price 172
 - 9.7.7 People 172
 - 9.7.8 Processes 172
 - 9.8 Conclusions 173
 - 9.9 Recommendations 173

10 The Kellogg Foundation Guidelines on Community Development..... 175

10.1 Introduction..... 175

10.2 Background on the W.K. Kellogg Africa Program 176

 10.2.1 Historical Evolution and Lessons Learnt 177

 10.2.2 Lessons Learnt from the First Phase 177

10.3 Building the Self Drive Mindset of Communities—the Zooming Approach 178

 10.3.1 Defining the Approach 178

 10.3.2 The Development of a Self-Drive Mindset..... 178

 10.3.3 How the Process Unfolds 179

 10.3.4 The Different Phases of Zooming 180

10.4 Operational Guidelines 181

 10.4.1 The Entry or Community Consultations and Appreciative Inquiry Phase 181

 10.4.2 The Covenanting and Dedication Phase 182

10.5 Supporting Community Detailed Planning Process..... 183

 10.5.1 Methods and Tools for Learning and Sharing..... 184

10.6 Defining the Community Development Approach 185

10.7 Kellogg Foundation Guidelines and Their application to D’kar Community Development and Capacity Building Initiatives..... 186

 10.7.1 Community Participation 187

10.8 Training Methodology 191

10.9 Conclusions..... 192

References 193

Part III University Community Development and Engagement

11 Selected African Universities Community Engagement Work for Poverty Reduction 197

11.1 Introduction..... 197

11.2 ITMUA Project Methodology 198

11.3 Findings from Policy Briefs and Case Studies..... 201

 11.3.1 A Comparative Analysis of the Cases Studied 207

 11.3.2 Phase One 208

 11.3.3 Phase Two..... 209

 11.3.4 The Case Studies 210

11.4 The Process of Community Service Engagement and Learning..... 213

 11.4.1 Student Learning 214

 11.4.2 Community Learning 214

 11.4.3 Challenges of Community Service and Engagement 217

11.5 Conclusions..... 217

11.6 Recommendations to Promote Best Practice 217

References 218

12 Capacity Building for Sustainable Development in D’kar Community	221
12.1 Introduction.....	221
12.2 The Dutch Reformed Church.....	222
12.3 The D’kar Church Farm.....	222
12.3.1 Capacitating Community Based Organisations CBOs.....	222
12.3.2 Pre-school Training.....	223
12.3.3 Entrepreneurship Skills Training.....	224
12.4 The Role of NGOs in D’kar over the Last Ten Years.....	224
12.5 The Work and Impact of NGOs.....	224
12.6 D’kar San Community.....	226
12.7 The Role of Women.....	227
12.7.1 Women in D’kar.....	227
12.7.2 Community- based Natural Resource Management.....	227
12.7.3 Veld Products Gathering.....	228
12.7.4 Enterprise Development.....	228
12.7.5 Project Cycle Management (P.C.M.).....	229
12.7.6 Objectives of Capacity Building.....	230
12.7.7 Training Workshop Outcomes.....	231
12.7.8 Day Two Course Coverage.....	232
12.7.9 Day Three Course Coverage.....	233
12.7.10 Marketing Management.....	233
12.7.11 Course Structure.....	233
12.7.12 Day One Course Coverage.....	234
12.7.13 Day Two Course Coverage.....	234
12.7.14 Key Issues Raised.....	235
12.7.15 Customer Care.....	235
12.7.16 Day One Course Coverage.....	236
12.7.17 Workshop Group Photograph: Customer Care Course Group Photo.....	237
12.8 Monitoring and Evaluation.....	237
12.9 Workshops Evaluation.....	237
12.9.1 A Diagrammatic Representation.....	238
12.10 Observations of Challenges to the Training Programme.....	238
12.11 Sustainable Development.....	238
12.11.1 Recommendations.....	239
12.12 Conclusions and Recommendations.....	239
12.12.1 Conclusions.....	239
12.12.2 Recommendations on all the Training Sessions.....	239
12.12.3 Time Allocation.....	239
References.....	240

- 13 Building Partnerships for Sustainable Community Development 241**
 - 13.1 Introduction 241
 - 13.2 Overview of Partnerships 242
 - 13.3 Networking and Building Partnerships 244
 - 13.4 Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs)..... 245
 - 13.5 Bokamoso Board and Governance Practices..... 245
 - 13.5.1 Decision Making and Leadership Style in Organisations.... 245
 - 13.5.2 A Critical Look at the Constitution..... 247
 - 13.6 Measuring Impact of Community Development Programmes..... 248
 - 13.6.1 Evaluation Questions Posed and Answers 248
 - 13.7 Key Findings of the Evaluation..... 250
 - 13.7.1 Lessons Learned from the Evaluation 251
 - 13.7.2 Lessons from Project 251
 - 13.8 Conclusions and Recommendations..... 251
 - References 254

- 14 Lifelong Learning and Development in Botswana..... 255**
 - 14.1 Introduction 255
 - 14.2 Part One: Lifelong Learning..... 255
 - 14.3 Part Two..... 258
 - 14.4 Corruption as a Cause of Poverty 260
 - 14.5 Poverty Eradication Strategy 260
 - 14.6 Part Three: University Community Development and Engagement 265
 - References 269

About the Authors

Dr. Morgen Chawawa is the Research Manager at Botho University, Botswana. He was the Director of a Community Development and University Engagement Project in Ghanzi District, Botswana funded by the Kellogg Foundation Project, in partnership with BA ISAGO University College, Gaborone, Botswana until 2012 when the project ended. Dr Chawawa is a graduate of Georgia State University, Georgia, USA and Immanuel Theological Seminary, Georgia, USA. He taught Political Science at DeKalb College, Atlanta, Georgia, USA for six years. Dr. Chawawa was a civil servant in the Government of Zimbabwe, where he worked as District Administrator in the Ministry of Local Government, Urban and Rural Development and Town Clerk for the City of Mutare in Zimbabwe. He was lecturer at the University of Zimbabwe and Chair of the Department of Educational Management, Zimbabwe Open University.

Gaborone, Botswana

Prof Wapula Nelly Raditloang serves as an Associate Professor in the Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana, Main Campus, Gaborone. Prof. Raditloang is an interdisciplinary Sociologist, an adult and health educator with a wealth of more than thirty two years of professional experience. She holds a Doctor of Education in Adult and Continuing Education from the Pennsylvania State University, University Park Campus. Her areas of research, publications and activism include poverty, gender issues, and lifelong learning. Her recent publications related to this book are a co-authored book chapter on The importance of women’s leadership programmes in developing a sustainable economy. In Inman and Robinson’s book, *University engagement and environmental sustainability* (2014). (Publisher, Manchester University Press. She also authored a book review (2012) of *Transitions and learning through the life course*, (publisher, International Journal of Lifelong Learning) edited by Ecclestone, Biesta and Hurghes (2010). In November 2014, she published another book review of “The knowledge economy and lifelong learning, a critical reader”, with *International Review of Education*, DOI 10.1007/s11159-014-9427-z.

Gaborone, Botswana

Part I
Lifelong Learning

Chapter 1

Lifelong Learning: Its Meaning and Scope

Julia Preece

1.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the evolving concept of lifelong learning and frame it within African contexts. Lifelong learning is presented within a social justice perspective in order to position the social purpose of the ensuing chapters as they provide the story of how one marginalized San community in Botswana is assisted, through lifelong learning and university community engagement, towards self empowerment.

This chapter introduces the notion of lifelong learning as a broad concept. It highlights some ‘north-south’ issues within the African context for lifelong learning and introduces some Afrocentric perspectives, including the concept of *ubuntu* as a particular contribution to the lifelong learning debate. This is followed by a brief exploration of social justice as a core concept in view of the book’s focus on poverty and marginalized communities. The final part of the chapter visits selected policies in African nation states with a particular focus on Botswana and its policy context in order to frame the rest of the book’s focus on the San community in the remote West of the country. The concluding remarks include a brief introduction to the thematic content of subsequent chapters.

1.2 Lifelong learning: An Overview of the Literature

There is no shortage of literature on lifelong learning. In the years between 2009 and 2011 alone there were at least four international handbooks of lifelong learning. A ‘google’ book search produced some 80 books between 2000 and 2010 on this topic. Most of these publications emanate from Europe, North America and Australia.

J. Preece (✉)
University of KwaZulu Natal, Durban, South Africa

The majority of debates focus around the following themes: lifelong learning and work place learning (Holmes 2003; Markes-Beale 2006), including learning for employability skills (Rossnagel et al. 2010); learning regions (Longworth 1999; Osborne and Thomas 2003); and the tensions between a social purpose (citizenship, gender, equality and social inclusion) and instrumentalist (employment, skills based) focus of learning (Jackson 2010, 2011; Field 2006). Others have explored concepts such as learning transitions (Field et al. 2009) and the relationship between policy discourses, learning spaces, the affective domains and the role of the educator in lifelong learning (Crowther and Sutherland 2007).

European policy is firmly focused on lifelong learning for a ‘smart, sustainable and inclusive society’ (Commission of the European Communities [CEC] 2012, C70/9). Of particular interest to this book is the way in which Field (2006) discusses how, in the European context, the discourse of ‘poverty’ has been replaced by a discourse of ‘inclusion’. Field argues that this shift in emphasis in Europe reflects its policy move away from ‘any concerns with social change’ and an acceptance that ‘capitalism is now the only game in town’ so that the government task is to ‘promote inclusion into the existing social order’ (pp. 120–121), by emphasizing employability skills rather than encouraging learning that leads to transformation. In saying this, Field is emphasizing the instrumentalist policy role for lifelong learning which disassociates ‘learning’ from its more social purpose and radical concept of learning which might challenge the status quo. Poverty implies a need for government to directly address the situation; while ‘inclusion’ shifts the agenda to an invitation to all to participate, thus implicitly shifting the blame of poverty onto the victim.

While the vast literature from the above mentioned parts of the world addresses both instrumentalist and more social, community (and occasionally radical—see Purcell in Crowther and Sutherland 2007 for instance) perspectives for lifelong learning, there is very little evidence that these discussions directly focus on the relationship between lifelong learning and poverty reduction, although international development indicators, such as those provided annually by the UNDP make constant links between education levels and poverty (UNDP.org).

There have recently been some African texts dedicated to an African perspective on the subject of lifelong learning, notably Nafukho et al. (2005) Preece (2009) and Amutabi and Oketch (2009), and there is also a South African editorship of a book on lifelong learning and work by Cooper and Walters (2009). In relation to growing concerns about the contribution of lifelong learning to sustainable development, a policy working paper by Walters et al. (2012) looked at policy considerations in five African countries. Other documents that are specifically relevant to policy formulation for lifelong learning in Africa come primarily from the World Bank and UNESCO. UNESCO has a dedicated institute for lifelong learning (UIL) which is responsible for a global conference, held every 12 years and known as CONFINTEA, which focuses on the role of adult education in lifelong learning. The UNESCO UIL website produces regular monitoring updates on national progress reports in relation to adult education and lifelong learning. The most recent CONFINTEA VI event occurred in December 2009, to which almost every country in the world contributed a national assessment. The UIL Global Reports on Adult Learning and Education (GRALE) (UNESCO 2010, 2013) provide a synthesis

of different perspectives and policy directions for lifelong learning in the context of adult education. UNESCO also provides regular world conferences on higher education which are linked closely to a lifelong learning agenda, such as the UNESCO (2009) World Conference on Higher Education.

Implicit in these reports, and most of the academic publications, is an assumption that lifelong learning relates to post school education and beyond, with a strong emphasis on adult learning contexts, though there are some references to the term's original concept of learning 'from cradle to grave' (Longworth 2003).

Academic literature from the 'north' rarely cross references its debates with Africa, though there are a few exceptions in the international handbooks, for example, a chapter by Avoseh in Jackson (2010), and two by Omolewa and Walters respectively in Jarvis (2009). The scarcity of literature that specifically relates to Africa's concerns reflects a gap which this book hopes to fill.

1.3 African Contexts for Lifelong Learning

In Africa, the academic debates tend to address similar concerns to those in the north but with a different focus, premised on the historical pre-colonial tradition of lifelong learning on the continent; its subsequent subjection to missionary interventions and colonialism, followed by the changing international development conditionalities and discourses for the continent and competing efforts within the continent itself to africanise the lifelong learning agenda (Preece 2009; Amutabi and Oketch 2009). A brief summary of these earlier discussions follows.

African nations have established and documented claims to an oral tradition for lifelong learning that was holistic and built around value systems that privileged the collective over the individual. This tradition was interrupted by slave traders since the fifteenth century, followed by missionaries and the colonial endeavour during the 1800s—each of which imposed their own version of, and purpose for, learning on the indigenous population.

While learning during the colonial period was designed to service the colonial administration, post-colonial efforts for nation building have continued to be subject to externally driven funding agendas, driven by different concepts of development.

Thus lifelong learning in Africa has experienced a rise and decline in fortunes and more fragmented trajectory of progress than its European or North American counterparts.

1.3.1 North-South Debates

During the early part of the millennium critics have argued that while lifelong learning meant continuity and growth to include higher education in the 'north' (such as Europe and America), in the 'south' (such as Africa and South Asia) the concept was often narrowly interpreted as basic education or literacy, so that national policy

documents were framed around the Millennium Development Goals, rather than a more home-grown definition for lifelong learning (Torres 2003). These issues have been extensively examined in previous publications (for example Preece 2006, 2009), but a brief summary follows.

Although the concept of lifelong learning was introduced, and has evolved, since the early part of the twentieth century, a defining document for policy development was the De Lors (1996) report titled *Learning the Treasure Within* which was commissioned by UNESCO. This report advocated for a universal and comprehensive approach to lifelong learning through four pillars: learning to know, to do, to be and to live together. In the European context this document stimulated several European policy statements (for example CEC 2000, and more recently 2012) which have defined lifelong learning in terms of its contribution to the development of skills and competencies and active citizenship. However, the European focus on economic competitiveness steered the lifelong learning agenda towards the first two of the De Lors pillars—learning to know and to do, with a focus on employability under the rationale that this would promote social inclusion. This focus has been taken up by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the World Bank. Lifelong learning policy has subsequently followed an economic agenda. In the context of higher education, this has largely been interpreted as widening participation into the existing university system (Slowey and Schuetze 2012), with less attention to the role that higher education might play towards broader issues of social justice.

In the context of Africa, and other countries in receipt of development aid, the World Bank (2003) supported the notion of lifelong learning as a resource for economic growth. But it emphasized basic education, rather than a cradle to the grave philosophy, arguing that higher education in the South was a private good. This meant that funding support was narrowly defined to promote basic schooling rather than a broader vision of the contribution of universities to community development.

In spite of these differences, there have been a number of conferences and initiatives in Africa which supported a strong role for adult and higher education. For example the UNESCO and MINEDAF conference in 2002 stated:

Promoting lifelong learning in Africa entails the creation of literate societies, the valuing of local knowledge, talent and wisdom, the promotion of learning through formal and non-formal education, and taking the best advantage of the new information and communication technologies and the dividends of globalization. (UNESCO and MINEDAF 2002: 1)

Similarly a UNESCO conference in 1998 at the University of Mumbai, India and a subsequent Southern African Development Community (SADC) Technical Committee on Lifelong Education and Training argued strongly for the purpose of lifelong learning to promote democratic citizenship (Preece 2009).

Subsequent World Bank support has reinstated the value of higher education and its contribution to lifelong learning in developing country contexts (World Bank 2009), although the rationale remains economic competitiveness, rather than social justice. Nevertheless structures such as the African Union and its New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) have been identified as creating opportuni-

ties for a revitalisation of African perspectives for lifelong learning within broader agendas for education (Mwaikokesya 2012).

In Africa there is no official policy document for lifelong learning that mimics the documents that have emanated from the European Commission since the year 2000. Nevertheless, in 1994 SADC formulated a lifelong learning technical committee that devised a definition that has been compared by Preece (2006, 2009) to the European definition in relation to the above context. The nuances of textual differences in the two definitions follow a similar tendency to reflect a more communitarian and social dimension to the concept of lifelong learning. They have been discussed in earlier publications and the thrust of the argument is repeated here. The European definition is quoted as follows (Preece 2009, p. 9):

[A]ll purposeful activity, undertaken on an ongoing basis with the aim of improving knowledge, skill and competence... To adjust to the demands of social and economic change and to participate actively in the shaping of Europe's future. (Commission of the European Communities (CEC) 2000, p. 3)

I analysed the text in the following way (Preece 2009, p. 9):

The two purposes are 'promoting active citizenship and promoting employability' [p. 5]. Moreover: 'high quality basic education for all, from a child's youngest days forward is the essential foundation' [p. 7]. But in spite of the purported dual thrust of page five, page seven elaborates':

Basic education, followed by initial vocational education and training, should equip all young people with the new basic skills required in a knowledge-based economy. It should also ensure that they have 'learnt to learn' and that they have a positive attitude to learning.

In contrast the SADC committee offers the following definition and purpose:

A key purpose of lifelong learning is democratic citizenship, connecting individuals and groups to the structures of political and economic activity in both local and global contexts. (cited in Aitchison 2003, p. 165)

My explanation for some of the differences were:

The Technical Committee was concerned with positioning Southern Africa within the globalized world, not just its own region. It also recognized the absence of basic education as a guaranteed foundation for lifelong learning across many parts of the region. The definition would therefore have to cover 'the whole spectrum of basic education, secondary education, higher education, out-of-school education, adult education and skills development' as well as 'providing the foundations for lifelong learning through literacy and adult basic education' (p. 164). The differences in this definition from the European Memorandum are ones of priorities and intention (Preece 2009, p. 9).

1.4 African Perspectives for Lifelong Learning

Academic literature for lifelong learning in Africa comes primarily from the adult education field. So, for instance, recent discussions include the role of higher education institutions and their adult education departments in developing lifelong

learning agendas through community engagement (Preece et al. 2011; Openjuru and Ikoja-Odongo 2012; Dube 2012). Other examples include efforts to apply a distinctive African perspective that reflects value systems that build on the continent's pre-colonial traditions but which are also evident in many behaviours and attitudes today. Lekoko and Modise (2011) for example discuss lifelong learning within an indigenous framework represented through three dimensions of: 'time, space and I/We' as a means of distinguishing African contexts from the more individualistic relationships that emanate from European and North American contexts. Such a perspective is reinforced by other African authors such as Fordjor et al. (2003, p. 190) who state that in many African contexts the individual 'exists for society and society for the individual'. This distinction between value systems that privilege the collective over the individual runs through much of the African literature that discusses lifelong learning and as such it impinges on how Africans tend to attach meaning to the concept. Consequently there have been Africanised interpretations of texts on the subject that were written in the north. One example stems from Mbigi (2005). He constructs an African dimension to the four pillars of lifelong learning that were presented in the aforementioned European Commission De Lors Report of 1996 '*Learning: the Treasure Within*'. A fifth pillar of 'learning to change' was subsequently suggested by Maria Torres (Torres 2003, p. 34) in response to the complexity demands of the new millennium and as a strategy for encouraging learning to 'proactively direct change for human well being and development'. These pillars and Mbigi's dimensions were combined by Preece et al. (2011, p. 717) to produce a lifelong learning framework that might more effectively embrace African dimensions:

So the pillar 'learning to know' is understood as the 'capacity to reflect on one's life experiences, and use the lessons to create and manage opportunities'. Such a position can be supported by proverbs that embrace reflectivity and the wisdom of continued learning or seeking knowledge. 'Learning to do' is then linked to indigenous African apprenticeships which emphasized learning by doing through experience. 'Learning to live together' is identified as the 'heart and soul of the African philosophy of 'ubuntu'. Through this one learns an appreciation of others and our interdependence on each other. Finally 'Learning to be' is understood within traditional African community-based learning to develop character and discipline (Mbigi 2005, p. 145): 'Education should seek to develop not only the full potential of a person but also all the multiple intelligences of a given individual'. Learning to be therefore also relates to the concept of 'ubuntu' and learning to live together.

Torres' (2003) additional notion of 'learning to change' invites us to take account of these past as well as future contexts for lifelong learning. The link between lifelong learning for all levels of education and development as a national and human aspiration, in these interpretations, is thus explained by Torres, while Mbigi invites us to examine lifelong learning through an African lens that privileges the collective over the individual, which in turn impacts on reflectivity and learning by doing.

The concept of *ubuntu*, as mentioned by Mbigi in the above citation, derives from the South African context but its meaning is shared across a number of languages in southern Africa (for instance the Sotho and Tswana word *botho* shares similar meanings). It has been argued that this concept—roughly translated as 'humaneness'- reflects a distinctive aspect of African ontology. Its broader connotations include the ideas of caring, sharing and reciprocity, manifested through a sense of

respect and concern for others. Proverbs such as *umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu* (from the Zulu language) and *motho ke motho ka batho* (from the Tswana language) indicate the perceived interconnectedness and interdependence of an individual with his or her community, as reflected above by Fordjor et al. (2003). The proverbs are often translated to mean ‘a person is a person through other persons’. It is this sense of communalism and connectedness that forms the basis for this book’s perspective on lifelong learning through community engagement. Of course, evidence of the practice of *ubuntu* is contrasted with dominant images of Africa as a ‘dark continent’ of corruption, high crime, inequalities and devastating conflicts. These images provide a strong basis for arguing the need for a lifelong learning agenda that looks beyond economic goals and which addresses social justice as a primary focus for learning.

So what would a social justice perspective for lifelong learning look like? The next section reflects on some of the social justice literature as a potential contribution to the above lifelong learning debates and the issues of poverty and inequality that the book’s subsequent chapters address.

1.5 Social Justice and Lifelong Learning

The concept of justice as ‘fairness’—the principles by which the good things in life are distributed according to need, desert, merit and equality—are commonly attributed to Rawls (1972). It is known as ‘distributional justice’. Rawls, however, has been critiqued by Sen (1992), among others in the context of development. Sen’s (1999) political economy approach to development provides us with a social justice image of development that is re-conceptualised in terms of ‘freedoms’:

Development can be seen ... as a process of expanding the real freedoms that people enjoy. Focusing on human freedoms contrasts with narrower views of development, such as identifying development with the growth of gross national product ... But freedoms depend also on other determinants, such as social and economic arrangements ... as well as political and civil rights. (p. 3)

Sen’s substantive ‘freedoms’ include participation in politics, education and health care. ‘Unfreedom’ is associated with poverty, tyranny, social deprivation, and repression. In Sen’s vision development should be focused on enabling people to ‘lead the kind of lives that they have reason to value’ (ibid, p. 10). This notion of freedoms can be transferred to the social purpose/social justice agenda for lifelong learning.

Sen (1992, 2002) argues that Rawl’s conception of distributional justice focuses too much on the achievement of outcomes (the good things in life), rather than the individual freedoms that people need to have access to in order to achieve those outcomes. So, for instance, someone in Botswana’s remote San community may have access to a higher level of possessions in terms of cattle than an urban counterpart, but they may have more difficulty in converting those possessions into ‘basic capabilities’ (freedoms) that would enable them to move from one location to another

or take part in public decisions affecting community life: ‘neither primary goods, nor resources more broadly defined, can represent the capability a person actually enjoys’ (Sen 1992, p. 82). In other words, even though good things in life may be available to all, some people are less able to make use of those goods because their life circumstances are hindered by environmental or other social barriers to take advantage of the goods. Sen (1992) also argues that not everyone necessarily wants the same good things in life or to achieve the same outcomes (functionings). Therefore, he argues, Rawls has failed to recognize that not everyone has the same goals. Sen therefore prefers to talk about what freedoms one actually has, rather than simply the accessibility of those freedoms.

This critique of Rawls is continued by feminist writers in relation to the relationships that structure society (Preece 2008). So, for instance, Fraser (1997) adds to the debate by introducing the notion of ‘recognition’ rather than redistribution of the good things in life. She points out that we do not just have disparities in wealth but also in the things we are able to say and do, such as accessing clean water, education, healthcare, safety, freedom of speech, paid work etc.

All these issues are context bound and relevant to the San community in Botswana. There are many instances where women in Africa, for instance, have legal rights, but custom, culture and tradition prohibit women’s claims to property and land use (Hames 2006). So, although international agencies may support the distributional justice of making available micro-credit for poor women, this may not translate into freedoms or recognition of the women’s lack of access to profitable markets or bank accounts because their husband denies them permission to open one. In other words, distributional justice fails to take account of relational issues, resulting in unfreedoms and limitation of achievement, or, in Sen’s terminology, ‘functionings’.

Drawing on Sen’s political economy concept of capabilities as ‘freedoms’ in terms of poverty reduction, and supporting his position that Rawls fails to examine outcomes for social justice, Nussbaum (2006) attempts to adopt a universalist position for social justice. Her position also extends to non-human animals. Essentially she converts Sen’s notion of ‘freedoms’ into ten central entitlements, or capabilities which she sees as necessary for living a life of dignity. So Sen’s capabilities are defined as ‘what people are actually able to do and be’ but they are also ‘informed by an intuitive idea of a life that is worthy of the dignity of the human being’ (p. 70). In other words Nussbaum challenges situations in society where the unequal treatment of minorities is regarded as acceptable in the name of normality or tradition.

Lifelong learning that focuses on understanding the extent to which such capabilities are functioning for every individual takes us beyond simply accepting the status quo and making learning available on a distributional basis. It requires intervention and strategies for inclusion. Nussbaum’s (2006, pp. 66–77) central capabilities are briefly summarized here as reflecting learning entitlements in terms of freedoms to:

- Life—learning about healthy living and longevity
- Bodily health—including learning about nutrition and reproductive health

- Senses, imagination and thought—stimulated by appropriate learning and teaching
- Emotions—learning that we are free to build relationships
- Affiliation—connected to emotions—recognizing individual freedom to live with others, and consider their needs and dignity
- Practical reason—linked again to lifelong learning and education in the form of critical reflection
- Other species—learning to care for the world of nature
- Play—learning and enjoying leisure pursuits
- Control over one’s environment—obtaining the skills knowledge and understanding to participate in public decision making, ownership of property, employment or establishing meaningful relationships of personal choice.

These capabilities have been extensively critiqued and added to by a number of writers, particularly in the way higher education may contribute to developing an ethical value base for capabilities (Walker 2006; Vaughn and Walker 2012, for example). An approach, therefore, to lifelong learning that encourages critical appraisal of unfreedoms in contexts that constrain the opportunity to make choices and participate in society has the potential to provide a social purpose dimension to lifelong learning that is currently missing in many policy agendas.

The chapters in this book endeavour to describe and analyse ways in which context sensitive approaches to lifelong learning can connect individuals and groups and stimulate their interest in learning to learn—thus reflecting the aforementioned SADC committee definition of a development approach to lifelong learning that is framed by a social justice perspective.

However, it is important to explain briefly the policy contexts in which this book is written. The next section introduces some selective policy contexts within African states, finishing with an introduction to the more specific Botswana context and its own policies for adult and lifelong learning.

1.6 African Policy Contexts for Lifelong Learning

The lack of an African policy definition for lifelong learning has meant that the term is often used in policy documents without a clear explanation of context. The CONFINTEA VI synthesis report of African submissions regarding adult education policies indicates that few countries are operating with ratified adult education policies though many have draft policies. The policy dimension for lifelong learning is even more tenuous. In some cases adult education policies simply claim that adult education is a core feature of lifelong learning. Okech (2004) highlights that Uganda’s Education Policy White Paper uses lifelong education interchangeably with continuing and further education. Ethiopia’s Adult Education Policy (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia 2006) places adult education in a lifelong learning orientation. Other education policies argue that early years’ education and non-formal education are the foundations for lifelong learning, as in Lesotho’s Education Sector Strategic

Plan (Government of Lesotho (GOL) 2005). Similarly in Malawi its complementary basic education programme is cited as having a primary purpose for:

out-of-school children and youth to acquire the essential knowledge, skills, and values to promote self-reliance, encourage lifelong learning, and enable them to participate fully in society and its development. (Government of Malawi 2007, p. 1)

One of the few African examples where the concept is given a policy definition is in the Namibian National Policy on Adult Learning (Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture 2003). But here the term is given a general sweep without reference to the multitude of contexts and associated parameters such as issues of equity, civic participation, understanding of the globalised world etc:

Adult learning is part of the wider concept of lifelong learning, which refers to all learning activities undertaken throughout life, in many different venues. The concept covers the continuum of early childhood development, primary and secondary school, higher education, vocational training and adult learning. It provides the basis for comprehensive policies for the development of education and training systems. (p. 3)

In South Africa its recent National Development Plan follows the instrumental focus of the ‘political north’. Lifelong learning is mentioned on page 40 in its executive summary and on page 132. It is linked to employability and ‘a labour market that is more responsive to economic opportunity. This requires lifelong learning and career advancement’ (National Planning Commission 2012, p. 40). It is also linked to distance learning and widening opportunities for study in the context of continuing professional development. However, although lifelong learning is cited as a desirable goal for widening access: ‘To promote lifelong learning, post-school institutions should accept students who are academically less prepared and provide them with targeted support’ (p. 316); and as a strategy to ‘complement post-school education’ (p. 320); this is unashamedly linked to vocationalism, rather than wider goals of citizenship or participation in a democratic society. In spite of these caveats, a more recent White Paper on Post School Education and Training (Republic of South Africa 2013) specifically links adult education to community education for active citizenship with a social justice agenda. Although this reflects the country’s post apartheid agenda for social retribution, it also suggests there are windows of opportunity on the continent to develop a more comprehensive purpose for lifelong learning.

It can be seen from these selected policy statements (with the recent exception of the South African White Paper) that lifelong learning has a tendency to be equated, in African contexts, with literacy or basic education, and at best vocational education. In this latter respect African policies reflect the development agendas and conditionalities of international funding agencies such as the World Bank who prescribe lifelong learning policy in purely policy terms:

Lifelong learning—from early childhood to retirement—is education for the knowledge economy and it is as crucial in transition and developing economies as it is in the developed world. (2003: backcover)

It is perhaps inevitable that the World Bank will want to promote neo-liberal policies and to focus on the cost of lifelong learning. But the danger of this focus that is

also framed within a discourse of equity and development means that other voices are silenced and delegitimized. As can be seen from the South African Development Plan, 'equity' is reduced to accepting 'academically less prepared' students and finding ways to support them. This is not to say that such a goal is unworthy of a lifelong learning, widening participation agenda, but it is not the whole story.

Governments in Africa rely on international aid. But that international aid is framed within decontextualised arguments for growth and social cohesion that demand an uncritical transfer of, usually, 'northern', agendas.

The main World Bank focus is on acquisition of skills—in the form of technology, leadership, communication, maths, science, and methodologies and analyses that are also mathematical in approach (p. 22).

These policy ideas contrast sharply with the conceptualisation of lifelong learning in Africa identified by those authors in the first part of this chapter, and also the nature of national development needs as articulated by other writers in the 'political south'. Hoppers (1996) for instance advocates that such learning should address: peace building, the role of civil society, community involvement, women's participation in politics and human rights issues and conflict management, social justice, world complexities and sustainable development, as well as economic growth. Torres (2003, p. 134) provides the following goals for lifelong learning:

Children, youth and adults must learn to survive and preserve their own health, to work, to produce and to earn a decent living; to develop their full physical, intellectual and emotional potential; to organize, enjoy and nurture a healthy family; to communicate with others orally, in writing and through other means; to participate in the local and the broader society; to protect nature; to engage in personal and social change and development; to be aware of their rights and obligations; to make informed and responsible decisions; to share and to be useful to others; to be aware of differences and to respect them in all spheres (age, gender, culture, language, religion, ideology); to have a dialogue, to argue and to negotiate, to deal with conflict, to search for and to discriminate information; to direct change and to adapt to change; to take advantage of all education and learning opportunities and means; to enjoy learning, to learn with and from each other, and to continue learning.

While such an agenda could arguably be relevant to all nations its broad social purpose perspective for lifelong learning is essential in contexts of conflict, exploitation, ethnic tensions, extreme poverty, poor access to basic necessities, services and social security nets.

Perhaps, of particular interest in this respect is the recent study on policy considerations by Walters et al. (2012) for the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) conference. This document makes specific reference to the African challenges of poverty, democracy, social cohesion and gender equality within the context of sustainable development. The authors argue that core skills and competencies in a lifelong learning context for the continent require a social justice perspective that reflects 'capabilities' as freedoms to function, as articulated by Sen (1999) and others—rather than the more economic agenda of skills or competences. They talk about learning as lifelong, life wide and life deep—thus reflecting a more spiritual dimension to learning.

Botswana, the focus of this book, has a long history of adult education provision which has also been party to reflections and discussion on lifelong learning

(for example Youngman 2002). The following section provides a summary of the nation's policy context and focus for adult and lifelong learning.

1.7 Botswana and Its Policy Context

In 2008 the Ministry of Education and Skills Development produced a State of the Art Report (Republic of Botswana 2008) in preparation for the global CONFINTEA VI event which was held in Brazil towards the end of 2009.

The report described Botswana as a landlocked country approximately the size of France but with a population of less than 2 million. It shares borders with Namibia, South Africa, Zimbabwe and Zambia. Forty seven per cent still live in rural areas. Unemployment was officially recorded at 17.6% in 2006 and the proportion of people living below the poverty datum line was recorded as 30.6% for the period 2002–2003. The country has a national literacy rate of 81 %.

The report confirmed the Ministry of Education's commitment to the CONFINTEA agenda to promote adult education within a framework of lifelong learning. Formal adult education programmes in Botswana include: Adult basic education, adult vocational education and training, extension education and continuing education—in both distance and face to face forms.

The primary policy documents that frame Botswana's commitment to adult and lifelong learning include National Development Plans 9 and 10, the Revised National Policy on Education (Republic of Botswana [RoB] 1994), its National Policy on Vocational Education and Training (RoB 1997a) and its Vision 2016 document (RoB 1997b).

The National Development Plan number 9 (2003–2009) highlights lifelong learning as a core feature of its national strategy for human resource development. The National Development Plan 10 (NDP10) mentions the word lifelong learning once in the context of referring to its earlier NDP9 plan in relation to expanding access to education and training and 'promoting lifelong learning' (Sect. 7.21). The Revised National Policy on Education of 1994 (ROB 1994) purportedly mentions the word nine times (Botswana Gazette 2009). The Ministry's Department of Non-Formal Education (2005, p. 1) states its mission is to:

Provide education and training that is accessible to out-of-school learners and to create opportunities for lifelong learning to enable individuals to attain their full potential and contribute to national socio-economic and technological advancement.

Within this context, literacy is defined as:

A responsive and content-specific multi-dimensional lifelong learning process designed to equip beneficiaries with specialised knowledge, skills, attitudes and techniques to independently engage in practices and genres involving listening, speaking, reading, writing, numeric, technical functioning and critical thinking required in real life. (ibid, p. 5)

These various documents provide an unusual opportunity to frame lifelong learning as multi-dimensional. Although literacy is the defining medium for lifelong learning,

it is reflected as an ongoing process that is not confined to formal education. The Botswana policy documents also align themselves with the SADC protocol on Education and Training which focuses on universal literacy and numeracy, contribution to community development and life skills.

Tertiary institutions in the country also have a mandate for community engagement whereby the university staff and students may act as a resource for assisting communities in their own development goals. The University of Botswana Strategic Plan (2007), for instance, highlights priorities in line with the MDGs, including poverty reduction, food security, education and lifelong learning, and reduction of HIV/AIDS. The university's own vision statement provides a complementary platform for these policy documents, with the aim to: 'improve economic and social conditions for the nation while advancing as a distinctively African university with a regional and international outlook' (UB 2007).

The country's priority goals for adult learning and education, as stated in the CONFINTEA report, include a commitment to lifelong learning and active participation by its citizens in social, cultural and political—as well as economic development. It is thus well placed to contribute to the broader vision for lifelong learning as espoused in this chapter and articulated throughout the rest of the book.

Subsequent chapters focus on the story around lifelong learning as a university community engagement strategy by both Ba Isago University and the University of Botswana for the San community in the country's remote regions.

Chapter 2 introduces community engagement as a backdrop to the ensuing chap. three, four and five which address lifelong learning in relation to related contexts for poverty eradication. Chapter 3 focuses on Botswana's National Poverty Eradication Strategy followed by discussions on sustainable environmental education (Chap. 4) and entrepreneurship (Chap. 5).

Part two of the book focuses specifically on the practice of addressing these above issues, particularly within the San community, focusing on environmental education issues, inventive entrepreneurship education, youth and traditional leadership within the San communities and specifically the intervention of the Kellogg Foundation for facilitating community development as a lifelong learning endeavor.

Part three returns to the notion of community engagement as a broader African university project, then focusing in on the role of university engagement amongst the San population in D'Kar. In this section capacity building for sustainable development in the community, and building global partnerships, are also covered as a feature of lifelong learning to promote best practice through the community engagement mission of universities.

1.8 Concluding Summary

This chapter has provided an introduction to the complex and broad scope of lifelong learning. It has highlighted some tensions between the political north in terms of policy agendas and definitions, and the challenge of incorporating Afro-

centric dimensions that could embrace a social justice perspective. It illustrates the relatively undefined nature of lifelong learning policy in African nation states but demonstrates a commitment in Botswana that positions the book favourably to articulate how lifelong learning can practically contribute to poverty reduction. Lifelong learning is a cross cutting issue amongst all the three parts of the book and illuminated as crucial for contributing to poverty reduction, developing an entrepreneurship mindset, particularly through university community service and engagement for the ultimate goal of poverty eradication.

References

- Aitchison, J. (2003) Adult literacy and basic education: A SADC perspective. *Adult Education and Development*, 60, 161–170.
- Amutabi, M. N., & Oketch, M. O. (2009) *Studies in lifelong learning in Africa: From ethnic traditions to technological innovations*. Lewiston: Edwin Mellen Press.
- Commission of the European Communities. (2000). *A memorandum on lifelong learning*. Brussels: SEC (1832).
- Commission of the European Communities. (2012). *Education and training in a smart, sustainable and inclusive Europe*. Joint report of the Council and the Commission on the implementation of the Strategic Framework for European cooperation in education and training (ET 2020) Brussels: C70/9.
- Cooper, L., & Walters, S. (Eds). (2009). *Learning/work: Turning work and lifelong learning inside out*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.
- Crowther, J., & Sutherland, P. (2007). *Lifelong learning: Concepts and contexts*. London: Routledge/Falmer.
- De Loris, J. (1996). *Learning: The treasure within*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Dube, O. P. (2012). University engagement for environmental sustainability. In J. Preece, P. G. Ntseane, O. M. Modise, & M. Osborne (Eds.), *Community engagement in African Universities: Perspectives, prospects and challenges* (pp. 83–102). Leicester: NIACE.
- Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. (2006) *National adult education strategy*. Addis Ababa: Federal Ministry of Education.
- Field, J. (2006) *Lifelong learning and the new educational order*. Stoke on Trent: Trentham Books.
- Field, J., Gallacher, J., & Ingram, R. (Eds.). (2009). *Researching transitions in lifelong learning*. London: Routledge.
- Fordjor, P. K., Kotoh, A. M., Kpeli, K. K., Kwame, D. A., Mensa, Q. B., Owusu, E., & Mullins, B. K. (2003) A review of traditional Ghanaian and Western philosophies of adult education. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 22(2), 182–199.
- Fraser, N. (1997). *Justice interruptus*. London: Routledge.
- Government of Lesotho (GOL). (2005). *Kingdom of Lesotho education sector strategic plan 2005–2015*. Maseru: Ministry of Education and Training.
- Government of Malawi (GOM). (2007). *National education sector plan 2007–2017*. Lilongwe: Government Printers.
- Hames, M. (2006). Rights and realities: Limits to women’s rights and citizenship after 10 years of democracy in South Africa. *Third World Quarterly*, 27(7), 1313–1327.
- Holmes, A. (2003). *Smart things to know about lifelong learning*. Oxford: John Wiley and Sons.
- Jackson, S. (2010). *Innovations in lifelong learning*. London: Routledge.
- Jackson, S. (2011). *Lifelong learning and social justice*. Leicester: NIACE.
- Jarvis. (2009). *The routledge international handbook of lifelong learning*. London: Routledge.

- Lekoko, R. N., & Modise, O. M. (2011). An insight into an African perspective on lifelong learning: Towards promoting functional compensatory programmes. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 30(1), 5–18.
- Longworth, N. (1999) *Making lifelong learning work*. London: Routledge.
- Longworth, N. (2003) *Lifelong learning in action: Transforming education in the 21st century*. London: Kogan Page.
- Marks-Beale, A. (2006). *Success skills: Strategies for study and lifelong learning*. Bundbury: South Western Publishing Co.
- Mbigi, L. (2005). *The spirit of African leadership*. Randburg: Knowres Publishing (Pty) Ltd.
- Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture [Namibia]. (2003). *National policy on adult learning*. Windhoek: Solitaire Press.
- Mwaiokesyia, M. J. (2012). Scaling up the African universities' capacity for learning cities and regions: Challenges and opportunities in Tanzania and East Africa. In J. Preece, P. G. Ntseane, O. M. Modise, & M. Osborne (Eds.), *Community Engagement in African Universities: Perspectives, prospects and challenges* (pp 103–120). Leicester: NIACE.
- Nafukho, F., Amutabi, M., & Olunga, R. (2005). *Foundations of adult education in Africa*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.
- National Planning Commission [South Africa]. (2012). *National Development Plan 2030: Our future—making it work*. Pretoria: The Presidency.
- Nussbaum, M. (2006). *Frontiers of justice*. London: the Belknap Press/Harvard University Press.
- Odora Hoppers, C. A. (1996). Adult education for change and sustainable development. Mandate for action from five world conferences. Paper prepared for Experts Group Synthesis Meeting for CONFINTEA V.
- Okech, A. (Ed.). (2004). *Adult education in Uganda*. Kampala: Makerere University.
- Openjuru, G. L., & Ikoja-Odongo, J. R. (2012). From extra-mural to knowledge transfer partnerships and networking: the community engagement experience at Makerere University. In J. Preece, P. G. Ntseane, O. M. Modise, & M. Osborne (Eds.), *Community engagement in African Universities: Perspectives, prospects and challenges* (pp. 161–178). Leicester: NIACE.
- Osborne, M. and Thomas, E. (2003) *Lifelong Learning in a Changing Continent: Continuing Education in the Universities of Europe*. Leicester: NIACE.
- Preece, J. (2006) Beyond the learning society: the learning world? *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 25(3): 307–320.
- Preece, J. (2008) A social justice approach to education for active citizenship. In M. A. Peters, A. Britton, & H. Blee (Eds.), *Global citizenship education* (pp. 382–393). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Preece, J. (2009) *Lifelong learning and development: A southern perspective*. London: Continuum.
- Preece, J., Croome, D., Ntene, M., & Ngozwana, N. (2011). Nurturing lifelong learning in communities through the National University of Lesotho: Prospects and challenges. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 30(6), 713–732.
- Rawls, J. (1972) *A theory of justice*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Republic of Botswana. (1994). *Revised national policy on education*. Gaborone: Ministry of Education and Skills development.
- Republic of Botswana. (1997a). *National policy of vocational education and training*. Gaborone: Ministry of Education and Skills Development.
- Republic of Botswana. (1997b). *Vision 2016: Towards prosperity for all*. Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.
- Republic of Botswana. (2008). *State of the art for adult education CONFINTEA VI report*. Gaborone: Ministry of Education and Skills Development.
- Republic of South Africa. (2013). *White paper for post school education and training*. Pretoria: Department of Higher Education and Training.
- Rossnagel, C. S., Baron, S., Kudielka, B. M., & Schomann, K. (2010). *A competence perspective on lifelong workplace learning*. New York: Nova Science Publishers.
- Sen, A. (1992). *Inequality re-examined*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Sen, A. (1999). *Development as freedom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Sen, A. (2002). *Rationality and freedom*. Cambridge Massachusetts: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.
- Slowey, M., & Schuetze, H. (Eds.). (2012). *Global perspectives on higher education and lifelong learners*. London: Routledge.
- The Botswana Gazette. (2009). What is lifelong learning? 3rd April.
- Torres, M. (2003). Lifelong learning: A new momentum and a new opportunity for adult basic learning and education (ABLE) in the South. *Adult Education and Development Supplement*, 60, 1–240.
- UNESCO. (2009). *World Conference on Higher Education*. 5–8 July. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL). (2010). *Global report on adult learning and education*. Hamburg: UIL.
- UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL). (2013). *2nd Global report on adult learning and education*. Hamburg: UIL.
- UNESCO, & MINEDAF. (2002). *Issues and strategies for the promotion of adult education in the context of lifelong learning*, Part II. <http://portal.unesco.org/education>. Accessed 29 Feb. 2008.
- University of Botswana. (2007). *Strategic plan 2007–2012*. Gaborone: University of Botswana.
- Vaughn, R. P., & Walker, M. (2012). Capabilities, values and education policy. *Journal of Human Development and Capabilities*, 13(3), 495–512.
- Walker, M. (2006) Towards a capability-based theory of social justice for education policy-making. *Journal of Education Policy*, 21(2), 163–185.
- Walters, S., Yang, J., & Roslander, P. (2012). Promoting critical knowledge, skills and qualifications for sustainable development in Africa: How to design and implement an effective response through education and training systems. Sub theme 1: Core skills for lifelong learning and sustainable development in Africa by Triennale on Education and Training in Africa—working document. http://uil.unesco.org/fileadmin/keydocuments/Africa/en/study-on-LLL UIL_final_11-Jan-2012.pdf. Accessed 28 Jan. 2014.
- World Bank. (2003). *Lifelong learning in the global knowledge economy: Challenges for developing countries*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Bank. (2009). *Accelerating catch-up: Tertiary education for growth in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Youngman, F. (2002) Policy development for lifelong learning in Botswana. Paper presented at Inter-agency Strategic Group Meeting on Lifelong Learning, Hamburg, April, Organised by UNESCO Institute for Education and UNESCO Basic Education Division.

Chapter 2

Poverty and Community Engagement

Wapula N. Raditloaneng

2.1 Introduction

The introduction Chap. 1 laid a broad view of lifelong learning, as one of the most effective tools communities can employ to fight poverty. Poverty can be interpreted as a failure of the world to promote social justice in our quest to promote planned development for all societal groups. Undoubtedly it is a debilitating agent that manifests itself in more than economic terms such as disabled capability, erosion of self-esteem, and general lack of participation in civic life. Community engagement is a catalyst for lifelong learning and developing new ways of defining and tackling poverty. Community engagement programmes and activities may be employed to reduce or eradicate poverty to promote social justice, change and empowerment of communities.

2.2 Brief Summary of Lifelong Learning

Lifelong learning includes all forms of learning for behavior change that takes place everywhere within and outside the four walls of the classroom. This includes learning under trees, within old buildings, along the road or any other place where there are human beings. This learning takes place across a lifespan; hence its scope has no limits. It covers learning for life, and goes back to the origins of life and work. With the impact of the western notions of what counts as learning came notions of certificates and accreditation, while these are crucial to acknowledge, it is equally crucial to know that there are different formats of African Indigenous knowledge and systems of learning not packaged in western pockets. Lifelong encompasses

Wapula N. Raditloaneng (✉)
Faculty of Education, Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana,
P/Bag 00702, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: Raditloa@mopipi.ub.bw

both planned and unplanned learning through different modes of delivery such as professional development, formal school, continuing education, distance education, e-learning, correspondence, home schooling and continuing education. Illeris (2003) argues that learning is central to human nature and has three dimensions – cognitive, social and emotional. These dimensions are interdependent and have tensions as every single learning process is stretched between the three.

A research with older adults by Poon et al. (1989), suggests that lifelong learning and training is crucial to improve memory and cognitive abilities of adults in the midst of teaching intellectual patterns. The authors argue that it is crucial to monitor everyday cognition to compare laboratory work with real life situations, clinical and educational applications. An understanding of how the human memory functions is crucial for understanding age related changes, declines and how to intensive training and retraining to improve everyday functional abilities of older adults.

2.3 Botswana Lifelong Learning Policy Context

Botswana's education subsystem still lacks quality. Although literacy levels are very high (68–70%) the type of education received does not seem relevant to meet the needs of the national economy. Key issues here are widening participation in education programmes across a lifespan, and measuring that education offered is of top quality and relevance.

The overall aims of lifelong learning are to improve Botswana for better life and access to the corporate world, and to develop educational and training programmes responsive to the needs of the ever-changing economy. The objectives of lifelong learning are to promote community and human development, and an environment that helps people to be able to cope with the challenges and demands of change.

2.3.1 *Adult Education Modes of Delivery for the Promotion of Lifelong Learning*

Botswana has four major modes of adult education delivery which give opportunities for lifelong learning to take place:

1. Basic education and training: Examples include, but are not limited to Adult Basic education, Formal learning, Non Formal learning, Pre-primary learning, Primary learning, and Secondary learning and Out of school education.
2. Continuing Education: Examples include, but are not limited to Continuing education and re-entry of the adult learners, learning by special needs groups, Vocational/technical education and training, and Tertiary institutions.
3. Extension workers' education and training: Examples include, but are not limited to Extension education, Training of trainers for extension work, extra mural studies, and Life skills training.

Table 2.1 Some indicators of poverty. (Sources: Central Statistics Office (CSO), Vision 2016, the MDG Indicators Report, (2009, MDG Status Report on Botswana, (2010)

Indicator	Value/year	Percent change for each indicator
National population	2 million in 2008	2.7
Life expectancy at birth (Years)	55.1(1971); 65.3 in 1991; 64.3 (1998); 54.6 (2006).	8.7
Poverty head (%) National Poverty Line	47(1993); 30.6(2002)	16.4
Count Rate 1\$/Day Poverty Line	24.3(1992); 23.5(2002)	0.8
Poverty gap ratio	11.8(1992); 11.6 (2002)	0.2
Rate of unemployment (%)	20.8(1998); 26.2(2008)	5.4
Access to safe drinking water (%)	93.0(1990); 95.8(2006)	2.8
Access to sanitation (%)	38.0(1990); 79.8(2007)	41.8
Adult Literacy Rate (%)	19% illiterate in 2003; 81% literate (2003).	62
Child Malnutrition (%)	7.1(2003); 4.3(2009)	2.8

4. Distance education: Examples include, but are not limited to Open and distance education, Leisure education, Community education, Environmental education and tourism.

While lifelong learning takes place everywhere, there are facilities that promote lifelong learning. These include libraries, ICT, partnerships and funding.

There are varieties of definitions of poverty that focus on income insufficiency, basic needs dissatisfaction, Capabilities, and lack of participation in civic life. Such definitions also attribute poverty to gender inequalities, illiteracy and other socio-cultural factors associated with some form of disadvantage. Before moving on to definitions in details, it is important to illuminate the poverty situation in Botswana. The Table 2.1 below provides some vital indicators on, amongst others, poverty and related indicators in Botswana.

2.3.2 *The Poverty Situation*

An estimated 23% of the population lives below poverty datum line in 2009, down from 30% in 2003. Poverty manifests itself in several indicators such as, amongst others, living below the Poverty Datum Line (PDL), unemployment, life expectancy at birth, access to safe drinking water and sanitation to curb water-borne diseases, illiteracy, and child malnutrition.

In 2008, the national population was estimated at 1.8 million (2 million). Life expectancy at birth increased from 55, 5 in 1971 to 65.3 years in 1991, 64.3, and 64.3% in 1998, and further decreased to 54.4 years in 2006 due to the impact of HIV/AIDS (National Development Plan 2009/10, p. 13). Literacy rate increased from 68.9% in 1993 to about 90% by 2003. If literacy rates continue to increase

by 12% every ten years as estimated, Botswana is most likely to have a literacy of about 93% in 2013 (CSO/NFE 2003, p. 54)

The income definitions attribute poverty to lack of income and purchasing power. Poverty is traditionally defined for Botswana as the inability to afford income that is essential for meeting basic and recreational needs (UNICEF 1993; BIDPA 1997). A Poverty Datum Line (PDL) was drawn for Botswana, and based on a suggested minimum wage of about P600.00 per month (US\$ 120.00). This is an arbitrary line that divides the poor from the non-poor. According to UNICEF (1993), households with income below the poverty datum line are poverty stricken.

The Botswana Institute of Development and Policy Analysis (BIDPA) study identified poverty in terms of inability to afford basic needs such as food, clothing, shelter and education. According to this study, about 47% of Botswana's population was living in poverty in 1993/94. The figure reduced to 23% in 2007, Government of Botswana report (2010).

Poverty is also perceived as a problem caused by gender inequalities especially in patriarchal societies where women are not given the same power as men, and educational, literacy and employment opportunities that are needed for everyone to break through poverty. Women's education, and in particular, education of the girl child is important to reduce illiteracy among women and help them deal with poverty.

First, research conducted in Botswana portrays poverty as mainly reflected in skewed income distribution. However, how much income is essential to significantly reduce poverty is not clear. About 55% of women are poverty stricken (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning/Central Statistics Office 2003). The gini coefficient measures income inequality. The Maximum Equalization Percentage (MEP) indicates the percentage of income that should be taken from those who are rich to the relatively poor to attain absolute equality. These income measures are inadequate because redistribution of wealth has not been done rigorously to benefit people living in poverty.

Second, poverty is, in most cases, inherited from generation to generation though not in a linear fashion. Children born into poverty are more likely to inherit poverty from their parents than children born to rich families. Jefferies (1997a) argues that one important aspect of poverty alleviation in Botswana is to ensure that those who are born into poverty have a chance of economic and social mobility out of poverty. If this goal is to be met, then everyone, and society in general, should care about reducing or eliminating poverty through the impact of educational programmes and state based poverty eradication strategies and available packages as discussed in Chap. 3. In the final analysis, everyone should be committed to an ethic of alleviating poverty because poverty can lead to delinquency and crime, which drain public resources.

From the author's own personal and work experience, children of the poor often suffer a multiplicity of disadvantages such as illiteracy, lack of access to good quality education, inadequate or lack of income, inadequate access to information, lack of access to medical or specialist treatment, low social and self-esteem. They often lack access to facilities that may help them break through their poverty status. Children of poor single women in particular suffer the high dependency ratio and the disadvantage of having only one parent to support them financially and emotionally.

Poverty situations worsen where women do not have any source of income. The poor have low public participation, little or no voice in the Botswana society. Poor children are likely to under-perform or drop from school than children from rich families (UNDP 1997). Under five malnutrition and illiteracy among women are some of the major indications of widespread human poverty used by UN agencies.

Preece et al (2007) make a distinction between four categories of poverty: income, capability, participatory and consequential poverty.

- Income poverty is calculated on the basis of absolute income poverty using Poverty Datum line.
- Participatory poverty is measured by participation or lack of it due to a range of deprivations, “culture of silence.”
- Capability poverty is conceptualized by absence of freedom to participate in economic life, “unemployment.”
- Consequential poverty is conceived as human and political interventions on the natural or social environment in a harmful way, making it difficult to access natural resources, labour, wars and other environmental catastrophies. “inability to harness natural resources like firewood” earthquakes, floods.

Poverty is caused by both environmental and human causes. These are further discussed in Chap. 7, with a special focus on the San Community as one of those hard hit by poverty, and Chap. 8 on reducing poverty through inventive entrepreneurship skills training.

2.4 ITMUA: An Example of Community Engagement as a tool for poverty reduction

Implementing the Third Mission of Universities in Africa (ITMUA): Contributing to the Millennium Development Goals is one example of a regional action research project that sought to illuminate best practice in community engagement.

The ITMUA project which is used to inform this book chapter was a regional collaborative research project that involved four African universities: University of Botswana, National University of Lesotho, University of Calabar in Nigeria, and Chancellor College of Malawi (see university logos below).



As part of TMUA, each of the 4 participating universities carried out a self-assessment, between March and April 2010, with the view to determining the extent to which it has been involved in community service activities.

For this purpose and for the purpose of the whole project, community service was understood to mean:

Extension of university expertise to the world outside the university, the community, in the service of improving the quality of life of the community and which is effected through a university model in which community service is integral to all aspects of the university: mission, structure and organization, hiring and promotion, curriculum and teaching, research and publications etc. (Lulat 2005 p. 262).

Four universities, the National University of Lesotho (NUL), the University of Botswana (UB) the University of Calabar (Unical) and the University of Malawi (Unima), submitted reports and the contents of their submissions were summarized under the following headings: (1) country contexts within which community service was carried through (2) understandings of “community service” as reflected in the reports (3) themes explored by community services carried out (4) objectives of the community services (5) number of faculties carrying out community service (6) total number of faculties within the university (7) Number of community service projects started by individuals and (8) average age of community service.

2.4.1 Community Service—Types

1. Work carried out within a community with the dual purpose of equipping students with some practical training while at the same time teaching community members some techniques for improving on identified practices or on general living styles.
2. Work purposefully instituted by universities with the view to addressing challenges identified by particular communities.
3. Work started off in a community by an individual (who may or may not be a staff of any of the 4 universities in this project and who may be alone or collaborating with another agency or university) who is eventually joined within the same community by one of the 4 universities with the view to promoting the work originally started by the individual.

2.4.2 Themes Explored by Community Service(s) included the Following

1. Poverty reduction
2. Social inclusion
3. Health (HIV/AIDS)
4. the elderly

5. civil society
6. Environmental education

2.4.3 Objectives of Community Service(s)

1. To provide relevant information and skills which ultimately will improve practice and raise levels of daily, weekly or monthly income and thereby reduce economic poverty and poverty of information.
2. To supply both information and social services that will combine to make segments of society feel a sense of belonging.
3. To provide education in the manner HIV/AIDS particularly is to be handled to prevent its spread and to prevent that it leads to death.
4. To reach out to the elderly with the view to proffering advice on how to manage the old age pension being received in some countries and to provide health tips that would make old age life pleasurable and even longer.
5. To strengthen capacity of civil society organizations to serve communities more efficiently and more purposefully.
6. To enlighten communities on the meaning and implications of climate change and to equip them with practices that mitigate further deterioration of the environment.

2.4.4 Number of Faculties in Each University

Each of the four universities involved in the ITMUA project had a minimum of 9 and a maximum of 11 Faculties and Institutes. However, between 3 and 10 faculties were found to be involved in community service projects at the time of this project.

The least number of Faculties involved in community service was recorded in the University of Calabar while the National University of Lesotho posted the highest number of Faculties involved in community service projects.

2.4.5 Number of Projects Begun by Individuals

In all the four universities, it was found out that individual employees (mostly academic staff), started off community service projects on their own, using their own resources or with the assistance of some agencies outside their universities.

Some of these individually begun projects were eventually taken over by universities while others are in the process of involving universities. Again the National University of Lesotho posted the highest number of individual staff members that started off community service projects into which the university eventually stepped into or which are yet to involve the university.

Table 2.2 University to university performance on community service activities. (Source: ITMUA 6th Monthly Synthesis Report, (2011); ITMUA project)

University Issue	National Univer- sity of Lesotho	University of Botswana	University of Calabar	University of Malawi
Meaning of “Community Service”	Types 1, 2 and 3	Types 1, 2 and 3	Types 1 and 2	Types 1, 2 and 3
Themes explored	Poverty reduc- tion, Social inclusion, Health (HIV/AIDS), the elderly, civil society, Environ- mental education society, Environ- mental education	Poverty reduc- tion, Social inclusion, Health (HIV/AIDS), civil society, Environmental education	Poverty reduc- tion, Health (HIV/AIDS), Environmental education.	Poverty reduc- tion, Social inclusion, Health (HIV/AIDS), Environmental education
Objectives of Community Service	1, 2, 3, 4, 5 & 6	1, 2, 3, 5 & 6	1, 3 & 6	1, 2, 3, & 6
Maximum num- ber of Faculties/ Institutes	10	9	11	5
Number of Fac- ulties/Institutes running Commu- nity Services	10	7	3	5
Number of Proj- ects started off by Individuals	3	2	4	2
Age of com- munity service projects	4 to 7 years	3–7 years	3–7 years	3–7 years

2.4.6 Age of the Community Service Projects

Some of the reported community service projects are as old as 15 years; especially those that served as training workshops for students; in other words, they have been going on for up to 15 years or more. However, most of the reported projects were between 4 to 5 years old.

The following is a university to university summary of the findings:

Table 2.2 shows that 3 of the 4 participating universities operated the three concepts of community service (training students and helping community, designing community service specifically for the benefit of community and buying into community service started off by individuals). The fourth university (the University of Calabar) was found to operate only the first two of these concepts of community service.

a. **Lesotho Policy context for university community engagement**

The policy context for Lesotho's national development priorities are inscribed in the following documents:

- Lesotho Vision 2020: National vision for Lesotho (Government of Lesotho 2001)
- Kingdom of Lesotho Poverty Reduction Strategy 2004/5–2006/7 (Government of Lesotho 2004)
- Kingdom of Lesotho Education Sector Strategic Plan 2005–2015
- National University of Lesotho Strategic Plan 2007–2012

Supporting documents include the Government's Gender and Development Policy and ICT Policy papers.

The University's vision is:

To be a leading African university responsive to national socio-economic needs, committed to high quality teaching, lifelong learning, research and community service (p. 4).

In this respect the university has positioned itself to serve the development needs of the nation and embraced the concept of lifelong learning as a strategy to meet these needs. The university further strengthens its responsiveness to regional engagement in two of its strategic goals. Goal 2 emphasises improved relevance and quality of teaching and learning; Goal 8 emphasises strengthened local, regional and international partnerships, with a view to addressing critical national issues, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), providing community services and engaging in partnerships with private, public and international bodies (p. 13) with relevant and responsive programmes (p. 14).

The university, therefore, has, as part of its mission and strategy, a commitment to community engagement—both for community service and as a consultative resource to make its programmes relevant to the nation.

In terms of government development goals, the government's PRSP and ESSP both highlight that the nation has signed up to international agreements and targets as articulated in the Education For All (EFA) and MDG statements. For Lesotho, the PRSP priorities include employment creation and income generation, improved agriculture and food security, deepening democracy and local governance, improved access to health care and services to vulnerable groups, relevance of education, promotion of culture, tourism, environmental conservation and recognition of cross cutting issues of gender, HIV/AIDS, and the needs of children and youth. In this respect the government has committed itself to achieving all the development goals, with a particular focus on poverty, education and health.

The nation's broader concerns are also reflected in the Vision 2020 which places emphasis on democracy, good governance, political participation, stability and peace, strong economy and well established technology, environmental management and justice for all. The Vision highlights relevant and productive education, lifelong learning, vocational, technical and entrepreneurial education and food security as priorities for national development.

The Education Sector Strategic Plan similarly promotes the idea of lifelong learning, relevant curriculum and the expectation that higher education will supply high level human resource for the world of work (p. 80). While Government emphasis for higher education is to respond to the world of work, this world of work can be interpreted widely to include all aspects of human life. For example the world of work includes management of human relations, cooperation and democratic participation in decision making which in turn affects all aspects of culture, health, environment, economy and politics.

It can be argued, therefore that the ITMUA project has direct policy relevance to national and university priorities since it is premised on ensuring communication between higher education, community, employer and government stakeholders in order to establish learning relevance in relation to development needs.

b. Botswana policy context for university community engagement

Community service is defined as one of the criteria for promotion of UB staff. Community service is described for the University of Botswana by SAPC as indicated in the self-assessment report.

Through university staff, the UB functions as a “resource” for innovative ideas, ‘think tank or source of knowledge’, serves in advisory capacity to community organizations, commissions, boards, and promotes innovations in Information Communication Technology (ICT), social and cultural matters.

The policy context for the University of Botswana and Botswana’s national development priorities are inscribed in the following documents:-

Botswana Vision 2016: National Vision for Botswana (Government of Botswana) GOB/UNDP/MFDP Poverty Reduction Strategy, 2004; Millennium Development Goals (MGDS) of 2004,

The current Botswana’s National Development Plan 10, the Agricultural Policy and Strategy for diversification of the sector during NDP 10), the District and Village Development Plans.

Supporting documents include the National Commission on Education of 1993, The National Literacy Survey of 2003, Gender and Development Policy, The National Gender Framework, the National Youth Policy, the National Policy on Culture (1996), the national HIV/AIDS policy, ratification of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, advocacy for the signing of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development, and the Household Income and Expenditure Survey results.

The University of Botswana’s vision is:

- To be a leading ‘*centre of academic excellence in Africa and the world*’ (UB Calendar)
- The mission is to ‘*improve economic and social conditions for the nation while advancing as a distinctively African university with a regional and international outlook*’.

Other universities have also developed vision and mission statements. Based on missions, visions and other statements of intent by all universities represented in ITMUA, a common thread is that UB as the first main campus and others that became accredited over the last couple of years are willing to work with communities

in line with the national vision 2016 agenda. The University of Botswana in particular has developed priority areas that include five strategic areas: access and participation, relevant and high quality programmes, intensifying research, and strengthening engagement with different communities. The development of the UB research strategy, and support centers such as Academic development, (CAD), Office of Research and Development, Office of International Partnerships, Center for San Studies, to name a few, are meant to strengthen the quality of teaching, curriculum development, innovations in teaching and research. The ongoing restructuring of the University of Botswana is expected to strengthen its responsiveness to national, regional international and community engagement to meet the five priority areas mentioned above. The university, therefore, has an intension to commit community engagement within and outside Gaborone.

The national developmental agenda is guided by five principles of development, democracy, self-reliance unity, *botho* (a well-rounded character), Vision 2016 (Presidential Task Group 1997) which echoes 7 pillars, cognizant of all the MGDS. The pillars address, amongst others, access to health, (an HIV/AIDS free nation and prevention of other illnesses by 2016), improved access to information, basic and tertiary education, as well as poverty eradication, innovation and productivity, notions of caring and compassion, morality and tolerance. Each of the 7 pillars comprises strategies for meeting the stated goals by 2016 when Botswana turns 50 years as an independent nation. A Vision Council and the Secretariat were set up to drive the vision from dream to reality. With assistance from international development partners especially the UN, Botswana initiated the Human Development Initiative of 1990, The National Strategy for Poverty Reduction and Government of Botswana schemes that support small to medium enterprises for employment creation, and many others. Overall, the policy context is conducive for the strengthening of community service.

c. Nigerian Policy context for university community engagement

The policy context for Nigeria's national development priorities can be found within the following documents:

- Nigeria's Vision 2020
- National Empowerment and Economic Development Strategies (NEEDS)
- ECOWAS Vision 2020
- National Policy on Education 2004
- University of Calabar Strategic Plan 2002–07

Specifically, the University's vision is:

To attain and maintain the highest form of excellence in teaching, research publications, and service. (p. 10)

Consequently, the University of Calabar has always realized its place within the scheme of Nigerian national developmental efforts; its Vision suggests that its contributions to national development come partly through the medium of its service to the community. The University's Strategic Plan borrowed from the *1992 Federal Republic of Nigeria Higher Education in the Nineties and Beyond Report* which metamorphosed into the *2004 National Policy on Education*; in the *2004 National*

Policy on Education, it is stated that tertiary education is education given in the universities and other post-secondary institutions; it is equally stated that the goal of tertiary education is among other things:

1. To promote and encourage scholarship and community service; and
2. To promote national and international understanding and interaction (p. 36)

At the international level, the primary development agenda that Nigeria subscribes to, is that defined by the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), Africa being the corner stone of its foreign policy; ECOWAS 2020 Vision currently emphasizes good governance, sustainable management of the environment and the protection of women, children and youths through provision of appropriate education, skills and counseling; many of these goals overlap with the MDGs thereby suggesting that Nigeria and by extension University of Calabar are also involved in promoting the MDGs through involvement in the promotion of national and regional development agendas.

ITMUA project, which seeks to promote university-community relations and which seeks to encourage funders of tertiary institutions to key into the spirit of community service for development purposes, is therefore topical, timely and relevant to current maneuverings at redirecting and refocusing development agendas in Nigeria and other developing countries.

d. Malawi Policy context for university community engagement

Community Service Context for Malawi Comprised the Following

- a. Work carried out within a community with the dual purpose of equipping students with some practical training while at the same time teaching community members some techniques for improving on identified practices or on general living styles.
- b. Work purposefully instituted by universities with the view to addressing challenges identified by particular communities.
- c. Work started off in a community by an individual (who may or may not be a staff of any of the 4 universities in this project and who may be alone or collaborating with another agency or university) who is eventually joined within the same community by one of the 4 universities with the view to promoting the work originally started by the individual.

The policy context for Malawi's national development priorities are inscribed in the following documents:

- Malawi Vision 2020: National vision for Malawi
- Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS) 2006–2011
- National Education Sector Plan (NESP) 2008–2017
- University of Malawi Strategic Plan 2004/5–2009/10 (University of Malawi 2004)

The University's vision is:

To be an academic institution providing relevant world class education, research and services for sustainable development of Malawi and the world. (University of Malawi 2004, p. 12)

In this vision the university has positioned itself to serve the development needs of the nation and the world thereby embracing what is contained in national and international development policies including the MGDs. The university strengthens its responsiveness to national and international needs in its four strategic areas: teaching and learning; research and consultancy; outreach/services; and, cross-cutting issues. Goals under teaching and learning emphasise increased access and improved relevance and quality of teaching and learning and strengthened local, regional and international partnerships. While some of these goals are also destined to be achieved through research and consultancy, the recognition of outreach/services to communities further strengthen the commitment to achieving national development needs. This coupled with the inclusion of cross-cutting issues of HIV and AIDS, gender and human rights (p. 39) helps in addressing critical national issues, including those reflected by the internationally agreed Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The university, therefore, has, as part of its vision and strategy, a commitment to improving the lives of individuals both locally and internationally, thus education linked to community engagement—both for community service and as a consultative resource to make its programmes relevant to the nation.

In terms of national development goals, the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS) is the living policy document. Its objective is to reduce poverty through sustained economic growth and infrastructure development. In order to achieve this goal, six priority areas of agriculture and food security; irrigation and water development; transport infrastructure development; energy generation and supply; integrated rural development; and prevention and management of nutrition disorders, HIV and AIDS have been identified. Education comes as one of the subthemes under the theme of Social development, which is one of the five themes including sustainable economic growth, social protection and disaster risk management, infrastructure development and improved governance. The areas of emphases under education are increasing access and retention; improving quality and relevance, improving equity, management and supervision and training of teachers. The National Education Sector Plan (NESP) amplifies the education component of the MGDS, in particular increasing access and retention; improving quality and relevance, improving equity, management and supervision and training of teachers all relating to the fulfillment of the MGD and EFA goals. Relevant education would mean education that addresses the development needs of the nation that are built in the six priority areas of the MGDS and the MDGs. In this respect the government has committed itself to achieving the development goals of both the nation and the world. This development agenda informs the university's vision and mission.

The Nation's broader concerns are also reflected in the Vision 2020 which places emphasis on good governance, sustainable economic growth and development, vibrant culture, well developed economic infrastructure, food security and nutrition, science and technology-led development, social sector development, fair and equitable distribution of income and wealth, and sustainable environmental management. The Vision recognises relevant and productive education as key to achieving its areas of emphases and therefore contributing to national development.

It can be argued, therefore that the ITMUA project has direct policy relevance to national and university priorities since it is premised on ensuring communication

between higher education, community, employer and government stakeholders in order to establish relevant education in relation to development needs. The focus is on poverty reduction, education and health.

Consequently, the following was the set of concepts and understandings of community service within the framework of which they carried through their community service projects.

The following is a university to university summary of the findings:

Table 2.2 shows that 3 of the 4 participating universities operated the three concepts of community service (training students and helping community, designing community service specifically for the benefit of community and buying into community service started off by individuals). The fourth university (the university of Calabar) was found to operate only the first two of these concepts of community service.

Table 2.2 equally shows that the National University of Lesotho explored the themes of Poverty reduction, social inclusion, health (HIV/AIDS), the elderly, civil society and environmental education; University of Botswana explored these same themes except that dealing with the elderly; University of Malawi explored the same themes except those dealing with the elderly and the civil society; University of Calabar community services on their part, focused on only three themes, namely, poverty reduction, health and environmental education. Consequently, the objectives in carrying out community service in each university were related to the themes that were explored; in other words, while all the objectives mentioned earlier applied to the National University of Lesotho, only those related to the themes explored by other universities applied to each of them.

Unical had a total of 11 faculties and institutes or schools, NUL had 10, UB had 9 while Unima had 5 faculties/institutes; however, 3, 10, 7 and 5 faculties/institutes/schools were involved in community service in each university respectively. While all existing faculties/institutes in NUL and Unima had their hands on some community service activities only 78% and 27% of the faculties/institutes ran any community service in UB and Unical respectively.

Four individuals in Unical, 3 in NUL, 2 each in UB and Unima started off community service projects; while all other universities bought into these individually inspired community service projects, Unical is the only university which was yet to into the 4 projects started off by individual staff members. While a number of community service projects were found to be decades old, the average ages of community service projects in all the 4 universities were found to be between 3 and 7 years.

The overall aim of community engagement is community development. What then is community development?

2.4.7 Community Development

The regional collaborative research study on Community Services and engagement was done through a four stage case study using Action Research discussed in Chap. 11 of this book. Part of the mission of Universities globally is to eradicate

poverty by infusing programs in their third mission—Community engagement and service. This third mission of Universities has been undeveloped due to the global and clear demands of teaching and research.

According to Innam Schuetze,

While Colleges and Universities frequently promote ‘service’ as a mission equal to teaching and research, this is not always reflected in faculty reward systems (p. 8).

There are a range of third mission activities as follows:-

- Community based research and learning
- Public Courses and Lectures/knowledge transfer
- Consultants by individuals and teams
- Workshops and other contributions to learned societies.
- Universities continuing education programs. The use of ICT, Internationalization, marketing institutions, ranking of Universities. Commercialization of knowledge, and models of the emerging trends in the lives of Universities and how these affect community service delivery.

2.4.8 Issues

The extent to which Universities perceive engagement as part of their core business remains vague. There was however, an adopted definition of University Community engagement, and measurement of what counts as University engagement

MDG 2 seeks to achieve universal primary education. Primary school enrollment for children aged 6–12 years was above 90% until 2005 when it declined to 86% in 2009. The net enrollment rate of 7–13 years 100% in 2002 and declined to 93% in 2009. This suggests most children start school at 7 years.

On RB2 Air Monday 23rd July 2012, the author had a one hour presentation of her book outline and key highlights on air about the book. The RB2 programme “Itemoge” or “Inner Self” is a forum that encourages Batswana to take note of their strength in whatever they are worth. For the 23rd July 2012 program, the chapter author was on air to dialogue with the nation on their realization of their own role in poverty eradication, informed by the three parts of the book. In response to the presentation a number of Batswana called to dialogue with the author for 30 min highlighting their views summarized as follows:-

Botswana has also set up to look to Asia on poverty (India and China) through a memorandum of agreement to “reduce poverty, promote Agricultural development and fight hunger. The three countries will assist each other on Social development issues. The plan includes cash transfer initiatives, technology and increased access to education, health and welfare.” (p. 4 Midweek Sun, 25th July 2012).

The development above was the brain child of a trip to China and India by a Sub-Committee on poverty eradication led by Botswana’s Minister of Presidential Affairs and Public Administration (PAPA). The purpose was to benchmark anti-poverty, strategies and programmes used by the two nations in alleviating their citizens from poverty.

2.5 A Statement from the Community Development Foundation (UK)

Community development is a structured intervention that gives communities greater control over the conditions that affect their lives. This does not solve all the problems faced by a local community, but it does build up confidence to tackle such problems as effectively as any local action can. Community development works at the level of local groups and organisations rather than with individuals or families. The range of local groups and organisations representing communities at local level constitutes the community sector.

Community development is a skilled process and part of its approach is the belief that communities cannot be helped unless they themselves agree to this process. Community development has to look both ways: not only at how the community is working at the grass roots, but also at how responsive key institutions are to the needs of local communities.

A Working Statement on Community Development (from the Standing Conference for Community Development—a UK wide development network).

This is adopted as a move towards our understanding of Community Development.

- Community Development is crucially concerned with the issues of powerlessness and disadvantage: as such it should involve all members of society, and offers a practice that is part of a process of social change.
- Community Development is about the active involvement of people in the issues which affect their lives. It is a process based on the sharing of power, skills, knowledge and experience.
- Community Development takes place both in neighbourhoods and within communities of interest, as people identify what is relevant to them.
- The Community Development process is collective, but the experience of the process enhances the integrity, skills, knowledge and experience, as well as equality of power, for each individual who is involved.
- Community Development seeks to enable individuals and communities to grow and change according to their own needs and priorities, and at their own pace, provided this does not oppress other groups and communities, or damage the environment.
- Where Community Development takes place, there are certain principles central to it. The first priority of the Community Development process is the empowering and enabling of those who are traditionally deprived of power and control over their common affairs. It claims as important the ability of people to act together to influence the social, economic, political and environmental issues which affect them. Community Development aims to encourage sharing, and to create structures which give genuine participation and involvement.
- Community Development is about developing the power, skills, knowledge and experience of people as individuals and in groups, thus enabling them to undertake initiatives of their own to combat social, economic, political and environmental problems, and enabling them to fully participate in a truly democratic process.
- Community Development must take the lead in confronting the attitudes of individuals and the practices of institutions and society as a whole which

discriminates unfairly against black people, women, people with disabilities and different abilities, religious groups, elderly people, lesbians and gay men, and other groups who are disadvantaged by society. It also must take a lead in countering the destruction of the natural environment on which we all depend. Community Development is well placed to involve people equally on these issues which affect all of us.

- Community Development should seek to develop structures which enable the active involvement of people from disadvantaged groups, and in particular people from Black and Minority Ethnic groups.

2.6 Conclusions

Lifelong education and learning are essential for the poor to develop new ways of tackling poverty within their own contexts through organized and unorganized educational and lifelong learning initiatives respectively. Although there are many definitions of what counts as lifelong learning and educational programmes, these should be contextualized to promote best community development practices.

Poverty is a multidimensional problem of income insufficiency, incapacity, limited or no choices, and lack of participation. It disproportionately affects different communities by age, class, gender, geographical location and ethnic group. Poverty eradication through lifelong learning has the goal to improve quality of life and suggestive of the fact that in human existence, learning never stops to deal with real life situations like poverty. Poverty eradication takes many forms that include state and non-state based programmes, and university community engagement.

During the first decade of the twenty-first century, African universities have been found to be involved in the promotion of community service projects within the context of community service policy operating within their countries; the themes most explored by these universities include poverty reduction, health with emphasis on control of the spread of HIV/AIDS, strengthening of the capacities of civil societies and environmental education.

In all university case studies cited, it can be concluded that the social, technological, political and cultural environments are conducive for poverty definition, programmes that range from poverty reduction to eradication with university community development as one of the many tools of engagement. Universities' management must be urged by all concerned stakeholders, including African governments, and organizations of the civil society, to perceive and implement engagement as part of their core business and not as an afterthoughts or forgotten items for staff assessment criteria. It can be argued that the socio-cultural, technological and political environments cited in this chapter are conducive to promote lifelong learning, poverty reduction and eradication, and university community engagement to promote social justice.

References

- Botswana Institute of Development and Policy Analysis. (1997). *Study of poverty and poverty alleviation*. Gaborone: BIDPA.
- Central Statistics Office/Department of Non- Formal Education. (2003). *Report of the Second National Literacy Survey in Botswana*. Gaborone: Central Statistics Office.
- Government of Lesotho (2001) Kingdom of Lesotho Poverty Reduction Strategy 2004/5–2006/7 (Government of Lesotho 2004)
- Government of Lesotho (2004) Lesotho Vision 2020: National vision for Lesotho (Government of Lesotho 2001)
- Illeris, K. (2003). *The three dimensions of learning: Contemporary learning theory in the tension field between the cognitive, the emotional and the social*. Florida: Krieger.
- Jefferies, K. (1997a). Poverty in Botswana. In Botswana Society (Ed.), *Poverty and plenty- The Botswana experience* (pp. 30–60). Gaborone: Mac Millan.
- Lulat, Y. G. M. (2005). *A History of african higher education from antiquity to the present*. Santa Barbara: Greenwood Publishing Group. Mobilizing Regional Capacity Initiative (MRCI) Cycle 3 Grants 2009: Project Proposal to AAU/DIFD.
- Ministry of Finance and Development Planning/Central Statistics Office. (2003) *Household Income and Expenditure Survey*. Government Printer, Gaborone.
- Poon, L. W., Rubin D. C., & Wilson B. A. (1989). *Everyday cognition in adulthood and later life*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Preece, J. P., Ruud van der, V., & Raditloang W. N. (2007). *Adult education and poverty reduction— A global priority*. Papers from the conference held at University of Botswana 14th to 16th June 2004. Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana. Gaborone: Lentswe la Lesedi.
- Presidential Task Group on a Long Tem Vision for Botswana- towards Prosperity for all. (1997). *A Long Tem Vision for Botswana—towards Prosperity for all*. Gaborone: R T esidential Task Group a Long Tem Vision for Botswana.
- Republic of Botswana. (2010). MDG Status Report on Botswana. Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.
- Republic of Botswana. (1996). *National policy on culture for Botswana*. Gaborone: Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs.
- UNICEF. (1993). *Women and children in Botswana: A Situation Analysis*. Gaborone: UNICEF.
- United Nations Development Programme, UNDP (1997) *Human Development Report 1997: Human Development to Eradicate Poverty* Technical Report. UNDP, New York.
- University of Malawi. (2004) *University of Malawi Strategic Plan 2004/5–2009/10*.
- University of Malawi Strategic Plan. 2004/5–2009/10 (University of Malawi, 2004).

Further Reading

- Lulat Y. G. M. (2005a) *A History of African Higher Education from Antiquity to the Present: A Critical Synthesis Westport* (pp. xii +624) Conn: Praeger.
- Mobilizing Regional Capacity Initiative (2009) *Proposal on Implementing the Third Mission of Universities in Africa (ITMUA). Contributions to Millennium the Development Goals*. Regional Proposal Submitted to AAU/DIFD.
- Nafukho, F. M. (2009). The place of lifelong learning in promoting social justice among African societies. In M. Amutabi & M. Oketch (Eds.), *Studies in lifelong learning in Africa* (pp. 37–54). Lewiston: The Edwin Mellen Press.
- University of Botswana. (1993) *Calendar*. Gaborone: University of Botswana.

Chapter 3

Botswana's National Poverty Eradication Policy and Strategies

Wapula N. Raditloaneng, Morgen Chawawa

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of Botswana's National Policy on poverty eradication, and previous efforts to eradicate poverty, and a critique of poverty eradication strategy.

Poverty eradication programmes have been in Botswana from time immemorial. It is important to note that the post independent Botswana has intensified poverty reduction programmes to prevent human loss, brand it with names such as poverty reduction, eradication, and be politically correct as a democratic state. The government also became very ambitious and strategic that poverty reduction was just a bridge, a transitional means to an end to the ultimate and most desired goal of poverty eradication. Earlier programmes discussed below, some of which failed and got replaced, focused mainly on reducing poverty. The National Poverty Eradication Strategy was incepted upon the realization that piecemeal efforts would not significantly reduce poverty. The Government of Botswana decided that what would make meaning is to not just reduce but eradicate poverty "*Nyeletso Lehuma*". The Government of Botswana embarked on poverty eradication through programmes such as agriculture and land use reform, resettlement policy, entrepreneurship and youth empowerment. Several programmes with poverty reduction strategies were put in place for the citizenry. Amongst these packages that include backyard gardening

W. N. Raditloaneng (✉)
Faculty of Education, Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana,
P/Bag 00702, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: Raditloa@mopipi.ub.bw

Morgen Chawawa
Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

3.2 State Based Poverty Reduction Policies and Programmes

Two of the most important developments during the period 1974–1978 having consequences on the agricultural land rights and tenure of the San are the Tribal Grazing Land Policy (TGLP) in the Western Sandveld and the settlement policy in the Ghanzi district. *The Tribal Grazing Land Policy (TGLP)* In 1975, in the area called the Western Sandveld, located east of the Central Kalahari Game Reserve (CKGR), the government published a planning document for the TGLP. Tribal land would be de-gazetted; their control removed from the tribal authorities and handed over to the land boards. Its purpose was to “...set out guidelines for the implementation of a land tenure reform designed to halt the degradation of land by overgrazing, which had become particularly severe in the populated parts of eastern Botswana. The policy proposed to do this principally by enclosure. Individuals with many cattle... would be assigned exclusive rights over defined areas of grazing land, which they would be encouraged to enclose” (Wily 1981p. 1).

By the time this policy was announced, the San were already severely disadvantaged. Comprising only an estimated 6% of the area's population, they lived in a serf-like relationship with their Tswana patrons. The official rationale given for the TGLP policy was for veld-conservation measures, to promote income equality in rural areas and allow sustained commercialisation of the livestock industry (Hitchcock 1996, p. 30). In reality though the desire of wealthy Tswana cattle owners to acquire fenced ranches, among them politicians and civil servants, long pre-dated ecological concerns (Wily 1981, p. 34, 46). The influential cattle lobby prevailed, despite Wily's efforts and land use plans developed by experts as well as detailed studies of a host of sympathetic anthropologists and other researchers. These demonstrated the presence and promoted the interests of the significant numbers of San (so-called non-stockholders) in the intended TGLP areas. The TGLP proceeded in spite of the demonstrated unlawfulness of giving populated areas to cattle farmers and syndicates (Hitchcock 1987, p. 325–9). Thomas (personal communication 1999) argues that the settlement policy actually became a tool for dispossession. Registration of the traditional waterholes and sip-wells of the San was systematically refused; while others were able to have hand-dug wells registered by the land Board and were subsequently allocated grazing rights over an area of 40,000 ha. Hitchcock (1991, p. 4) concludes that

Many of the areas where ranches are being established are the same ones that have supported foraging and part-time food producing populations for generation. The TGLP, initiated with World Bank support in Botswana in 1975, led to the dispossession and impoverishment of substantial numbers of people, a significant portion of whom were San. The Government of Botswana later acknowledged the adverse effect of the TGLP as contributing to the displacement of San for their hunting and gathering activities (Ministry of Local Government and Lands 1987, p. 14). This has however not been followed by policy reversals or the reallocation of land.

3.2.1 *The Ghanzi Settlement Policy*

The white farmers had been able to oppose the settlement of coloured and black farmers in the Ghanzi area until independence. Since 1966 however, Tswana have also been able to settle and buy farms in this prized free-hold farming area. Concern had already been expressed in the early 60 s about the plight of the Ghanzi Farm Bushmen. They had been made landless by the steady expansion of a block of fenced, freehold farms and had lost employment opportunities as farmers began to work more commercially and preferred the “more reliable Bantu labour”. These concerns however did not prevent a great expansion in this period and another 150 farms were given out. This virtually eliminated all hunting and gathering opportunities in the Farm block. Wily subsequently pursued an active settlement policy in the Ghanzi district. Her purpose was to secure as much land as possible in the traditional hunting and gathering territories and provide a secure source of water, before the remaining land would also be given out to cattle farmers. The establishment of water rights through the drilling of boreholes would provide the community with land rights. At the time that this policy was advocated, the San lived scattered over 208 cattle posts in the Ghanzi farm block (Childers 1976, p. 86). The only settlements that had already been established were Bere (where Wily herself has served as a teacher) and D’Kar, a mission project. This area is very important to study because it was originally left out but later included in development projects before the advent of donor fatigue. The idea of settlements was not new. Failed settlement schemes had already been undertaken in 1910 and 1937 with the objective of resettling Naro in order to reduce squatting, prevent bush fires and reduce stock theft (Hitchcock and Holm 1991, p. 8, Hitchcock 1987, p. 307). Wily writes: “... (i) In Ghanzi District...the whereabouts of San were largely known. Scattered, independent San groups would be assisted to “settle” in their present location and these were marked in District Land Use maps. The 5,000 squatters on the Ghanzi Freehold Farms would be provided with land and water in areas adjacent to the farms ... Plans were made for the 500 or so squatters on the Xanagas freehold block to “have their own place” off the farms under the auspices of an agricultural project” (Wily 1981, p. 48). Later, the settlement policy of the RAD programme was severely criticized. In an evaluation, Hitchcock (1988, p. 2) argues: “There are a number of problems with the villagisation approach supported by the Government of Botswana: (1) many RADs do not want to live in villages. (2) There is not enough money...to establish the number of settlements that would be necessary. (3) The amounts of land being granted to RAD settlements are insufficient to maintain a mixed subsistence base involving foraging, food production, and wage labour. (4) It is still an open question as to whether or not RADs will be given full title to the land on which they are living or will be moved to. (5) There are many environmental, social, and economic problems relating to the settlements, including higher levels of morbidity, mortality, fertility, social conflict, resource depletion and expanded poverty.” The problem was clearly the dual nature of the programme objectives. Where Wily and others saw the settlement strategy as a way to secure rights of land tenure and water, the official policy became one of integration and assimilation

into the Tswana society through a villagisation policy. The main objective of the RAD programme was to "...facilitate the integration of the marginalised sections of the population into the mainstream of society and to develop rural settlements to a level that is comparable with that of other rural villages in the country..." (Draft policy MLGLH 1993 as quoted by Saugestad 1994, p. 6). In retrospect, the official and the hidden objectives of the initial settlement policy were probably mutually exclusive. The Botswana government did not consider hunting and gathering as a civilized or proper use of the land (Guenther 1986, p. 313) expecting Bushmen residents to use land and water development for agricultural and herding schemes, and not making enough land available to support foraging activities. As the settlements were officially intended for all "RADs" and not exclusively for the San, security of tenure was not achieved. Other ethnic groups encroached on boreholes supplied to the Basarwa RADs (Young 1995, p. 3, Hitchcock 1996, p. 37). There is a structural conflict of interest between the need for defensible land rights for the rural poor and the interest of cattle owners to make use of the public services that are available, that cannot be solved by a public policy of free settlement for all citizens (Saugestad 1998, p. 178). The long-term viability of the settlements is still highly questionable. Production and income-generating activities have yet to be dealt with effectively (Hitchcock 1985, p. 61) and more recently, the Government itself has questioned the intrinsic economic viability of the settlements in terms of their remoteness from markets, since hunting and gathering are no longer viable options for subsistence (MLGLH 1994, p. 3). In most official documents, improved access of RADs to land is a stated goal. However the alliance of cattle wealth with political and government authority is increasingly at the cost of the small stockholder and the growing portion of the population who have no stock at all. RADP expanded its focus to all remote area communities. A major component of the RADP was the Economic Promotion fund to facilitate employment creation in identified areas defined as settlements. Remote area communities' settlements between 250 and 499 people with inadequate water and no or few land rights.

The 2009 RADP document indicates that in 1985, the government of Botswana reviewed the programme and renamed it Accelerated Remote Area Development Programme (ARADP) in 1987. A special rural development program was launched in 1989 covering seven districts: North West, Kweneng, Central, Ghanzi, Kgalegardi, Southern and Kgatleng. This was formed to establish permanent settlements, foster economic activity and provide public services with a view to improving living conditions of remote area dwellers.

During NDP 7, a reorientation of the RADP was suggested to incorporate political, social and economic empowerment. The 1990 review identified predominance of poverty as the main challenge to the programme. In 2003, the RADP was revised to align it to Vision 2012 and other national policies. Remote area issues are mainstreamed into Revised Rural Development Policy National Poverty reduction strategies of 2003 and National settlement policy (NSP).

In 2011, the Government of Botswana consolidated the three into the Affirmative Action Policy (AAP) which spreads across several sectors within the Government of Botswana and Parastatals. This covers issues of tax windows, waivers for access

to education, access to land and financial assistance for elimination of absolute poverty. Due to harsh climatic conditions, drought has rendered Agriculture very unreliable as the backbone of peasant economy. The Ipelegeng programme (self help) has become a prominent welfare poverty eradication programme.

3.2.2 *Poverty Eradication Programmes*

- *Ipelegeng Programme*

Sustainable livelihood programme is a programme designed to assist small business people on what they are capable of doing for poverty eradication funded projects include juice making, landscaping, and basketry and jewellery production. Others were trained in food preservation and later sewing from homes for those who can later establish sustainable businesses. Other beneficiaries are engaged to clear major roads as part of the cleanup campaign.

- *Basarwa Development Initiative*

In 1970, the Government of Botswana introduced these Basarwa Development initiatives to help Basarwa adapt to the evolving economy of post-independence Botswana. This initiative was established cognizant of underdevelopment perceived very rife in Basarwa inhabited areas. This was struck off in 1978 and replaced with Remote Area Development Programme

- *Accelerated Rural Development Programme*

Tribal Grazing Land Policy (TGLP). This was an agricultural programme in the early 1970s which aimed to control grazing and improve livestock rearing. Marginal sections of the rural areas were displaced by expansion of livestock farming.

- *Remote Area Development Programme*

RADP had a broader scope of average than the Basarwa Development Initiative. The Government of Botswana realized that there were other equally poor but neglected ethnic groups which needed the same level of support as Basarwa. When reflecting back years later on this turbulent period, Wily admits that the original RADP strategy was opportunistic.

The launching of an explicit land rights programme was unthinkable and RADP could only survive as long as it did not directly challenge land distribution. The system was to be “manipulated” to the maximum extent possible and be addressed to the “very poor” citizens, not the San per se (Wily 1994:16). Thus, the settlement policy was built on San citizenship, not their ethnicity (Saugestad 1994, p. 3). On the district level there may have been an initial awareness among government officials that the settlements were to provide for “Basarwa who desire to live in a place away from the Ghanzi farms” and prospective residents were to be judged by their ethnic status (Childers et al. 1982, p. 15), but such an ethnic preference was never officially adopted and also in practise quickly abolished.

3.2.3 Citizen Entrepreneurship Development Authority (CEDA) Programs

CEDA programmes target citizens interested in small to medium scale businesses by providing them with business training, finances and expertise to start and sustain businesses. The first step is to have a business idea, and convert it into a draft a business development to be considered for sponsorship by CEDA. Projects sponsored in the past range from agricultural projects to other income generating projects. There are a few success stories of successful CEDA sponsored projects while others have collapsed.

3.2.4 Young Farmers

Youth unemployment is very rife and the Young Farmers sponsorship initiative was designed to provide technical and financial assistance to the youth (18–39 years old) who would like to transform the agricultural sector through commercial farming. Projects include pastoral and arable agriculture type throughout the country. Some farmers rear cows for producing milk, while others rear same for meat. Others specialize in small stock (Sheep, goats, poultry, piggery). The project faces many challenges because the youth would like to engage in income generating projects that bear fruits immediately. To transform the agricultural sector from subsistence to commercial mode is a long term projects that requires a lot of resilience and enormous investment before any gains are made.

3.2.5 Backyard Vegetable Gardening Projects

The Ministry of Agriculture (MOA) and the Office of the President Poverty Eradication Unit are key actors in encouraging Botswana to grow backyard vegetable gardens to ensure food security as part of the efforts to reduce poverty. Residents of Phuduhudu, Lesoma, Ramotswa and other villages have joined the bandwagons to grow vegetables. Although lack of water is the major constraints, a few success stories were noted in 2012 with documentation of what worked for a few resilient individuals. Everyone in the country including people with disabilities were, during the launching of one of the vegetable projects, encouraged to participate in income generation projects that would integrate everyone (Botswana Daily News, Monday 3rd September 2012, p. 1). The backyard gardening project is one of the twenty three Government of Botswana's presidential initiatives in assisting less privileged members of society to better their lives. (State of the Nations Address, November 5th, 2012). It is believed that the project is one of those pivotal to ensuring that Botswana's economic growth becomes viable and sustainable.

3.2.6 Sponsorship for Education and Training

The Ministry of Education and Skills development is a key player in administration of sponsorship especially for needy children, formal school from early childhood to tertiary institutions. The Government of Botswana through the Ministry of Education and Skills Development has gone an extra mile to sponsor students with grades as low as 36 to study in private tertiary institutions science and Technology, scarce courses badly needed for growing the economy, needy and children living with disabilities (Botswana Daily News, 2012, p. 5). This move was taken in recognition that if needy children are not sponsored, the chain of poverty would forever say in their families. To address issues of quality of education, schools are expected to work with Parents' Teachers Associations (PTAs), educational mentors and community volunteers at large. Sharing community services would ensure continuous improvement of the primary and secondary school educational systems.

3.2.7 Education and Training of Learners with Mild Intellectual Ability

Training is provided generally for employees on the job, and in a variety of special schools and technical colleges for learners with disability. In June 2012, the Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MoESD) through the Gaborone Technical College advertised two access programmes under the Botswana Technical Education Programme (BTEP) offered by the Special Education Unit of the Gaborone Technical College (GTC). Altogether two pilot programmes targeting learners with mild intellectual ability were introduced. The two programmes, each with 10 students, are meant to promote learners on Access to Hospitality and Access to Retail Business. They were introduced on a pilot basis and started running 10th September for two years under the GTC Special Education Unit. It is expected that after 18 months of coursework and 6 months of attachment, the learners will be able to access the hospitality or retail sectors to reduce poverty by finding a source of livelihood.

3.3 Botswana's Poverty Eradication Strategies

There are currently 23 packages which have been developed that the beneficiaries can choose from; and these include (1) Backyard gardens, (2) Bakery, (3) Backyard Tree Nursery, (4) Beekeeping, (5) Fashion Design, (6) Fish Farming, (7) Food Catering, (8) Hair salon, (9) Beauty salon, (10) Home based laundry, (11) Jam making, (12) Vegetable pickles, (13) Kiosk, (14) Landscaping, (15) Leather processing, (16) Packaging of food grains, (17) Small stock, (18) Tent hire, (19) Phane, (20) Bottle recycling, (21) Fire beaters, (22) Basketry (being developed), (23) Child

care (being developed). (*Mmegi Newspaper 2nd November 2012, Vol. 29. No. 164. p. 23*). In 2012, The Government of Botswana provided and officially launched the legal framework/Policy/Act Guideline for those responsible. The guidelines provide background to the Poverty Eradication Strategy, objectives to be achieved, expected outcomes and each of the components of the 23 packages and projections up to 2015.

Over 770 backyard gardens had been completed, and the rollout was for 8000 during the 2012/2013 financial year. For alternative packages it was expected that 5089 beneficiaries would be reached. The above packages have been predicated on the belief that Botswana can step out of poverty and create wealth. All alternative rolled out packages had been reported successful. Markets and cooperatives were to be created for all the products from the 23 packages. Botswana would be encouraged to purchase produce from the local producers. (*Mmegi Newspaper 2nd November 2012, Vol. 29. No. 164. p. 23*). The Chapter further notes the role of non-state actors who have served as great partners to the Government of Botswana in the transition from poverty reduction to poverty eradication. These include organizations of the civil society, international development partners, and the private and parastatal sectors.

3.3.1 Research and Development

As of 2013, in the past decade, the UB through the Office of Research and Development (ORD) has contributed to research on poverty in the following areas:

3.3.2 Poverty and Illiteracy

One of the ORD funded projects illuminated that poverty is often identified with illiteracy and other social ills. Poverty eradication entails tackling socio-cultural conditions that are often identified with the poor. Amongst these are promotion of literacy for better access to information, and training literacy experiences into lifelong sources of livelihoods.

3.3.3 Adult Education and Poverty Reduction—A Global Priority

This is one of the first and historic conferences hosted by the Department of Adult Education (DAE) on Adult Education and poverty reduction. This conference, held in 2004, attracted over 45 countries to Gaborone, University of Botswana who dialogued on Adult Education and poverty reduction: a global priority. The conference culminated with several publications and issues for research, policy and practice. Poverty eradication through adult and continuing education conferences on Adult and continuing education and is perceived as a global priority in which AE has to partner with other disciplines for poverty reduction.

3.3.4 Poverty and Post Literacy

This study, carried out in Central and Kweneng Districts of Botswana, suggest that not only is it important to acquire literacy skills but post literacy programmes and activities are crucial for the poor to make a transition from poverty to non- poverty (Raditloaneng 2006).

3.3.5 Poverty and Identity Formation

Post-independence Botswana has graduated from a list of the poorest non-oil producing African countries to one of the richest nations in Africa. Since 1966, Botswana has created the necessary physical and social infrastructure to reduce poverty from the current rate 47% of the national population living in absolute survival poverty to non-poverty by 2016 (Botswana National Institute of Development and Policy Analysis 1997/1998; Presidential Task Group on *a long term vision for Botswana* 1997). Despite these commendable efforts, poverty as an individual and as a structural problem still exists. Globally, some of the poor experience insufficient upward mobility beyond the PDL, while the poor which the author of this article studied had disproportionately experienced excessive downward mobility below the PDL. People learn to discover themselves with situations that are often identified with structurally- induced poverty; low wages, lack of education and poor public schooling, and individually become dependent on Government of Botswana welfare rations which are designed sustain their lives physically but cannot move them up to a stage where they graduate from structural or individual poverty.

3.3.6 Identity Formation

The process of poverty-identification goes through phases and is developed over time as a result of sustained poverty conditions, creating complex learning and psychological needs that have to be addressed in education programmes. According to Brown (2005), poverty is integrated into the self-perception image that a person constructs as a result of the internal self-perceptions with the perception of self as part of a social environment in which they live. Living in poverty shapes belief systems resulting in context-specific interpretations of physical, emotional, and psychological consequences of poverty as articulated by Illeris (2002). Since identity and learning have close correlation, assessing poverty influences on identity and how poverty is incorporated into adult identity is an important factor in understanding the appropriateness of adult education interventions. A significant feature of identity formation is that identities are multiple, fragmented and constantly in progress, and interlocked, influencing strategies for educational intervention.

3.4 Critique of State Based Responses to Poverty

Several writers on Botswana have made a critique of state based responses as having serious shortcomings of creating a dependency syndrome on the Government of Botswana, rural bias, and programmes and not planned from a gender perspective. Programmes such as Ipelegeng are seen to create a dependency syndrome on the Government of Botswana, and making it difficult for beneficiaries to graduate from poverty to non- poverty.

3.4.1 *Charity for Exploitation of the Poor*

In his critique of poverty eradication programmes, Dipholo (2013) argued that the political leadership, particularly Botswana's president derives maximum pleasure in distributing blankets, houses, shirts, food hampers to the poor. The practice is described as "treacherous...heartless...the art of deception..." (Sunday Standard Feb. 3–9, 2013, p. 9). Publicizing charity and exploiting the poor is giving without necessarily being charitable is not right. He quoted the bible as totally against exploitation of the poor (Proverbs 22; 22–23) and announcing what is given to the poor (Matthew 6; 2–4). The president must focus on broader policy matters to avoid trivializing the importance of the presidency. Charity should not be used as a political weapon to exploit the poor.

- Mismanagement of charity

Mismanagement of charity also leads to disempowerment of beneficiaries.

Dipholo further argues that:

Charities are central to welfare provision but for them to remain relevant and dignified, it is advisable that they are managed by relevant experts or bodies....A majority of today's charitable activities are careless, disgusting and distorts the basic tenets of charity....Charity is used as a weapon to convert people with little regard to their choices and dignity. (ibid, p. 9)

To him charity must be left or channeled through many existing charitable NGOs and Community Development Offices.

3.4.2 *Non State based Responses to Poverty Reduction*

Non-state bases responses address the needs of people as individuals & collectives. They are run mainly by local organizations of the civil society (NGOs, CBOs) with backing from International Development Partners. Some of the local activists are activists, self-employed and free to address poverty in ways most appealing to them. One major critique of non- state based responses is that they benefit only the elites who have access to international NGOs, and they are greatly dependent on external funds that are frozen anytime depending on the mood and discretion of the financier.

Gender based and non- state based responses

Rights- based approaches

Human Rights issues such as poverty reduction are linked in several foras to wider issues of sustainable development. Environmental crises were linked to sustainable development during the Earth Summit+5 in 1997. (Special Session of the UN General Assembly to Review and Appraise the Implementation of Agenda 21 1997). A connection was drawn between poverty and Human Rights violation, poverty and gender, environmental degradation. Issues of women's status in poverty, access to water and sanitation, environment and women's health, management of natural resources, commercialization of agriculture, and environmental activism were amongst those discussed during the summit.

In Botswana, poverty reduction programmes that target gender transformative policies are based on definitions of poverty as a gender-based problem. At this stage, it is crucial to illustrate the different dimensions of poverty as a gender-based problem, and how this is addressed in the journey towards realizing gender parity.

- Children's Act of 2009
- Gender Transformative policies and legislation
- Adoption of the 2000 National Gender framework & strategic areas
- Advocacy against passion killings
- Abolition of marital power
- Paternity leave to give fathers opportunities to take care of their children
- Enforcement of gender based laws still lagging behind
- Movement from advocacy to best practice still lags behind
- Corrupt practices, misuse of public funds, low implementation of projects

3.4.3 Non-Formal Educational Interventions

There are many Non Formal Educational interventions that are efforts of state, civil society parastatals and the private sector. The ultimate goal of NFE projects is to reduce poverty by promoting access to income, capabilities and participation in civic life. Some of the key actors in these programmes, displayed through brochures from various departments during the 4th International HIV/AIDS Conference (Botswana HIV Clinicians Society, 19th to 22nd September 2012, GICC) are as follows:-

- The Department of Roads for education on road safety and accident prevention.
- Ministry of Health on HIV/AIDS prevention, care and support, maternal and child health. Specific programmes include "Open the windows to prevent TB infections.
- Ministry of Education and Skills Development on Non- formal education (National Literacy programme and post literacy) and livelihood training.
- Department of Lands on access to land in urban and rural areas, and land use for various poverty reduction initiatives.
- Women Against Rape (WAR) programmes on Violence Against Women, rape, defilement, alcohol abuse and "Your Voice Can Make a Difference" and "Your journey to recovery"

- Kuru Family of Organizations Community Health Programme “Re Batla botshelo” on HIV/AIDS prevention, Care and Support.
- Letloa Trust on “We want life” community health project sensitizing people on HIV/AIDS, and San Arts and Crafts for sale to reduce poverty.
- Bokamoso Trust for early Childhood Training on the child’s developmental needs survival and protection from various forms of abuse.
- Gaborone Game Reserve on tourist attractions in Botswana to promote access to information for conference participants to take excursions after the main conference agenda.

The above displays during the conference were on different stakeholders’ projects done to curb the spread of HIV/AIDS, which is a global factor in global life expectancy, longevity and poverty. Some displays were income generation projects for people to learn to earn or obtain a source of livelihood, partnerships for education, production and research. Others were on multi-sectoral flexible curriculum rather than focusing on literacy alone for empowerment, and illuminated works and achievements of different people in different organizations for communities they serve. The overall conference participants from the SADC region and Europe picked up materials displayed and were expected to spread word and learn better through immediate application rather than theory.

3.5 Poverty Eradication

Poverty eradication means making a transition from absolute poverty to a world without poverty. From the early days of political independence, the Government of Botswana has been determined through a variety of welfare programmes, to eliminate poverty among Botswana. There are categories of poverty eradication programmes that are run by different stakeholders in poverty reduction. Stakeholders include the state, (Government of Botswana) and non- state actors, (Organizations of the civil society, international development partners, parastatals and the private sector. The scope of the programmes cover a variety of objectives such as Economic growth monitoring programs, provision of Welfare and safety nets, housing for the poor, and other aspects of community based programmes to ultimately reduce absolute poverty.

Since poverty in Botswana is defined as a multi-dimensional problem, a variety of interventions state and non- state responses are used to help reduce poverty in all fronts. Poverty reduction programmes in Botswana initially targeted destitution as a major social ill in tackling poverty. Since 2008, there has been a gradual shift from poverty reduction to total eradication by 2016.

The Government of Botswana has launched the multi-sectoral poverty eradication strategy for a world without poverty to be achieved by 2015. Amongst the most prominent programmes in the multi-sectoral approach are the Presidential Housing Appeal, and other testimonies of successful projects form the 23 packages mentioned earlier.

3.5.1 President's Housing Appeal

Botswana's president set up a housing appeal for the needy, in recognition of housing as a basic human need for individual dignity. The appeal called on the individuals, groups and companies to help build houses for the needy who cannot afford housing without assistance. The overall goal is to house all the needy by 2016. This is aligned to the 50th anniversary of Botswana's independence as articulated in the National Vision 2016. As of 7th February 2013, 542 houses had been pledged by 124, cash and kind assistance by a total of 201 individuals and companies. Overall the appeal has attracted pledges nationwide (Botswana Daily News 2012, p. 4).

3.5.2 Access to Housing for Public Servants

Housing is one of the most basic needs for human dignity. Houses in the open market are some of one of the most expensive needs that everyone without their own house has to meet. The poverty situation is compounded by high rentals that are charged, especially in the open market, regardless of salary adjustments/increments for public servants. To meet housing needs, the government of Botswana secured a P20 million loan for 540 housing units to address the challenge of housing public servants.

The Botswana Housing Corporation is tasked to construct houses for the SHHA, Turnkey beneficiaries and government pool houses. Application procedures and processes will be administered by District Councils. (ibid. p. 1)

3.5.3 Poverty Eradication Requires a Multi-Sectoral Approach

According to Chirimubwe (2012)

Poverty has many facets to approach and there is no one solution to approach it, hence the need to complement each other...What is required is different solutions of eradicating poverty not specializing on unconstructive attacks of initiatives. (p. 5)...

3.5.4 Poverty Disproportionately affects Human Populations

Chirimubwe further argues that:

While poverty can strike anyone, it is not an equal opportunity offender. Certain demographics and groups are over represented among those living in poverty. Rural dwellers and people with disabilities generally experience higher rates of poverty. (ibid, p. 5).

The inception of two access programmes—Access to Hospitality and Access to Retail Business in 2012 at the Gaborone Technical College, targeting people living

with disability is a step in the right direction towards catering for one of the most disadvantaged groups (Botswana Technical Education Programme Document, September 2012).

3.5.5 Poverty Eradication and the National Agenda

The Office of the President has since six years ago spearheaded the poverty eradication drive by linking it to the country's FIVE DS: (Delivery, Discipline, Democracy, Development and Dignity), MDGs and the national Vision 2016. The state maintains the highest machinery for disciplinary policies, democratic practice and protection of civil rights and constitutional obligations. Delivery is a productivity issue influenced by good work ethics. Both the 5 Ds, MDGs, and Vision 2016 pillars can be released with poverty eradication Discipline is a "system of rules of conduct or method of practice which is geared towards developing behavior "by instruction and practice"(Presidential address, 2000 cited in Lenyatso, F 2012.). In summary, the five Ds were articulated as follows:-

We need disciplined people with positive work ethics to achieve high levels of productivity, effective service delivery leading to high levels of development to produce a dignified and Democratic Society. (Lenyatso 2012, p. 5).

One of the major anti-thesis of poverty eradication is the problem of HIV prevention, treatment and care. Botswana's Human Development Report of 2000 themed "Towards an AIDS free generation" focused on HIV/AIDS as an antithesis of human development which has drained the country of resources for HIV prevention, treatment, care and development. HIV/AIDS worsened poverty and income inequality.

Poverty is both a cause and a consequence of ill health. Thus poverty and HIV and AIDS raise the death toll of able bodied persons, working people who support scores of dependents-children and elderly persons who often do not have alternative sources of income." (p. 17).

Overcoming poverty and inequality would create opportunities to reduce the incidence of HIV/AIDS.

3.5.6 Direct Foreign Investment

Through the Banks such as ABC, Mascom, Orange, Debswana in Sports development and donations, Life Insurance Companies, private sector participation is evident. (Witness Magazine 2012, p. 24-26.)

3.5.7 Education and Training

Education and training are perceived as poverty reduction tool. Examples of existing initiatives include the transformation of BOCODOL into an Open University

by 2013. This is taking place already and is expected to be fully institutionalized by 2016. The role of BOTA in licensing and accreditation of tertiary institutions from 2001–2011, and the implementation of the National Human Resource Strategy (NHRS) are efforts towards transformation of education towards poverty eradication. This NHRS is a framework targeted at

Ensuring a better alignment between the nation’s ambition and individual capabilities and potentials and also education and skill development as a poverty alleviation tool for households and an economic stabilizer at the national level. (p. 22, Witness Magazine)

Several successful sensitization and other programmes such as the ones supported by the University of Botswana, UNICEF, Citizen Entrepreneurship Development Authority (CEDA), Mogotsi Morekwe Mills, Peo-Boswa Insurance Brokers Botswana Insurance Holdings LTD and donations from individuals and the private sector are discussed in brief as contributing to the multi-sectoral approach to poverty eradication.

3.5.8 University of Botswana Advocacy

The University of Botswana Model UN held a panel discussion under the theme “Poverty eradication by 2015” on January 14, 2009 to address ways to eradicate poverty. The panelists comprised of experts in the field of socio-economics from various backgrounds including United Nations, the banking sector, entrepreneurs and the youth. Education was perceived by the National Human Resource Development Strategy of 2009 as a key to poverty eradication.

UNICEF Social Policy Advisor, said as part of the opening remarks that there are many factors to poverty than the division of income per household. He said lack of education, health and any opportunity is poverty. He negated the notion that economic growth is constructed by equating high income and high employment. He gave an example with Botswana saying that Botswana has high economic growth but not necessarily high employment rate. Botswana has extended policies, strategies, legal codes and child acts that are trying to address poverty alleviation but they are not well coordinated. “We hear rural-urban poverty being addressed but not so often do we get information about adult-child poverty” said the UN policy advisor.

Commenting on the government’s efforts to eradicate poverty, representatives from the BMD said that Botswana needs a stand-alone micro-economic strategy. They gave an example that Botswana has been fighting a long battle as programs like Food Agricultural Program and ARAP were devised and the government’s desire to improve poverty elevation is still seen in its new Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) through various programmes like school feeding and maternal child health programs.

Other speakers challenged the audience to explore possibilities of mitigating the economic class inequalities that exist as ninety percent of wealth remains concentrated on the hands of few at the expense of the poor majority. They said that

in order for Botswana to win the battle against poverty and attract foreign direct investment (FDI) the country needs to examine itself and bring out distinct aspects that differentiate Botswana from other countries and offer them to the world to give us a competitive edge. Another area that needs to be done differently is to ensure that the people sent to negotiate economic ties for Botswana should be men and women with requisite skills.

They emphasized that citizen participation is of critical importance in terms of policy formulation if we are to eradicate poverty by 2015. They expressed their disappointment with NDP10 because it was drafted by a consultancy in Britain instead of citizens, saying such practices militated against government's citizen empowerment programmes and how are they (foreign consultants) going to address the root cause of the problems when they do not know issues on the ground locally? A local economist, whilst acknowledging that there had been much reduction done on high levels of poverty in Botswana since the 1960s, said government priorities were misplaced by spending money in rural areas. He said that injecting money in rural areas was a waste of resources because it had not helped halt the rural-urban drift.

For her part, Model United Nations member said Botswana must step up its citizen empowerment drive and create more jobs. She urged the youth to stand up and be counted in this regard as they have much potential to drive the vision.

The event was graced by members of the media fraternity, government sector, corporate sector as well as UB staff and students. The UB MUN team left to benchmark with Harvard University, Boston, USA, on February 5, 2009. The trip is sponsored by UNICEF, UB office of international education and partnerships, UB office of student welfare and the generosity of individuals who pledged during the sponsor-a-word panel discussion. This was one of the participatory processes in ensuring that poverty eradication is everyone's business.

3.5.9 CEDA and other Poverty Eradication Success Testimonies

Several stories of CEDA beneficiaries indicate success in CEDA as a catalyst to the Economic Diversification Drive (EDD). A franchise of Planet Nails of South Africa funded with P250, 000 in 2009 is a successful beauty products distribution business in Gaborone with pedicure, manicure, facials, and short beauty training courses with branches in Gaborone and Francistown. Planet nails has 10 employees and there are plans to extend the business.

3.5.10 Mogotsi-Morekwe Mills

Since 10 years ago Mogotsi Morekwe Mills has been producing and distributing cereal, mostly seboana, millet (lebelebele, nlatlawane, mosutlhane, Boleta and Moroko brands. The mills employed 42 in

Mochudi with outlets in Gaborone, Square Market in Kanye, Shoppers and Pay-less. During Local Enterprise Authority (LEA) fares for Small and Medium Enterprise Schemes (SMMES), the mills displayed their cereal brands.

3.5.11 Peo Boswa Insurance Brokers

Sponsored by LEA, Peo-Boswa is one of the SMMES under the CEDA funded businesses to sell its products to the public. Peo-Boswa was founded in 2002 and granted an operating license in 2003.

3.5.12 Makaleng Brick Moulding Project

The VDC in Makaleng set up a brick moulding project September 2010 and by 7th Feb. 2013, it was reported by the project team to have been successful in poverty eradication. The project was funded with P20, 000 and had employed 7 brick moulders. Although the Makaleng community had supported the project by buying the product, major challenges are the need for more seed funding and transportation for bricks.

3.5.13 Botswana Insurance Holdings Limited

Cognizant of Vision 2016 of a just and compassionate nation, BIHL launched the BIHL Trust in 2007 to promote worthy causes such as community projects that alleviate poverty and suffering to deserving beneficiaries in Education, Arts and Culture, Sports and Recreation Social and welfare developments, health and social security. During the launch of the Trust, the CEO had this to say:

We do business where there are people in the community and the objective of the Trust is to give back to the community in which we exist (p. 16).

The Trust has assisted Thapong Visual Arts Centre, Gamodubu Child Care Trust, Housing projects in Partnership with local government, Thuso Rehabilitation Centre with New Xade, and Maru a Pula Orphan and Vulnerable Children Fund.

Love Botswana Mission Economic Empowerment Project 2013

Launched seven years ago, the project initially targeted women and later included men. The project features a vegetable garden project, a goat project, and a knitting and felting project with 10 women creating artwork. It is the intension of the project to include sophisticated methods of farming as it grows.

Products sold from the project include vegetables, goat meat as needed during funerals, trendy shawls, flower pins, scarves beannes, and cell phone holders. The group, named maatla a Basadi (The Strength in Womanhood) aims to combat unemployment and dependency syndrome by projects that eradicate poverty. The project has expanded but the greatest challenge is that the group only accesses local markets (The Voice, Friday February 1st, 2013, p. 10).

Donations from individuals, charitable organizations and the private sector

Individuals and charitable organizations passionate about support and contributions to poverty eradication and alleviating the plight of disadvantaged societal groups have continued to offer donations for orphans and vulnerable children, housing appeal for destitute and Christmas presents and food hampers for the needy in various hospitals across the country. (p. 17/24). Stanbic Bank donated to Camphill Rankoromane in (2012 (p. 17)). Debswana also donated to various sports development initiatives in July (2012). P500, 000 sponsorship from Debswana was given to the Botswana National Olympic Committee (BNOC) to assist athletes in preparations for the London games. (p. 26).

Other village poverty eradication projects that have been recorded as successful are found in Letlhakeng and Tutume. Letlhakeng community embraced the poverty eradication projects subsidized by the Government of Botswana. (Botswana Daily News Feb. 11th, 2013, p. 10).

In Tutume, a person living with disability was awarded a house after struggling for many years without housing. People completely destitute are assisted with food baskets and others by the Social and Community Development offices across the country.

3.5.14 Dedicated Markets as Outlets

Dedicated markets as outlets in Districts and purchasing programs to support Poverty Eradication Programme beneficiaries help reduce poverty. Examples include supply chains of stores for beneficiaries, and backyard gardening markets.

3.5.15 Community Development Projects

Community Development Projects such as tree planting, CEDA Economic Diversification Drive (EDD), LEA, SMMES, Mills for cereal products, insurance brokers and the Office of the President Poverty Eradication projects were launched since 2011. Launching poverty Eradication at Diphuduhudu, Botswana's president had this to say:

It is through eradication of poverty that dignity and equality of all will be achieved. Owing to these fundamental objectives, Government is fully committed to this noble and just national imperative...over a thousand beneficiaries had been identified from 67 settlements for enrolment in the poverty eradication programme (ibid, p. 8).

This statement of intent demonstrates that poverty eradication is one of the topmost political agenda items supported by the Government of Botswana.

The policies and programmes articulated above were conceived with good intentions of giving Botswana an opportunity to make a transition from poverty to non-poverty. Some few very innovative individuals and groups are able to successfully

earn a source of livelihood out of the programmes. Success depends on how well projects are managed by beneficiaries of Government of Botswana packages and innovations. Horticultural programmes are popular even though harsh climatic conditions work against their success. It can be argued that there are still some gaps that need to be addressed to avoid a dependency syndrome on the Government of Botswana. One strategy is to ensure that handouts are minimized because even though they prevent destitution and death from lack of basic provisions, they create a dependency syndrome on the government. Able bodied people who are beneficiaries must also be given some work to do in return for handouts. It would also be crucial to do a summative evaluation of success and failure rate of programmes every five years to make firm and informed decisions on way forward. A mixed methodology of quantitative, qualitative and participatory methodologies would be the most appropriate for evaluating the programmes every five years before Botswana finish their approved plans and especially that they go to the polls to vote every five years. This evaluation as suggested is not meant to be used to oust the day government but to give any incoming team an indication of which direction should be taken to map the way forward for success and what needs to be done to curb failing programmes.

3.6 Conclusions

It can be concluded that Botswana has a very comprehensive poverty eradication infrastructure with policies, and well resourced strategies supported through a solid political will. There are a variety of state-based programmes and non-state actors aligned to the national agenda of vision 2016, NDP 10 and other relevant documents. A multi-sectoral approach to poverty has been adopted to make a transition from poverty alleviation to poverty eradication, which is the ultimate goal. There is no perfect programme as poverty has not been eradicated. However, there are statements of intent and poverty eradication programmes that bear fruits, while others have dismally failed and had to be scrapped off. Through lifelong learning from the poverty eradication programmes, some programmes were modified, while new ones were introduced to replace obsolete ones. Mid-term and summative evaluation of all the programmes and 23 packages are very crucial to check if the programmes are operating as intended, and if they make impacts worth the cost.

3.7 Recommendations

Based on the above aspects of the National Poverty Eradication Strategy, it is recommended that:

The current phase of the National Poverty Eradication strategy needs to be carefully monitored and evaluated to detect impact of the 23 packages on Botswana stakeholders.

Comprehensive database of documentation of all empirically-based success stories must be established to gauge success.

There must be comprehensive documentation of all failed projects to alert stakeholders on pitfalls to avoid, and when to modify or terminate troubled businesses.

References

- Affairs 2/94:6–19. Copenhagen, Denmark: International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs.
- BIDPA. (1997a). *Study of poverty and poverty alleviation in Botswana: Overall poverty assessment*. (Phase 1 vol.1). Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.
- BIDPA. (1998). *Study of poverty and poverty alleviation in Botswana: Technical Reports*. Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.
- Botswana Daily News, 3rd September. (2012; 7th February 2013; 11th February 2013). Gaborone: Presidential Housing Appeal.
- Botswana HIV Clinicians Society. (19–22nd September 2012). Deliberations of a Workshop held at the Gaborone International Convention Center. Gaborone.
- Botswana Technical Education Programme Document. (September 2012). Gaborone: Ministry of Education and Skills Development.
- Childers, G. W. (1976). *Report on the survey/investigation of the Ghanzi farm Basarwa situation*. Gaborone: Government printer.
- Childers, G., Stanley J., and Rick, K. (1982). *Government settlement of peoples' community? A study of local institutions in Ghanzi district*. Applied research unit. Gaborone: Ministry of Local Government and Lands.
- Chirimubwe, S. (2012). *Who is responsible for solving poverty?* In Corporate Social Responsibility and Ethics Magazine-Witness.
- <http://www.witnessmagazine.net> Vol 3. Issue 1, August 2012.
- Dipholo, K. (2013). *This dirty charity must stop*. Sunday Standard, 3–9. Feb. 2013. p. 9.
- Debswana committed to long term sports development. (2012). In Corporate Social Responsibility and Ethics Magazine Witness Magazine. (p. 26).
- Government secures P20 million for housing. (2013). Botswana Press Agency. Botswana Daily News, 7. Feb. 2013. Gaborone.
- Guenther, M. G. (1986). *The Nahrö Bushmen of Botswana, tradition and change*. In Quellen zur Koisan-forschung. Hamburg: Helmut Buske Verlag.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1985). Development planning, government policy and the future of the Basarwa in Botswana. In C. Schrire & R. Gordon (Eds.), *The future of former foragers: Australia and Southern Africa*. (pp. 55–62). Cambridge: Mass: Cultural Survival.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1987). Anthropological research and remote area development among Botswana Basarwa. In R. Hitchcock, N. Parsons & J. Taylor (Eds.), *Gaborone: Research for development in Botswana*. Gaborone: Botswana Society.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1988). *A critical assessment of the accelerated remote area development programme: a confidential report to the Norwegian agency for international development NORAD*. Unpublished monograph.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1991). *Human rights, local institutions and sustainable development among Kalahari San*. Paper, presented in a symposium on “Human Rights and Indigenous Peoples” held at the 90th annual meetings of the American Anthropological Association. Chicago.
- Hitchcock, R. K., & Holm, J. D. (1991). Bureaucratic domination of hunter-gatherer societies: a study of the San in Botswana. *Development and Change*, 24(2), 305–338.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1996). *Kalahari communities: Bushmen and the politics of the environment in southern Africa*. IWGIA document no 79. Copenhagen.

- Illeris, K. (2002). *The three dimensions of learning*. Roskilde, Denmark: Roskilde University Press/Leicester, UK: NIACE. Knowles, M. S. & Associates (1984).
- Lenyatso F. M. (2012). *Poverty Eradication- Linking the 5 DS to the MDGs and Vision 2016*. Love Botswana Mission Economic Empowerment Project Expands. J. Lackey. The Voice, 1st Feb. 2013, p. 10.
- Ministry of Local Government and Lands. (1987). *A guide to remote area dwellers settlements*. Gaborone: Government printer.
- Ministry of Local Government, Lands and Housing, Botswana. (1994). *Remote Area Development Programme Monitoring Studies*. Gaborone: Government Printer.
- Mmegi Newspaper, 2nd November 2012, Vol. 29. No. 164. p. 23.
- Morafe o atlife lenaneo. Botswana Daily News, Feb. 11th, 2013. No. 27 p. 10. T. Nthaga <http://www.dailynews.gov.bw>
- Presidential Task Group on a Long Tem Vision for Botswana- Towards Prosperity for all. (1997). *A Long Tem Vision for Botswana- Towards Prosperity for all*. Gaborone: residential Task Group a Long Tem Vision for Botswana
- Raditloang, W.N. (2006). *Poverty Alleviation Projects in Kweneng and Central Districts*. Gaborone: Office of Research and Development.
- Republic of Botswana. (5th November 2012). *State of the Nations Address*. Gaborone: Government Printers.
- Saugestad, S. (1994). *Research and its relevance: notes on the history of research on the Bushmen-San-Basarwa-N/oakwe of Botswana*. Paper presented to the conference Khoisan Studies: multidisciplinary perspectives: Germany.
- Saugestad, S. (1998). *The inconvenient Indigenous: Remote area development in Botswana, donor assistance and the first people of the Kalahari*. Gaborone: University of Tromso.
- Stanbic Bank donates to Camphill Rankoromane. (2012). In Corporate Social Responsibility and Ethics Magazine. Witness Magazine (p. 17).
- The Voice. (Friday February 1st, 2013, p. 10). *The Voice is a print and online newspaper based in Botswana*. [www.cyclopaedia.es/wiki/The_Voice_\(Botswana\)](http://www.cyclopaedia.es/wiki/The_Voice_(Botswana)).
- United Nations. (1997). *Special Session of the Un General Assembly to review and appraise the implementation of Agenda 21*.
- Wily, Elizabeth A. (1981). *The TGLP and Hunter-Gatherers: A Case Study in Land Politics*. Gaborone, Botswana: National Institute of Development and Cultural Research.
- Wily, Elizabeth A. (1994). *Hunter-Gatherers in Botswana and the Land Issue*. Indigenous Affairs 2/94:6–19. Copenhagen, Denmark: International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs.
- Young, Elspeth. (1995). *Third World in the First: Development and Indigenous Peoples*. London: Routledge.

Chapter 4

Entrepreneurship Development Training and Lifelong Learning

Morgen Chawawa and Wapula N. Raditloaneng

4.1 Introduction

Education and training in life skills is portrayed as one of the poverty eradication tools. The project provided three-year training to potential entrepreneurs in the D'Kar San Community. (extendable on performance) between Ba Isago University and Kellogg Foundation 2009–2012. According to the project team and beneficiaries, entrepreneurship skills are essential in the lifelong journey to reduce poverty and other related social ills. This chapter provides the processes of the initial theoretical training received by participants during the inception of the project in 2009 and 2010. The training session objectives were meant to share personal experiences, encourage participants to consider self-employment as an alternative career route, and to hi-light critical 'non-technical' skills of business management.

The W. Kellogg Foundation, USA and Ba Isago University College, Gaborone, Botswana teamed up between 2009 and 2012 in a project called the *Zooming Approach to Entrepreneurship in D'kar Church Farm San Community* to provide business skills to the residents of this community in the quest to eradicate poverty among the San people. The project was funded for a three year training period for potential San entrepreneurs, USA 2009–2012. According to the project team and beneficiaries, entrepreneurship skills are essential in the lifelong journey to reduce poverty and other related social ills. This chapter provides the processes of the initial theoretical training received by participants during the inception of the project in 2009 and 2010. The training session objectives were meant to share personal experiences, encourage participants to consider self-employment as an alternative

M. Chawawa (✉)
Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

W. N. Raditloaneng
Faculty of Education, Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana,
P/Bag 00702, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: Raditloa@mopipi.ub.bw

career route, and to hi-light critical ‘non-technical’ skills of business management. The sessions were informed by the consultant’s use of practical exercises applied and theories related to entrepreneurship.

4.2 Background of the San Community at D’kar Reformed Church Farm and Context of Entrepreneurship building Workshops

D’kar Reformed Church Farm has provided a home to about 2000 members of the San Tribe, who by and large have never experienced the world of business, entrepreneurship opportunities or financial success. They live a hand-to-mouth existence, which is typical in this part of Botswana. There are no economic activities on this Reformed Church Farm, stretching for 200 hectares in the Kalahari Desert. The land was donated to the San by the Dutch Reformed Church when it left Botswana. The main source of employment are the NGOs that include Letloa Trust, Bokamoso, Kuru D’kar Game Farm, Kuru Art, Ghanzi Crafts and Komku, which employ less than 1% of the community members. The Farm is about 40 km from the near town of Ghanzi, where opportunities for employment and starting businesses exist. In Ghanzi the economy is supported by a large civil service population of about 10,000, lodges and game farms that thrive from tourism. Unemployment at D’kar Church Farm stands at about 95%. Primary school drop out rate is about 45% and pregnancy among girls below 16 years is very high. High school graduation is about 1%. The Government of Botswana provides welfare support payments to the elderly through monthly allowances ranging from USD30 to USD40.

In this part of Botswana, tourism trade has tremendous potential for providing employment and business opportunities for the residents of Ghanzi. The San have exhibited natural talent for art, making beautiful crafts and traditional dances, which have drawn large numbers of tourists traditionally at special events including the KURU DANCE FESTIVAL, which takes place in the month of November. The current business facilities that market the art products and organize the dance festivals are managed by professionals, who are not from the San Tribe. It is imperative that the San are trained to run these activities through the acquisition of entrepreneurship skills.

4.3 Theoretical Framework

Entrepreneurship is the act and art of being an entrepreneur or one who undertakes innovations or introduces new things, finance and business acumen in an effort to transform innovations into economic goods. This may result in new organizations or may be part of revitalizing mature organizations in response to a perceived opportunity. The most obvious form of entrepreneurship is that of starting new businesses (referred as startup company); however, in recent years, the term

has been extended to include social and political forms of entrepreneurial activity. When entrepreneurship is describing activities within a firm or large organization it is referred to as intra-preneurship and may include corporate venturing, when large entities spin-off organizations.

According to Paul Reynolds, entrepreneurship scholar and creator of the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, “by the time they reach their retirement years, half of all working men in the United States probably have a period of self-employment of one or more years; one in four may have engaged in self-employment for six or more years. Participating in a new business creation is a common activity among U.S. workers over the course of their careers.” And in recent years has been documented by scholars such as David Audretsch to be a major driver of economic growth in both the United States and Western Europe. “As well, entrepreneurship may be defined as the pursuit of opportunity without regard to resources currently controlled (Stevenson 1983)”.

4.4 Relating Entrepreneurship Training to Lifelong Learning?

Lifelong learning is the “ongoing, voluntary, and self-motivated” pursuit of knowledge for either personal or professional reasons. Therefore, it not only enhances social inclusion, active citizenship and personal development, but also competitiveness and employability.

The term recognizes that learning is not confined to childhood or the classroom but takes place throughout life and in a range of situations. During the last fifty years, constant scientific and technological innovation and change has had a profound effect on learning needs and styles. Learning can no longer be divided into a place and time to acquire knowledge (school) and a place and time to apply the knowledge acquired (the workplace). Instead, learning can be seen as something that takes place on an on-going basis from our daily interactions with others and with the world around us. Lifelong learning is valid in addition to degree attainment. Some learning is accomplished in segments or interest categories and can still be valuable to the individual and community. Lifelong learning produces educated citizens who buy goods and services in the community and generate economic activity to support their families and communities.

4.5 Entrepreneurship Training Workshop

Participants were introduced to entrepreneurship requisite skills for success, characteristics of an entrepreneur and to start thinking of themselves as entrepreneurs. Everyone can be a lifelong learner and an entrepreneur. The question was whether participants were ready to become entrepreneurs or preferred to work for someone else, for the rest of their lives.

Entrepreneurship skills development and actually starting up enterprises is one of the poverty eradication tools encouraged by the government of Botswana within the 23 poverty eradication packages. The justification is that Economic analysts have realized that small firms contribute considerably to economic growth and vitality, (Sheshinski et al. 2007). Entrepreneurship, can be defined as, the practice of starting new organizations, particularly new businesses generally in response to identified opportunities; Generally, the new organizations started by entrepreneurs are small businesses that grow with time and more infusion of cash and other non-cash essentials of entrepreneurship.

Objectives of the training were to create an insight of the business world with the variety of enterprises and industries that help shape the world around them; Explore the planning, organizing and controlling of a business, including organizational and human aspects, with emphasis on various theories of management, the knowledge and understanding necessary for managing people and functions, and decision making and develop an idea for a successful and original business plan that could be used in starting a small firm.

Participants were asked to make reflections on whether they wanted to work for someone else all their lives, or whether they could see themselves as having the potential to be entrepreneurs, and what it would take to construct a business. They could start small businesses and grow them over the years. Participants were encouraged to start small businesses, grow them over the years. A small business is “one that is independently owned and operated and which is not dominant in its field of operation.” Small Businesses are defined using size standards.

4.6 What are the Characteristics of an Entrepreneur?

It is important for people to do their own personal scan to detect their business potential. There are theories that suggest that entrepreneurs are born with certain characteristics, while others suggest that entrepreneurship skills and acumen are learned. Commonly held beliefs about entrepreneurs are that; The entrepreneur has an enthusiastic vision, the driving force of an enterprise; The entrepreneur’s vision is usually supported by an interlocked collection of specific ideas not available to the marketplace; The overall blueprint to realize the vision is clear; however details may be incomplete, flexible, and evolving; The entrepreneur promotes the vision with enthusiastic passion; With persistence and determination, the entrepreneur develops strategies to change the vision into reality; The entrepreneur takes the initial responsibility to cause a vision to become a success; Entrepreneurs take prudent risks. They assess costs, market/customer needs and persuade others to join and help; an entrepreneur is usually a positive thinker and a decision maker.

Almost any business or organization can be called an enterprise, possibly led by an entrepreneur. An enterprise is any activity which provides customers with a product (goods/services) with a view to making a profit.

4.7 Structure of the Workshops

- i. The workshops were conducted by expert consultants, who were interviewed and selected by Ba Isago University College of Research, Entrepreneurship and Project management Director.
- ii. Most workshops ran for one week but where extension of training was necessary the schedule was adjusted.
- iii. Participants were San residents of D'kar Church Farm who attended on a voluntary basis.
- iv. The workshop material was translated into the local language since most of the participants did not understand or read English.
- v. A San translator assisted the consultant during the training session and when groups were reporting their group work assignments to other workshop members.
- vi. The workshops ran from 9 am to 1 pm with a tea break of 30 min for refreshments.
- vii. In the afternoon workshop attendants went to a project on vegetable production, where they applied some of their knowledge.
- viii. The vegetable garden produce was sold to a local supermarket called CHOP-PIES and the proceeds recorded and banked by those who were attending the workshops.
- ix. The vegetable garden was an idea that came from the workshop participants and the choice of what to produce also came from the group.
- x. Bokamoso Trust, one the local NGOs provided meals to workshops participants under a contract with Ba Isago University College.



4.8 Content of the Workshops

4.8.1 *Building a Business Plan*

The workshops exposed participants to the starting point in any kind of business, beginning with an idea and then making a plan from the idea to guide its implementation. This is essential to make but only after developing business ideas. For a Business plan one needs a Business idea. A business planner is like an architect who wants to draw a house plan. The owner of the house needs to feed the architect with all the necessary list of what the dream house should have. One may want to be an Entrepreneur or you may just want to try on the idea. People develop a business idea; buy a caravan or a portable shop. Similar portable shops in Botswana include a sweet and airtime sale place, a garage, and a caravan. These are usually licensed close to some neighborhoods, schools and other public places that attract a crowd and therefore a stable market.

New opportunities occur from changes in industry, social, or economic environments. New ventures arise in the following ways:

A. External Causes

- i. Changes in industry stimulated by advancing technology and new knowledge spur new products and services; a good example of this are the changes in the ICT—tele-communication, and the IT—the computer, internet and the e-learning technologies. Some people responded to advanced technology by starting up their own food courts, hair lounges, internet cafes, newspaper shops and street sales and selling airtime for some commission.
- ii. Accidental discovery; sometimes a person stumbles upon an idea instead of deliberately trying to invent a new product. The setting up and opening of the University of Botswana Medical School in August 2011, Botswana International University of Science and Technology (BIUST) in 2012 are examples of opportunities some people have taken to start accommodation and fast food caravans based on demand.
- iii. Changing perceptions; there are times when the social environment is an element of new venture creation. For example, the emphasis on health and fitness activities in the scourge against HIV/AIDS in Botswana has created full-service health clubs especially around towns and cities where the working population can afford to pay for such clubs.
- iv. Economic changes; often involve opportunities that arise out of the necessity such as the energy crises leading to new ideas of load-shedding in and around Greater Gaborone. Some people have started negotiations with the Ministry of Energy and Minerals for Solar Power businesses to supply the towns and cities especially that Botswana has a lot of untapped solar power.

Prior work experience, no matter how short it may be, is the most common origin of new ventures:

- i. Frequently a person, perceiving ways to modify a product or improve a service will start a new venture from the knowledge acquired from a former workplace;
- ii. A person can also obtain the right to manufacture a product based on a patent;
- iii. An individual observing scant competition afforded to a particular business can go out and duplicate that same business, as long as there is a market.

b) Follow family traditions especially if they have been serving the needs of that community for so long.

- i. Being your own boss can give self satisfaction and can also achieve leadership and recognition.
- ii. Indians and Chinese have long established traditions of businesses all over the globe. You can also develop your own business potential by taking advantage of cattle, land or any assets that you or your parents have to move on.

c). Hobbies

A love of cookery, sewing, reading, horses or animals can lead someone to an opportunity of running a cafeteria, a sewing training school, a coffee shop or magazine shop with space for reading, riding school or an animal farm.

4.9 What are the Advantages of Starting Your own Business?

- i. The entrepreneur can select his/her own location, employees, and avoid any undesirable precedents set by a previous owner.
- ii. A start up business can start fresh without having to follow old practices.

Let's proceed with the training. Running a business is, however, not easy. In order to succeed, you need to do these four things:

- i. An Entrepreneur is a person who owns and operates a business enterprise. He/she takes all the risks involved in the operation of this enterprise.
- ii. Entrepreneurs are innovative; and as a result, are always able to see possibilities which would not be normally seen by ordinary persons.
- iii. They have a strong desire to succeed; and so, it is often quite common for entrepreneurs to fail at several initial enterprises before finally making it big.
- iv. Also, entrepreneurs have the capacity to work long hours, ensuring that their business ideas are fully developed rather than, take holidays and time off from their businesses.

How much of a risk is your business idea? How much is it an opportunity not to be missed?

4.10 What is SWOT Analysis?

SWOT analysis is a tool for auditing a business and its environment. It is the first stage of planning and you as a new entrepreneur must focus on key issues. SWOT stands for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats.

- **S—Strengths**
- **W—Weaknesses**
- **O—Opportunities**
- **T—Threats**

Strengths and weaknesses are internal factors. Opportunities and threats are external factors. For example:

Strength could be:

- Specialist marketing expertise
- New, innovative products or services
- Location of business
- Any other aspect of their businesses that add value to **their products or services**

A Weakness could be:

- Lack of marketing expertise
- Undifferentiated products or services (i.e. in relation to your business)
- Remote location of their businesses
- Poor quality goods or services
- Damaged reputations

In SWOT, opportunities and threats are external factors.

An Opportunity could be:

- A developing market such as the Internet
- Mergers, joint ventures or strategic alliances
- Moving into new market segments that offer improved profits
- A new international market
- A market vacated by an ineffective competitor

A Threat could be:

- A new competitor in your home market
- Price wars among competitors
- A competitor has a new, innovative product or service
- Competitors have superior access to channels of distribution
- Taxation (such as VAT) is introduced on your product or service

Ability to conduct Competition (SWOT Analysis)

Can you manage competition?

Competition may be defined as a business relation in whom two or more parties compete to gain customers.

Goods and services will be bought from those who, in the view of buyers, provide ‘the most for the money’ and/or from those who offer greater buying convenience. Hence, competition tends to drive the entrepreneurs to find ways and means of ensuring that the customers make their goods and services their first choice.

Therefore, all business persons must consider competition when deciding to start a business regardless of the size of business. Special efforts must be made in assessing existing competition; as well as, planning to deal with competition which may come after the business has started.

As an entrepreneur, you must define competition correctly; select the appropriate competitors to analyze; plan how you will deal with new competitors and explain your competitive advantages. This information will be important when developing the competition section of your business plan.

In identifying competitors, entrepreneurs often find themselves in a difficult position. On one hand, they want to show that they are unique (even under the investors’ broad definition) and list no or few competitors. However, this has a negative connotation. If no or few businesses are in a market space, it implies that there may not be a large enough customer base to support the new business’ products and/or services.

After identifying your competitors, your business plan must describe them. In doing so, the plan must also objectively analyze each competitor’s strengths and weaknesses and the key drivers of competitive differentiation in the marketplace.

In analyzing your competitors’ strengths and weaknesses you will begin to use a rather common tool used by many business persons. It is called a SWOT Analysis.

Apply the SWOT analysis to your business as you try to assess the position of your business idea. Discuss it with your friend. Write it in your portfolio.

4.11 Requisite Skills for Entrepreneurship

To be a successful entrepreneur, there are skills that you need to have or to develop, with time.

Amongst these are the following:

- i. Passion/vision and mission
- ii. Strategic Planning for expected results: Business, Management, Leadership and Relationship.
- iii. Team building and management.
- iv. Creativity, Innovation and Efficient.
- v. Risk assessment and management
- vi. Networking and Negotiations

- vii. Marketing
- viii. Management
- ix. Problem-solving
- x. Conflict management
- xi. Perseverance and determination
- xii. Cost analysis
- xiii. Action- based review

The skills above vary from individual to individual. They can be summarized as Interpersonal relations and Leadership.

How does one develop the skills above?

- i. Individual Experiences
- ii. Family Experiences
- iii. Friends
- iv. Significant others
- v. Acquaintances

4.12 Section C: Characteristics that Lead to Success

So what makes an entrepreneur different from all of the other actors upon the enterprise stage? That is what we seek to define.

i. **Identifying opportunities:**

ability often attributed to an entrepreneur is that of seeing or identifying an opportunity. In isolation, this is not an adequate definition of an entrepreneurial ability. The entrepreneur may not be the first creator or innovator of an idea. However, we can utilize this function to help draw a distinction between an Entrepreneur and an enterprise actor. An inventor may create a new product or concept but not know what to do with it lack the skills or drive to develop it, or be willing to take the risk to exploit it. So is an inventor an entrepreneur? Clearly we must evaluate additional characteristics and then evaluate these characteristics cumulatively.

ii. **Organising and Managing New Solutions:**

A second ability often attributed to an entrepreneur is that of organizing and managing new solutions to problems. Again, in isolation, this too is not an adequate definition of a characteristic of an entrepreneur. Excellent actors on the enterprise stage perform these functions on a daily basis within the enterprise organizational structure.

iii. A third ability often attributed to an Entrepreneur is that of identifying market opportunities, the ability to create and execute sales and marketing plan that identifies prospective customers, identifies a value proposition for those customers, and a sales process to convert those prospects into customers. Here too, sales and marketing professionals within the enterprise perform these functions

on a daily basis throughout the various enterprise organizations that make up the fabric of our world stage every day.

- iv. A fourth ability often attributed to an entrepreneur is that of identifying the financial capital resources needed and sourcing those funds from various financial channels, whether that is debt, private equity, public equity, or other financial boot strap facilities. This function is also routinely carried out across a varied spectrum of enterprise organizations including advisors, bankers, attorneys, and accountants. All of which frequently participate in the process of identifying and acquiring the necessary capital resources.
- v. **Management Team**
A fifth characteristic often attributed to an Entrepreneur is that of building a management team of both internal people resources as well as external people resources who collectively have the knowledge and skills to participate in the execution of an enterprise activity. Yet this characteristic too is also a core function within the modern enterprise.
- vi. **Disciplined:**
These individuals are focused on making their businesses work, and eliminate any hindrances or distractions to their goals. They have overarching strategies and outline the tactics to accomplish them. Successful entrepreneurs are disciplined enough to take steps every day toward the achievement of their objectives.
- vii. **Confidence:**
The entrepreneur does not ask questions about whether they can succeed or whether they are worthy of success. They are confident with the knowledge that they will make their businesses succeed. They exude that confidence in everything they do.
- viii. **Open Minded**
Entrepreneurs realize that every event and situation is a business opportunity. Ideas are constantly being generated about workflows and efficiency, people skills and potential new businesses. They have the ability to look at everything around them and focus it toward their goals.
- ix. **Self Starter**
Entrepreneurs know that if something needs to be done, they should start it themselves. They set the parameters and make sure that projects follow that path. They are proactive, not waiting for someone to give them permission.
- x. **Competitive**
Many companies are formed because an entrepreneur knows that they can do a job better than another. They need to win at the sports they play and need to win at the businesses that they create. An entrepreneur will highlight their own company's track record of success.
- xi. **Creativity**
One facet of creativity is being able to make connections between seemingly unrelated events or situations. Entrepreneurs often come up with solutions which are the synthesis of other items. They will repurpose products to market them to new industries.

xii. **Determination**

Entrepreneurs are not thwarted by their defeats. They look at defeat as an opportunity for success. They are determined to make all of their endeavors succeed, so will try and try again until it does. Successful entrepreneurs do not believe that something cannot be done.

xiii. **Strong people skills**

The entrepreneur has strong communication skills to sell the product and motivate employees. Most successful entrepreneurs know how to motivate their employees so the business grows overall. They are very good at highlighting the benefits of any situation and coaching others to their success.

xiv. **Strong work ethic**

The successful entrepreneur will often be the first person to arrive at the office and the last one to leave. They will come in on their days off to make sure that an outcome meets their expectations. Their mind is constantly on their work, whether they are in or out of the workplace.

xv. **Passion**

Passion is the most important trait of the successful entrepreneur. They genuinely love their work. They are willing to put in those extra hours to make the business succeed because there is a joy their business gives which goes beyond the money. The successful entrepreneur will always be reading and researching ways to make the business better.

xvi. Successful entrepreneurs want to see what the view is like at the top of the business mountain. Once they see it, they want to go further. They know how to talk to their employees, and their businesses soar as a result.

As we evaluate the characteristics traditionally identified as being associated with an entrepreneur, we quickly see these same characteristics executed by individual actors within the enterprise stage on a regular basis. So what makes an entrepreneur different from the various actors within the enterprise stage?

The traditional response centers around two distinct themes;

- First a creative and passionate ability to combine these various characteristics to identify new solutions to meet unmet consumer needs in a new or different manner that creates lasting value, and
- Second, a willingness to assume personal economic risk for undertaking that activity.

4.13 Additional Characteristics

- i. *Replicable mindset.* There are some pursuits that can legitimately last a lifetime. However, such lifetime opportunities are rare. The world is full of what are popularly described as “one-hit-wonders”—thus a critical criteria begs the question, did you just get lucky, or do you truly have the skills, talents, and characteristics that allow you the ability to repeat the entrepreneurial process

not just once, but a second, third, and successive times. An entrepreneur has a replicable mindset that allows the enterprise creation process to be replicated time after time.

- ii. *Sustainability of the resultant enterprise.* This new enterprise that is created by an entrepreneur must also be sustainable. That is the enterprise must eventually develop to a point where it can be sustained without the original founder. If the enterprise requires the continued presence of the founder, the founder simply created a “job.” This is a traditional cycle of the various stages of development that a corporate enterprise goes through; and each stage typically needs a different type of management and leadership—thus to grow to the next stage often will require new management and the traditional entrepreneur must have the ability to move on to their next entrepreneurial cycle of new enterprise creation.
- iii. *Innovative knowledge creation.* Finally, the entrepreneur has to have the ability to creatively innovate knowledge. This is exercised in the combination of the various skill sets or characteristics that are commonly attributed to entrepreneurs. While individual actors within the enterprise stage may be better at their individual skill sets, the entrepreneur combines the pieces in unique creative ways to identify new opportunities, organize and select the best available combination of individual talents and skill sets, manage the development and execution of an organizational structure to serve the new opportunity, and manage the risk that the entrepreneur is assuming in the creation of this new enterprise.
- iv. *Leadership.* The entrepreneur must be able to inspire people with a vision of what the new enterprise will be, inspire investors and stakeholders involved in the creation of this enterprise, and provide the leadership to guide and manage the implementation and execution of the business plan to grow the enterprise.
- v. *Value of Ethics.* This quickly relates back to the ability of the entrepreneur to replicate the new enterprise creation process. An actor may be able to be successful once while conducting themselves in a less than ethical manner; but can they inspire people with a vision, and receive the confidence of investors and customers a second time?

Thus a true entrepreneur has the ability to identify opportunities, provide the leadership to creatively innovate new solutions to serve those opportunities, organize, manage, and execute a plan to serve those opportunities, inspire and motivate stakeholders, investors, managers, and team members, lead the enterprise into the future, and pass the mantle of leadership to others when the organizational needs change. And finally, have the ability to replicate this process when the opportunity presents itself.

Entrepreneurs have a *need to achieve*; and once having done so, the *need to do it all over again*.—Greg Watson

Position Statement: Individual Entrepreneurs are Born, but Enterprise Entrepreneurship Skills can be developed.

Individual Entrepreneurs Entrepreneurs are inherently defined by their ability to identify and execute on combination of a variety of entrepreneurial characteristics

and values; however, it is this need to achieve and this subsequent need to do it all over again that truly distinguishes the entrepreneur from the successfully executive, manager, self-employed business person, business founder, or the innovator/inventor.

- i. *Enterprise Entrepreneurship*: Many people believe that entrepreneurs are born with an innate drive and passion that allows them to accomplish these feats of new enterprise creation. However, that belief does not preclude the concept that within the corporate enterprise, various individual entrepreneurial skills can be taught and developed such that organized teams, provided with support and backing, can also function collectively in an entrepreneurial manner.
- ii. In many cases, free from the burden of assuming the risk of the economic activity, collective individuals functioning as part of a team will feel free to pursue new opportunities in an “*entrepreneurial like*” manner. Thus while they individually may not possess the characteristics of an entrepreneur, they can collectively function in an *entrepreneurial like* manner to the “*benefit of*” and the “*risk to*” the enterprise.
- iii. Collectively, significant academic research is beginning to be developed in areas such as organizational development, new product development, and other functional areas to attempt to foster the development of entrepreneurial skills which will allow individuals as well as the enterprise to benefit. Enterprises successfully implement cross functional teams and provide the financial and organizational structural support to function in an entrepreneurial like manner stand to benefit significantly. These enterprises will also be able to attract more highly qualified individuals who desire to be part of an entrepreneurial process but are unwilling or unable to take the financial risk or lack some of the necessary entrepreneurial characteristics or skills.

Progress is being made within the academic community to develop and incorporate entrepreneurial skill sets into a broad diversity of academic disciplines. As the fruits of these efforts begin to develop, individuals, enterprises, and the roles that each play within society will all benefit.

4.14 The DNA of a Prototypic Entrepreneur

The characteristic of the prototypic entrepreneur or DNA of an Entrepreneur is composed of interwoven strands of:

- i. Identity and Beliefs,
- ii. Capabilities, and
- iii. Behaviors

Identity and Beliefs Entrepreneurs have an Identity System and a Beliefs System that at the deepest internal level, know and believe certain things about themselves. These are beliefs, not dreams or aspirations. Entrepreneurs:

- i. Know who they are.
- ii. Believe they are an entrepreneur.
- iii. Have a strong need to achieve (not simply a desire to achieve).
- iv. Know they can create value.
- v. Believe they have what it takes to build a business.
- vi. Believe in themselves.
- vii. Are comfortable with who they are.
- viii. Are optimistic.
- ix. Are visionary & pioneering.
- x. Are passionate and energetic.

These characteristics are an inherent part of their self-identity and self-belief system. They are core values that the entrepreneur cannot even imagine not being true; and is not happy when any one of them is not being fulfilled. Combined, these characteristics provide the strength for the entrepreneurial “need to achieve.” For the entrepreneur, “Achieve” is an action, not a result. Thus for the entrepreneur, success is not enough. Success once “achieved” must be started all over again—for achieve is an action.

This drive to achieve is a key distinction between an entrepreneur and a successful business founder, the inventor and his invention, or the traditional self-employed individual.

This need to achieve is the highest correlation factor of successful entrepreneurs.

Capabilities Entrepreneurs have certain capabilities that are a natural functionality in the way they approach tasks and decision making.

- i. Can make decisions in the face of uncertainty.
- ii. Can spot high leverage opportunities.
- iii. Can hire “A Players” (which often means hiring people who are better at individual tasks than they are).
- iv. Can build a thriving small business.
- v. Can lead.
- vi. Can solve big problems.
- vii. Can see possibilities where others do not.
- viii. Can delay gratification.

Entrepreneurs typically are not looking for the short-term financial gratification or rewards of material possessions, but rather look forward with a long term view building, growth, and development—and the emotional and psychological rewards that come with their continued and ongoing achievements.

Behaviors Entrepreneurs demonstrate specific behaviors that differentiate themselves from the expectation that a typical “employee” expects.

- i. Action oriented
- ii. Always strive to do things better.
- iii. Driven to achieve results with high standards of excellence.
- iv. Does not need supervision or accountability to “get tasks done”.
- v. Incredibly persistent.

The entrepreneurial mind thrives in environments of uncertainty, diversity of culture, talent and opportunity. These three areas of characteristics provide broad insights into the mindset of the entrepreneur; perhaps the genetic makeup of the entrepreneur.

Is there an entrepreneur chromosome that defines you either as being an entrepreneur or not? There probably is not such a definitive source. Are there dominant and recessive characteristics that function in a similar manner as genes do within the human genome? It certainly appears that there are; and warrants sound scholarly academic research into the manner in which these inter-relationships between these characteristics function and manifest themselves in entrepreneurship.

4.15 Session D: Food for Thought

You have been introduced to a variety of presentations on entrepreneurship, and entrepreneurship skills and a group project in which you are to work as a team. There are two activities in which you have to work on as a team. However, you can work on it as an individual if you have something unique that you were already working on earlier.

Firstly, you are to work on a project as a team member and make an input to the final project report.

4.15.1 Format for the Group Project

- Title of Project.
- List of Contents
- Sections Written and allocation of responsibilities
- Acknowledgments

4.15.2 Abstract

- Summary presentation of the business project-Purpose.
- The product itself/Outcomes
- Roles played by each team member

4.15.3 Introduce and Sell Your Business Idea

- What is your business idea? Is the project well explained/Described?
- Why do you want to start the business? Is the rationale well stated clearly? What were the goals of the project?
- Is the business important to you and your clients? What is the significance and uniqueness of the project?

4.15.4 Background Theory/Literature Review: Are there Related Businesses?

- What is known about similar or related businesses? What other similar or related businesses exist and what can you learn from them?
- Critically articulate the value of entrepreneurship skills and review of similar businesses.—What works and what does not work in enterprises.

4.15.5 Business Roles and Responsibilities and Methods

- Explain how the project was/will be set up:
- Methods used, Details of work plans, partnership planning problems and how they were solved.
- Resources needed and their procurement (Finance, personnel, Space, Equipment and supplies, etc).
- Presentation of practical samples such as photos, the product itself.

4.15.6 Monitoring, Review and Celebration

- Outcomes and lessons learned
- Detailed explanation of the final product
- Celebration, Expected challenges, Action- Based Review (Constraints, Successes and Failures).
- Summary/Conclusion
- Is it concise? Is the purpose achievable? Significance
- Outcomes and key lessons learned.
- Final project Evaluation.

4.15.7 Other Important Factors in Setting up an Enterprise

- Budget
- Letters written
- Posters and written documents used in the process of developing the project.

Secondly, based on your team work experiences and workshops, you are to individually submit a *two OR three* paged reflective journal of the importance of the entrepreneurship skills you have used during the training period and the team work project you have/are participating in. What have you learned? What does that mean to you? Are you ready to start?

4.16 Response to the Workshop by Participants

- The concepts of entrepreneurship introduced by the workshop were new to most of the participants.

4.17 Conclusions

The training sessions above were meant to equip the learners with entrepreneurship skills. Some entrepreneurs are born or groomed by their families as a lifelong learning process from the cradle to the grave, while others learn from elsewhere and need training to acquire the requisite skills for success. The skills are learned, while it is hoped that by the end of 1 year of writing this book, there will have been an evaluation of the training by Kellogg/Ba Isago.

It was expected that after implementation of what was learned during the training, learners would be in a position to start and sustain enterprises for them to make a transition from poverty to non-poverty. Specific needs that they have are likely to be met based on what they put into action after the three years of training and retraining.

References

- Sheshinski, E., Strom, R. J., & Baumol, W. J. (2007). *Entrepreneurship, innovation, and the growth mechanism of the free-enterprise economies*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Stevenson, H. H. (1983). A perspective on entrepreneurship. Harvard Business School Working Paper 9-384-131.

Further Reading

- Ács, z. J., & Armington, C. (2006). *Entrepreneurship, geography, and American economic growth*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ács, z. J., & Audretsch, D. B. (2005). *Entrepreneurship, innovation and technological change*. Boston: Now Publishers.
- Ács, z. J., Audretsch, D. B., & Strom, R. J. (2009). *Entrepreneurship, growth, and public policy. Kauffman-Max Planck summit on entrepreneurship research and policy*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Audretsch, D. B. (2007). *The entrepreneurial society*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Audretsch, D. B., Keilbach, M. c., & Lehmann, E. (2006). *Entrepreneurship and economic growth*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Carsrud, A. L., & Brannback, M. (2007). *Entrepreneurship*. Westport: Greenwood Press.
- Casillas, J. C., Acedo, F. J., & Moreno, A. M. (2007). *International entrepreneurship in family businesses*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

- Duke, C., & Hinzen, H. (2011). *Education for All and Beyond Fall*. In: Adult Education and Life-long Learning Within UNESCO: CONFINTEA, 22(4): 6, 18; American Association for Adult and Continuing Education Language.
- Gergen, C., & Vanourek, G. (2008). *Life entrepreneurs: Ordinary people creating extraordinary lives*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gersick, K. E. (1997). *Generation to generation: Life cycles of the family business*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Grunde, A. (1987). *How to write effective research report*. *Marketing News*, 21(18): 34–35; 2p.
- Hvide, H. K. (Jul 2009). *Economic Journal*, 119(9): 1010–1035; 26p.
- Haidar, J. I. (2012). The impact of business regulatory reforms on economic growth. *Journal of the Japanese and International Economies*, 26(3), 285–307. (Elsevier, September).
- Lerner, J., & Schaar, A. (2010). *International differences in entrepreneurship*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Reynolds P. D. (1997). *Leveraging resources: Building an organization on an entrepreneurial resource base*. *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research, 1997*. Babson College.
- Reynolds P. D. (2010). *Entrepreneurship in the United States: The future is now*. New York: Springer.
- Samli, A. C. (2009). *International entrepreneurship: Innovative solutions for a fragile planet*. New York: Springer.
- Serumaga-Zake, Philip A. E., & Raghunath, A. (2013). *Exploring Income Distribution In Botswana*. *International Journal of Economics & Business Studies*, 3(1): 3–10; 8p. Brown Walker Press.
- Shane, S. A. (2003). *A general theory of entrepreneurship: The individual-opportunity nexus*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Vuong, Q. H., Napier, N. K., & Tran, T. D. (2012). A categorical data analysis on relationships between culture, creativity and business stage: The case of Vietnam. *International Journal of Transitions and Innovation Systems*, 2(3–4), N.A. <http://www.inderscience.com/jhome.php?jcode=ijtis>. Accessed 25 Dec. 2012.

Part II
The Human Dimensions of Poverty

Chapter 5

Lifelong Learning and Small Businesses Management Skills

Morgen Chawawa

5.1 Introduction

The Kellogg Foundation and Ba Isago University College projects provided an additional workshop to the San Community in D’kar which was designed to equip them with small business management skills. It is not enough to give entrepreneurs a motivation to start a business. Businesses demands day-to-day management skills. This workshop was a follow-up to the initial training in Lifelong Learning and Entrepreneurship Development Training workshops held for the same San target group. This training provided nuts and bolts of running a business and looks into the challenges of operationalizing business knowledge and theories.

Apparently the Government of Botswana provides some training to those who want to start their own businesses but the difference is that only those who have been given loans by the Citizen Empowerment Development Agency (CEDA), a Government parastatal qualify to take part in this training. Ba Isago University College and W Kellogg Foundation Project permitted all members of the San Community in D’kar to take part in the training and also provided translated materials. The participants were further motivated by the local government and small business development agencies which run workshops with them to give them funding options for their projects.

5.2 Theoretical Framework

Management in small and large businesses means to coordinating the efforts of people to accomplish goals and objectives using available resources efficiently and effectively. Management comprises planning, organizing, staffing, leading or

M. Chawawa (✉)
Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

directing and controlling an organization or initiative to accomplish a goal. Resourcing encompasses the deployment and manipulation of human resources, financial resources, technological resources, and natural resources. Since organizations can be viewed as systems, management can also be defined as human action, including design, to facilitate the production of useful outcomes from a system. This view opens the opportunity to 'manage' oneself, a prerequisite to attempting to manage others. Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SME) are recognized as a significant part of both developed and developing economies. Numbers signify their importance as SMEs usually represent more than 99% of all enterprises in almost every country. For developing economies they are especially important as SMEs play a critical role in poverty reduction through employment generation.

Management operates through various functions, often classified as planning, organizing, staffing, leading/directing, controlling/monitoring and motivation.

- **Planning:** Deciding what needs to happen in the future (today, next week, next month, next year, over the next five years, etc.) and generating plans for action.
- **Organizing:** (Implementation) pattern of relationships among workers, making optimum use of the resources required to enable the successful carrying out of plans.
- **Staffing:** Job analysis, recruitment and hiring for appropriate jobs.
- **Leading/directing:** Determining what must be done in a situation and getting people to do it.
- **Controlling/monitoring:** Checking progress against plans.
- **Motivation:** Motivation is also a kind of basic function of management, because without motivation, employees cannot work effectively. If motivation does not take place in an organization, then employees may not contribute to the other functions (which are usually set by top-level management).
- **Communicating:** is giving, receiving, or exchange information.
- **Creating:** ability to produce original ideas and thoughts through the use of imagination

According to economic theory, entrepreneurs are individuals who:

- (1) innovative (Schumpeter 1942),
- (2) take economic risks (Knight (1921); Kihlstrom et al. (1979); Kanbur (1979), and Jovanovic (1979)), and
- (3) are considered jacks-of-all-trades in the sense that they have a broad skill set (Lazear 2005). Policy makers often consider entrepreneurs to be job creators or the engines of economic growth.

Entrepreneurs have to perform all the above functions and ensure that businesses remain profitable. Small businesses are the best form of economic ventures that individuals must undertake to support their families and also provided employment to some of their community members. It is necessary that those who run small to medium businesses receive the necessary training and for the reason Ba Isago University College and the W Kellogg Foundation provided the San people of D'kar with workshops on small business management.

Successful operations of businesses can borrow from Peter Drucker's management theories on the idea of decentralization, in the 1940s, which became a bedrock principle for small and big businesses. He was the first to assert, in the 1950s that workers should be treated as assets, not as liabilities to be eliminated. He originated the view of the corporation as a human community, again, in the 1950s, built on trust and respect for the worker and not just a profit-making machine, a perspective that won Drucker an almost godlike reverence among the Japanese. He first made clear still the '50 s, that there is "no business without a customer," a simple notion that ushered in a new marketing mindset. He argued in the 1960s—long before others—for the importance of substance over style, for institutionalized practices over charismatic, cult leaders. He wrote about the contribution of knowledge workers in the 1970s long before anyone knew or understood how knowledge would trump raw material as the essential capital of the New Economy. The above theoretical framework provided sound knowledge base for the Ba Isago University College training programme to share some important concepts and principles of running small businesses with the San Community workshop participants so that in the event they decided to start their own businesses, they possess relevant theoretical scientific knowledge on how to run their businesses successfully.

5.2.1 Kuru Development Trust

Kuru Development Trust has been running a number of small businesses using mostly outside expatriate professionals, who leave the organization at the end of their contracts. It Trust runs the following:

1. Game Farm
2. Art and Crafts Cooperative
3. Museum
4. San Dance Festival and
5. Vegetable garden

These projects employ San general workers but the skilled positions such as Project Managers, Accountants and Marketing Managers are in the hands of expatriates. This causes a perennial frustration on the part of the San who feel debilitated when these professional do not share information or carry out any substantial capacity building programmes to enable the San locals to take over their positions. This precarious state of affairs was observed by the Ba Isago Community Engagement Team and a deliberate decision was made to provide special training to the san in the above projects so that they could gain knowledge on how to run these enterprises.

It was also discovered that the Trust had started a tannery, which ran for some time but eventually failed because the workers failed to run the finances professionally of the factory. There was a leather goods manufacturing factory which made belts, horse saddles and many other types of leather goods. It operated from a building that was owned by the Trust but the tailors who made products were not employed by the Trust. They worked as independent business persons who did not

have small business management skills. As a result the factory closed down. The Ba Isago Evaluation Team discovered that one of the reasons the factory failed is that there was no ownership of the business by those who

This course comes to consolidate and build up the acquired skills to equip the participants involved in San projects, with practical/hand-on skills of running their businesses.

Context of the training: Before the training workshops was conducted, it was necessary for the consultant to establish the extent to which participants had been involved in running businesses of other people. While a number of participants had worked for other business establishments, it was established that they worked only as general workers. Only two participants had some bookkeeping background but at a very elementary level in which they receipted monies received from clients and then handed over the cash to clerks or supervisors.

The first training was well received as shown by the evaluation forms, which reflected that most of the workshop participants wanted to start their own businesses and felt that they had the capacity to do so. This training was more demanding in terms of its content and concepts. The level of participation was much lower in this workshop and it was also evident that participants had fewer questions for the trainer than in the previous workshop.

The level of participation in group work activities was also reduced and only the younger participants presented their work during the session. The older members of the groups needed more help during the workshops in the form of extended explanation of concepts and repetition of some training materials.

(ii) Course Structure: This module covers practical skills of management paying more attention on the frequently used skills by small businesses. The coverage of the module included skills in: Planning, Leading, Organizing, Controlling, Coordinating, And Communicating. The CEFE Participatory Training Methodologies shall be used.

(iii) Course Objectives: The purpose of training is to give hands-on skills of running one's business:

- To equip participants with business management skills
- To guide participants in doing selected management tasks
- To give tips on record-keeping and management of business resources

5.3 Summary Notes and Exercises

5.3.1 Presentation 1: Planning Skills

The training started with a class exercise for the participants to quickly read the trends and changing systems around them for development of skills in PLANNING.

They managed to read systems and changing seasons in business. The exercise was followed by a group activity in which participants were to develop plans/steps to follow in purchasing a truck.

Groups presented their work and they all managed to produce logical steps to follow to buy a truck.

The group exercise was followed by class discussions to reinforce concepts learnt:

5.3.1.1 Definition of Planning

The process of stating or listing things or activities to be done in order to achieve the stated goals

Reference was made on concepts covered in the previous workshop on Goals and Business Influences:

SMART Goal Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, Time-framed

Just as a SMART Goal, good plans must have the above qualities

Factors affecting Planning It was also realized that factors influencing progress of business are also key factors affecting planning:

5.3.1.2 PESTEL

- Political: the role and interests of the ruling party, local Counselor, MP and other authorities
- Economic: the effects of prices, inflation, currency values, interest rates, employment rates
- Social: the role of culture, religion and community members and their interests
- Technological: the influences of computers and machinery in business
- Ecological: the need to protect the environment and reduce pollution and global warming
- Legal: the influences of the local council by-laws, licenses, registrations, government laws
- Time of doing business and the need to put time-frames and respect deadlines
- The need to have a place of doing business or of executing plans
- Resources are key in ensuring that plans are full-filled such as human, funds, materials, machinery
- Planning considers the needs of customers and influences of competitors and how to counter them
- Learning from past experience or mistakes

5.3.1.3 Planning Tables

All plans need to be recorded in flow charts and systematic tables answering specific questions such as:

What Activity?	Where?	By Who?	By When?	To give which Results
----------------	--------	---------	----------	-----------------------

5.3.2 Presentation 2: Leading Skills For Managers

The learning concepts on Leadership are set to build on the experiences of the previous courses and group exercises done. Participants were asked to identify their Leaders/Managers in the groups without the involvement of the trainer. They will be asked why they chose the persons to lead them. They will start noting qualities of good leadership such as outstanding, taking initiative and guide others through the exercise. Considering their experiences, will be easy to define leading.

5.3.2.1 Definition of Leading

Leading as the process of influencing others to act or behave in a certain way in order to achieve the stated objectives.

5.3.2.2 General Qualities For A Good Leader

Further discussion went into participants being able to list the qualities of a good Leader. They managed to identify good leadership in terms of the following broad areas:

-Respect for time and others	-Commitment	-Personal management
-Natural skills (charisma)	-Physical qualities	-Intellectual qualities
-Communication & Inter-personal skills	-Knowledge/skills/talent	-Uniqueness

5.3.2.3 Specific Characteristics of a good Leader:

The above qualities can be broken down into simple and specific characteristics of a good leader such as:

Takes Responsibility	Ability to delegate and train others
Good communicator/listener	Hard worker
Has inborn skills/drive (Charisma)	Fair
Quick and effective decision-maker	Consults others
Honest	Transparent
Confident	Cooperative
Disciplined	Independent
Good-look/well-groomed	Tolerant
Respect of each other's and others' views	Knowledgeable/skilled/talented
Attractive appearance	Powerful (Spiritually/physically)
Healthy and of sound mind	Good time-management
Helpful	Visionary

5.3.3 Presentation 3: Organising Skills For Managers

These skills will easily be covered through a simple individual exercise to re-arrange three mixed numbering systems:

- Letters of the Alphabet
- Roman Numeral
- Conventional/Cardinal Numbers

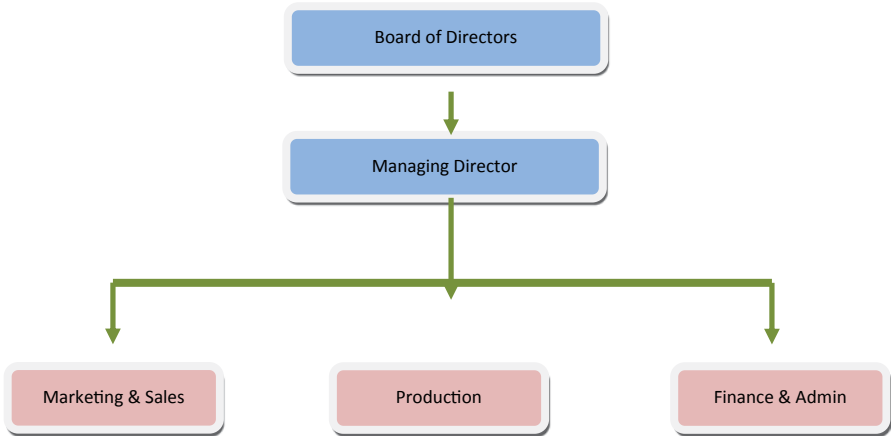
These numbers will be mixed and each participant will come up with a new arrangement showing the same numbers in order in their own group.

Class discussions brought the system used to put these mixed numbers in order and thus came up with the meaning of Organizing.

Definition of Organizing Organizing is the process of dividing and sub-dividing large volumes of work into smaller and manageable units.

Organizational Structure Participants went through the manner businesses should be arranged from the Organizational Structure to the stages in which they produce or provide their services.

The following will be a simple organizational structure showing the set-up of a small production company:



5.3.4 Organizing Production Processes

5.3.4.1 Individual exercise

With aid of a diagram (flow chart),

Each participant will be asked to produce a diagrammatic illustration of the stages he/she will follow to do production/provide a service in the project he/she runs or wants to run. This was well done as most participants followed the basic production stages:

Gather Resources → Measure → Processing → Finalize → Packaging → Selling

5.4 Day 2

5.4.1 Presentation 4: Controlling Skills For Managers

The skills can be introduced by class discussions on the usual activities in life there controlling takes place:

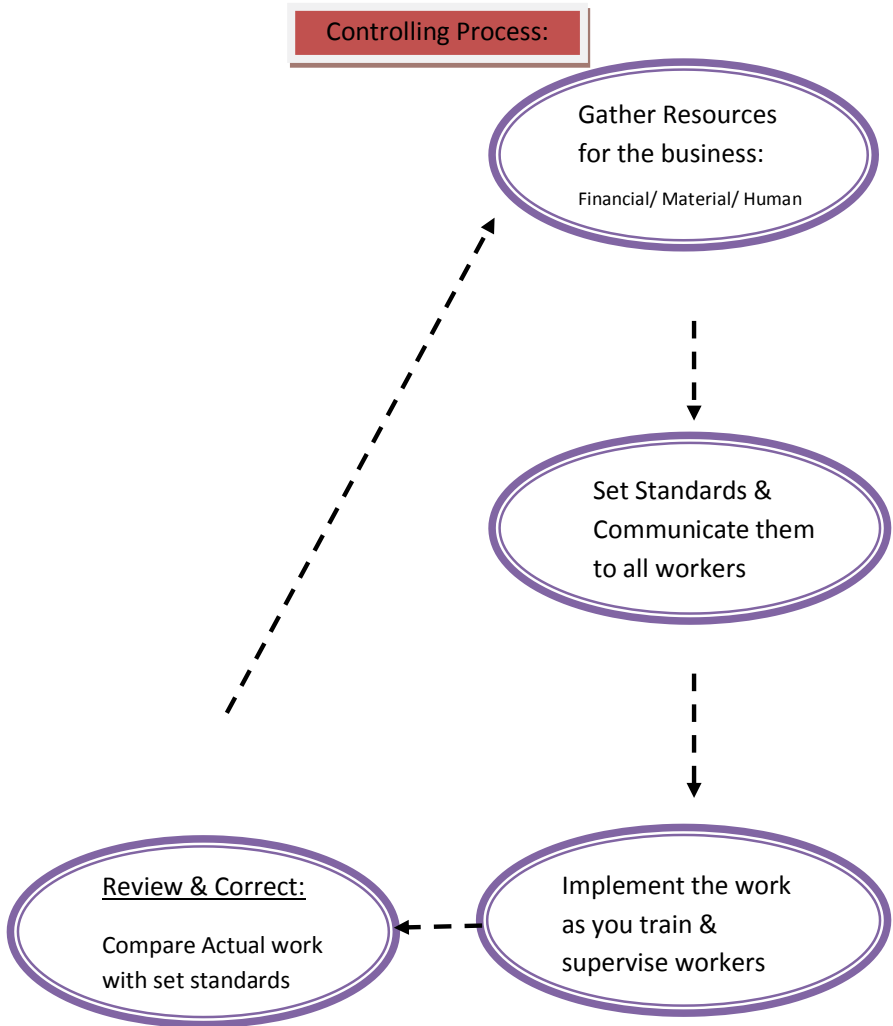
Controlling your family	Controlling a car when driving
You tell your children the rules and regulations	You ensure your engine is fit for the road
You guide them through the proper behaviors	You start the car and ensure that all is ok
You allow them to play and learn	Use the steering wheel to direct the car to where you want to go
You monitor them	Driving on the road you continue to direct the car to where you want following road rules, markings and signs
You correct their errors	Traffic police will check if you are driving according to the law

After discussion of such common examples where people use Controlling, it can be related to business.

Definition of Controlling This is the process of keeping the business run in line with the set standards/targets

5.4.1.1 Tools of Controlling in Business

To succeed in controlling business activities is centered on the need to identify and meet the standards set:



Ensuring the use of inspected building
Ensuring tight security systems
Ensuring registration and insurance of equipment
Workers to have certificates, job descriptions, contracts, registrations, permits
Lease agreements
Sustainable capital/funds to run business
Meeting health and safety standards
Compliance with the law
Adherence to working hours and procedures
Reporting to authorities
Record-keeping and books of accounts
Inspections and audits
Plans and targets in terms of quality/quantity

5.4.2 *Presentation 5: Coordinating Skills For Managers*

5.4.2.1 **Definition of Coordinating**

This is the process of linking different organizational activities so that the organization can be viewed as one united unit.



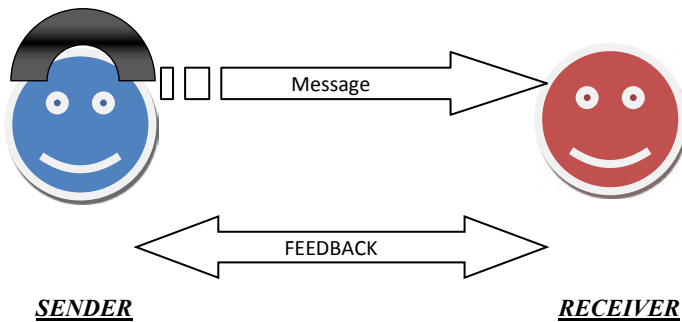
5.4.2.2 Tools of Coordination

- Delegation—passing duties to subordinates
- Meetings
- Workshops
- Seminars
- Training Sessions
- Reports
- Consultations
- Communication
- Visiting (personal contacts)
- Functions/gatherings
- Researches

5.4.3 Presentation 6: Communicating Skills For Managers

5.4.3.1 Definition of Communicating

This is the process of sending and receiving messages form one person to the other
Illustrations of the Communication Process:



5.4.3.2 Importance of Communication in business:

- It helps to process the formation and registration of a business
- It helps the owners of business to acquire all the capital and assets of running a business
- Its helps you to tell other people about your business
- It helps to facilitate the production of the products of the business

- It helps to reach out and attract customers who will buy from the company enabling the business to make income which will translate into profits for sustainability of the business.
- It helps you to give, hear, listen and understand important information, instructions, rules and regulations from other people and organizations you work with in business e.g. Your business partner/s, community & government authorities, workers, customers, competitors

5.4.3.3 Tools and Barriers to Communication

Tools of communication	Barriers to communication
Verbal- by word of mouth	Poor hand writing/print
Written by letters	Poor health
Telephones	Bad technical connection of equipment
Computers and Internet	Power/network failure
Fax	Natural weather conditions
Postal/courier services	Noise
Electronic media; TVs/radios	Lack of knowledge
Print media: newspapers, magazines	Poor voice projection
Non-verbal communication	Lack of resources e.g. money, equipment
Body language	Culture/religion/life-styles
Dressing	Lack of confidence
Sounds	Breakdowns/accidents
	Conflicting characters/personalities

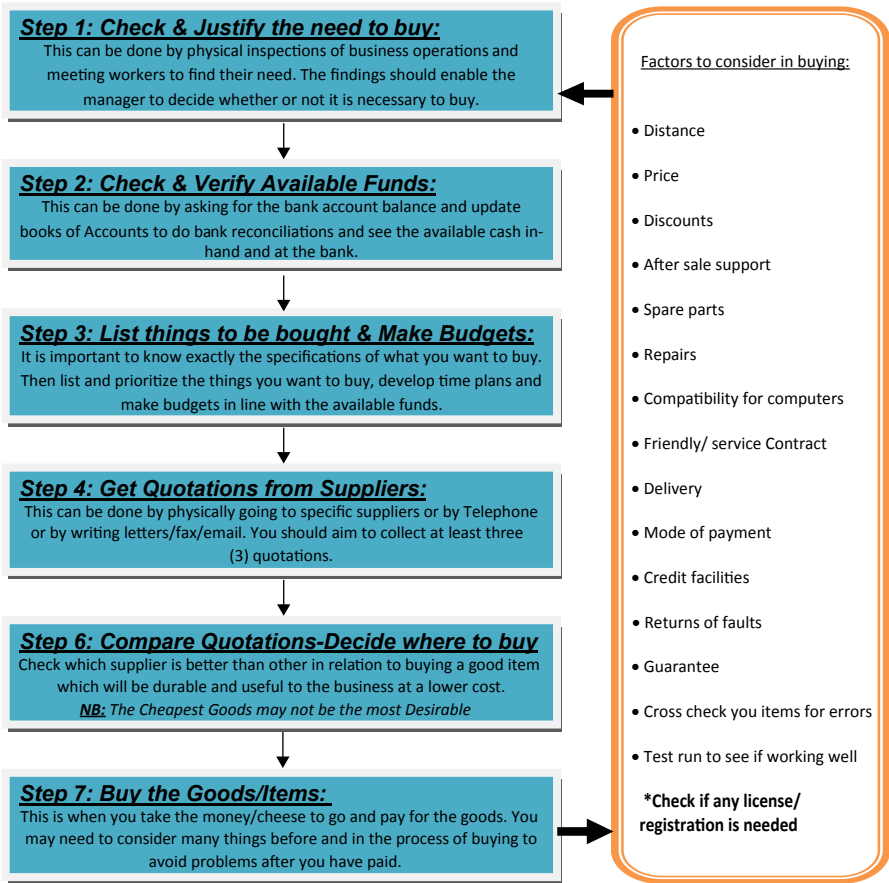
5.5 Day 3

5.5.1 Presentation 1: Purchasing Skills

This is one of the major day-to-day functions of managers in a small business. If not well done it may lead to serious losses and eventually lead to the collapse of the business:

Definition Purchasing is the process of buying or acquiring materials and assets for a business.

5.5.2 Effective and Systematic Purchasing Follows the Following Steps



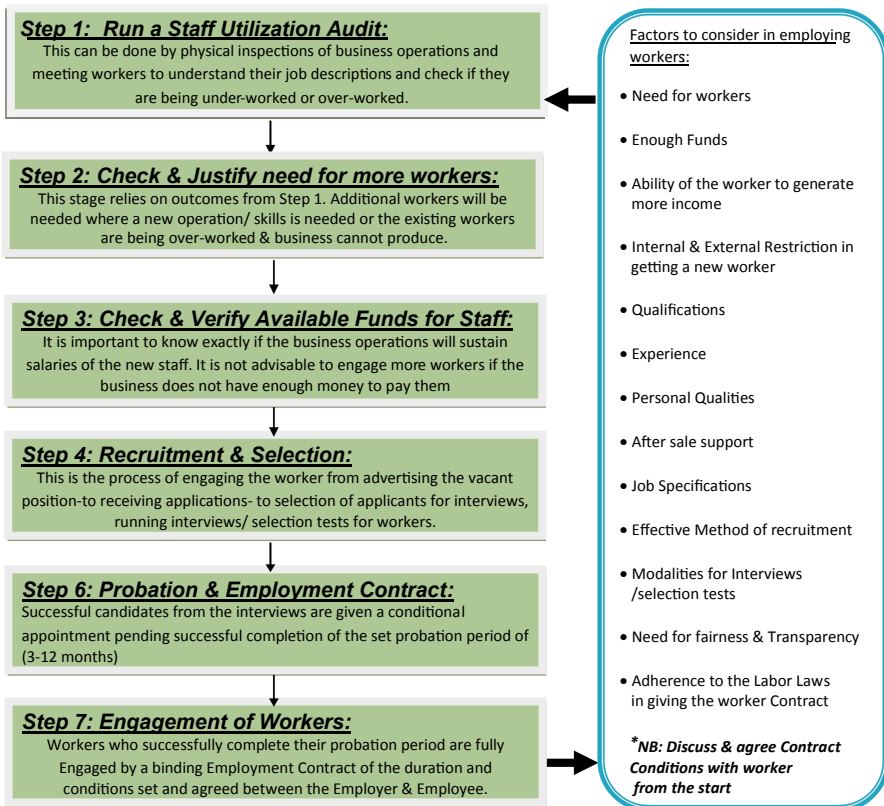
5.6 Day 3

5.6.1 Presentation 2: Management of Staff

The is sometimes known as human resources/personnel/manpower management

Definition Staff management is the process of ensuring that the business has the right workers at any time and ensuring that the workers are fully engaged to work and achieve the objectives of the organization.

5.6.2 Staff are Resources. Just like in Purchasing Managing Staff Follows the Following Steps:



5.7 Day 3

5.7.1 Presentation 3: Record-keeping

5.8 Day 3

5.8.1 Presentation 4: Record-keeping

Records very important in business and it are the responsibility of every manager to ensure that records are kept clearly and accurately.

Definition Record-keeping is the process of sourcing and maintaining information and documents.

In business therefore information and documents to maintain concern business transactions that is the movement of workers, materials and money in and out of the organization

5.8.2 Types of Records

Generally there are three ways in which records can be kept in the business:

Narrative records: These are records with explanations and details	Numerical records: These include numbers of money, people or other goods	Graphical Records: These include tables, graphs, pictures and diagrams
Plans: mission, vision, targets, objectives	Numerical reports include: Research report on field, Market, impact etc.	Organizational structure Action plans/flow charts
	Instructions, job descriptions	Financial books of accounts Statistics on staff, recruitment, attendance
Narrative reports from staff/supervisors/managers/directors	Final accounts e.g. end of year financial report	Production and business performance
Communication messages e.g. Letters, memos	Registers of attendance to work, meetings, training	Financial records Instructions, direction and other sign posts
		Customers and sales records
News e.g. External/internal publications	Inputs into production and outputs of finished products	Marketing share and coverage/direction maps
Contracts e.g. Purchase, title deeds, lease, employment, supply		

5.8.3 Importance of Record-keeping in Business

To track down the movement of money as money is the blood of the business	To identify the sources of revenue and lines of expenditure for your business
To be well-informed and make timely and accurate decisions	To have documents for prepare financial statements and prepare TAX returns
To remind the workers and managers of previous work done e.g. orders/money	To provide evidence to auditors and government inspectors
To formulate the strategy of your business e.g. costing/pricing/countering competition	To comply with the law
	To save time in looking for information
To provide reliable basis for planning, monitoring and evaluation of business	To improve the efficiency, effectiveness and profitability of the business
To apply for loans and investments	To held managers to learn from the past

Participants were introduced to some of the commonly used record-keeping, asset purchase forms and contracts.

List of Items to be included in some Commonly used Contracts:

Contract of employment	Contract of lease
Employment Contract Heading	Lease Contract Heading
Name and address/contacts of the company	Name and address/contacts of the company
Name and address/contacts of the employee	Name and address/contacts of the landlord
The position of employment	The property of lease
Duration of the contract	Duration of lease
Duration of probation	Time of notice to vacate
Payment (wages/salaries/commissions)	Payment (rent)
Working hours	Rent deposit
Conditions of employment	Conditions of lease
Job description	Expectations of tenant
Job outputs	Expectations of landlord
Qualities of the person	Conditions for alteration/improvement
Special requirements of the job	Repairs and damages
Adherence to company policy and procedures and laws of the country	Adherence to lease conditions and laws of the country

5.8.4 Sample simplified cash books were presented for participants:

(a) MAIN CASH BOOK:

This is simply recording money coming in and money going out of the business. It can be divided into two books:

- One for only Cash Book
- One recording Cash movement in the Bank

NB: The Format Cash Book is the same for these two Cash Books

- (i) Goods/Stock Record: for recording the quantities of goods/stock Received, Issued & Balance
- (b) PETTY CASH BOOK: The naming and break down of columns shall depend on the company/manager/

5.9 Conclusions

This chapter illuminated the role of Kellogg Foundation in giving opportunities for Lifelong learning entrepreneurship opportunities, and training in and small

businesses management skills. Although no amount of training can be exhaustive in terms of the needs of an entrepreneur,

Communication, planning, productivity and creativity are some of the important business management skills for entrepreneurs. Other critical points for success include social networking, speaking skills, creativity in marketing what is on sale, being productive enough to accelerate sales, and proper record keeping. Without record keeping, entrepreneurs are unable to discern profits and losses to their enterprises.

References

- Green, J., & Laffont, J. J. (1979). An incentive compatible planning procedure for public good production: A corrigendum. *Scandinavian Journal of Economics*, 81(3), 443–444.
- Jovanovic, B. (1979). Job matching and the theory of turnover. *Journal of Political Economy*, 87(5), 972.
- Kanbur, S. (1979). Of risk taking and the personal distribution of income. *Journal of Political Economy*, 87(4), 769–797.
- Knight, F. (1921). *Risk, uncertainty, and profit*. Houghton Mifflin. Boston, MA: Hart, Schaffner & Marx; Houghton Mifflin Co.
- Lazear, E. (2005). Entrepreneurship. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 23(4), 649–680.
- Schumpeter, J. (1942). *Capitalism, socialism, and democracy*. George Allen and Unwin. New York: Harper & Row.

Further Reading

- Abrams, R. M. *The successful business plan: Secrets and strategies* (5th ed.). Palo Alto.
- Caplan, S. (2010). *Start your own business and hire yourself: Insider tips for successful self-employment in any economy*. Indianapolis: JIST Works.
- Fox, J. J. (2004). *How to make big money in your own small business: Unexpected rules every small business owner needs to know*. New York: Hyperion.
- Gasse, Y. et al. (1997). Entrepreneurial-managerial competencies and practices of growing SMEs (University of Laval Centre for Entrepreneurship and SMEs).
- Gegax, T. (2007). *The big book of small business: You don't have to run your business by the seat of your pants*. New York: Collins.
- Harper, S. C. (2003). *McGraw-Hill guide to starting your own business: A step-by-step blueprint for the first time entrepreneur* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hess, E. D. (2009). *So you want to start a business?: 8 steps to take before making the leap*. Upper Saddle River: FT Press.
- Kishel, G. F. (2005). *How to start, run, and stay in business: The nuts-and-bolts guide to turning your business dream into a reality* (4th ed). Hoboken: Wiley.
- Kihlstrom, R., & Laffont, J.-J. (1979). A general equilibrium entrepreneurial theory of firm formation based on risk aversion. *Journal of Political Economy*, 87(4), 719–748.
- Linda P. (2008) Keeping the books: Basic Recordkeeping and accounting for successful small business, Tustin, California, USA.
- Druker, P. (1954). *The practice of management*. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- Druker, P. (1867). *The effective executive*. New York: Harper & Row.

Chapter 6

The Human Environment and Sustainable Environmental Education

Wapula N. Raditloaneng and Morgen Chawawa

6.1 Introduction

The need for sustainable human environmental sustainability and education is emphasized as crucial for mitigating the impacts of global environmental problems. Global environmental problems include, amongst others, a decline of ecosystems and species, water pollution, climate change, land degradation, desertification, water pollution, poor waste management, deforestation, littering and water scarcity. Lifelong learning is a pathway through which people's capacities may be built to revert the current situation.

The author explores the interface between the human environment, poverty and arguments for sustainable environmental education for poverty eradication. The chapters argue that there is a need for sustainable environmental conservation, education and training processes that can develop people's capacities to be agents of social change.

Amongst the desired changes is lifelong learning about the environment, for poverty eradication. The chapter calls for democratization of environmental education using Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA), and Participatory Action Research (PAR) paradigms that engage communities to inform Environmental Education curriculum processes in Lifelong learning and community education for sustainable development.

Participatory approaches as paradigms were widely used in other African countries such as Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania before they were officially adapted in Botswana in the late 1980s, upon the realization that they provided space for

W. N. Raditloaneng (✉)
Faculty of Education, Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana,
P/Bag 00702, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: Raditloa@mopipi.ub.bw

M. Chawawa
Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

effective dialogues with communities in terms of problem definition, conception and solutions from the perspective of intended beneficiaries. Some of the solutions offered include tree planting, student exchange projects, researching e-learning, social learning and social change for mainstreaming Environmental Education for sustainable development. Environmental education is also infused into transforming agricultural production system to stimulate rural development for poverty reduction.

Botswana like other African countries is not immune to environmental problems. In the chapter, the author explore the interface between global environmental issues, MDGs, and poverty reduction as contextualized in Botswana. The chapter explores different global environmental problems that make it difficult for the poor to make a transition from poverty to non- poverty. Poverty is furthermore aggravated by environmental problems that render agriculture unproductive for self-sufficiency in food production and security. The millennium Development Goals, ratified in 2000 and signed up to by all country members of the United Nations have provided an added impetus to refocus and re-align Environmental issues around development needs around the MDG targets:

6.2 Rationale for Participatory Approaches

In this section, I explore briefly the importance of participatory approaches in environmental educational issues and MDGs. All the above mentioned participatory approaches have a common thread of giving communities confidence to interact with programme personnel and financiers. Participatory approaches (PRA, RRA and PAR) are good examples of community education that bridges the gap between grass roots, indigenous social capital and motivation to participate in learning is the participatory rural appraisal approach, developed for poor countries.

6.2.1 Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)

Participatory rural appraisal (PRA) stems from an emancipatory action research philosophy. The PRA embraces diversity. It can be applied in a range of adult education contexts, such as health, agriculture, biodiversity and urban planning. It is used to address specific African environmental problems such as desertification, low food production, declining productivity and fuelwood shortage (Egerton University 2000). PRA, then, is: ‘built on the premise that participation by the beneficiaries in any project is fundamental’ and that ‘locally developed technologies’ are more likely to succeed in building community confidence and capacity (Egerton University 2000, p. 4). Its strategy is to encourage the use of local cultural values, organisations and knowledge systems for solving problems. The community is involved in every stage of the PRA process.

Green et al (1995, p. 53) suggest that there are three distinctive elements to this kind of research:

- The process involves collaboration between researchers and the researched community at all stages of the process;
- The result is a reciprocal learning experience for researcher and researched;
- The intended outcome of the study is new action.

Three ways in which the community involved in the study should benefit are:

- New knowledge
- New skills
- Participation in, and therefore a sense of ownership over, decisions made as a result of the research.

These goals also equate with community education philosophies where the educator is a facilitator of learning (Tett 2002; Knowles 1980). Participation builds on an oral tradition and does not require a minimum level of literacy and numeracy. Participatory rural appraisal (PRA) is a holistic, all encompassing data collection exercise about a whole community. The research process is put as far as possible into the hands of ordinary people. Although 'experts' (the community educators) are involved, their role is to facilitate, not take over, the investigation.

6.2.2 Participatory Action Research (PAR)

PAR calls for a joint venture between communities and researchers in knowledge production. The focus, in participatory action research, is on involving the community in all the stages of research. This means seeing the community as co-researchers, ensuring dialogue and discussion with community members throughout the process, and using methods of data collection that enhance their participation and understanding for actions to be taken in community problem-solving. The community is encouraged to research their situation systematically in cooperation with a community change agent (for example, an extension worker), reflect on the findings, take action and liaise appropriately with relevant change agents.

African educationists such as Julius Nyerere of Tanzania argued that any meaningful development could only be achieved if the people's culture and popular knowledges were integrated into the process (Mulenga 1999, p. 3). This involved a community based development programme and community action plan with the goal of reducing poverty in rural areas by encouraging communities to use their local knowledge and skills to find solutions to their own problems.

One of the main theoretical influences on this approach is Paulo Freire, the renowned adult educator who advocated dialogue and mutual learning between facilitator and participants. He believed that through dialogue people can move from an individual sense of oppression about their situation to a collective awareness of the causes of injustice and the potential of collective action to redress the power imbalances that kept such injustices in place (Freire 1970).

6.2.3 *Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA)*

It has very practical goals. The aim of the inquiry is to quickly obtain a detailed understanding and analysis of a specific local context; then for local people to work with to prioritise their needs based on this enhanced understanding. It is usually applicable in emergency situations where there is a plague such as foot and mouth diseases, diarrhea, increased incidents of malaria, AIDS opportunistic infections, cholera and other life threatening conditions affecting both plants and animals. The outcome of this process is a community action plan, devised with a view to helping local communities solve their own problems through different but highly effective local initiatives (Chilisa and Preece 2005).

A community sketch map can be drawn as a visual representation of what the community perceives as their community space, and possible causes of the problem at hand. This includes showing the shape (appearance) of the community, its boundaries and all the major resource and social features as understood and known by the community (Egerton University 2000, p. 22). Where educators might normally draw their own map by walking around the site, it is the community members themselves who draw their map on the ground. People may use sticks, stones, foliage or any locally available materials to create landmarks and identify facilities. During this process participants can discuss problem areas, differences in land use or access to resources, problem causes and possible solutions. A follow up to the sketch map could be a Transect map (Egerton University 2000, p. 25). The transect map takes a route through the village and identifies various changes in the physical environment that might affect livelihoods and health.

In all the above approaches, it is important to know about significant events in the community's history, experiences, and current trends that may influence current knowledge base, attitudes, skills and behaviours that promote the worst or best practices. 'A *historical timeline* is a list of key events in the life of the community that helps to identify its past trends, events, problems and achievements' (Egerton University 2000, p. 28). The timeline is achieved through discussions with groups of all ages and sectors of the community. Monthly activities, interview notes and other forms of social data can be created for experts and community members to make informed choices and decisions. The community decides which events and programmes are important and the facilitators document those events. This information helps the community to understand the underlying causes of its problems and possible solutions based on past experiences. Similarly a seasonal calendar records monthly activities and highlights particular stresses or environmental issues during the year.

The emphasis in all participatory approaches is on eliciting indigenous knowledge, and a sense of ownership of information provided, and projects that emanate from what is recorded. This is important ground-work for the community action plan.

Critics of participatory approaches argue that they are very formal events and it is not true that communities occupy the drivers' seat. It is sometimes doubtful whether ordinary village people do truly participate. However, if participatory approaches are done properly and with good intentions, local communication systems can be made efficient especially where people are empowered to freely speak and articulate their concerns. The combined effect of all these information gathering exercises, however, is to stimulate critical analysis amongst villagers on their own terms. This is so they can learn about issues that are directly connected to their lives and to discover their own learning potential to produce solutions and ideas for change.

6.3 Environmental Sustainability and the Millennium Development Goals

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were drafted by the UN in 2000, and adapted by member states, including Botswana, in 2004. A regional In Botswana, the Government Ministry of Finance and Development Planning and UNDP worked together on coordination of programmes towards achievement of the MDGs. A Botswana version of the progress made was documented and disseminated in 2010 (MFDP/UNDP Status report 2010). The eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are interconnected and although the discussion here centers on the environment, success in all other non-environmental MDGs would advance the cause of environmental sustainability.

The MDGs are as follows:-

- MDG goal 1: Eradicate Extreme poverty and hunger
- MDG goal 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education
- MDG goal 3: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women
- MDG goal 4: Reduce Child Mortality
- MDG goal 5: Improve maternal health
- MDG goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS Malaria and other diseases
- MDG goal 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability
- MDG goal 8: Develop a global Partnership for Development.

Environmental education issues and problems are a focus of MDG 7. For poverty reduction, universal primary education, gender equity, reduction of child mortality and improvement of maternal health, reduction of deaths from AIDS, environmental sustainability and enhanced partnerships for development, there must be sensitivity to cross cutting environmental issues as they affect any achievements that can be made in each of the MDGs. However, since the main theme of this chapter is environmental issues, the chapter contents are more aligned to MDG 7 and how environmental education is a factor in poverty reduction.

6.4 Global Environmental Issues

The action of an individual or society that has an impact on other societies constitutes a global issue. As citizens, we hear about global issues on a daily basis, but what exactly do we do as we interact with the environment, which aggravates the problems mentioned above? How are we to deal with these problems in our lifetime?

Global climate change, airborne toxins, ozone depletion, and solid waste management are but a few of the global issues that are of current concern for our global environment. How do learners and educators know which global issues are important to their lives, and where do they acquire their knowledge and skills to deal with these environmental issues? The answer varies from place to place according to time, space, infrastructures set up for environmental education, and season. All the global issues affect different populations differently.

6.4.1 *Acquiring Environmental Knowledge*

In a longitudinal study of fifth and ninth graders in Ohio, school classes were found to be increasingly influential in the acquisition of knowledge about the environment. Although students ranked movies and television as the most influential sources of knowledge about specific environmental issues in 1979, by 1983 and 1987 those sources had been replaced by classes in school as being most influential (Fortner and Mayer 1991).

High school environmental education courses are often the last formal exposure to environmental issues for non-college-bound students. These courses can be used as valuable opportunities for extending environmental knowledge on global issues and disseminating materials. Such courses can culminate environmental experiences and can clarify and structure knowledge and skills gained from earlier experiences (Singletary 1992). But learning occurs only when there is meaning in outcomes, and a permanent change in behavior. Environmental issues, especially global issues, can often appear nebulous and disconnected from a learner's life until they are taught through various media, to be environmentally sensitive.

Environmental education, like gender, and culture, is a cross cutting issue across different disciplines. Because of the multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary nature of environmental education, it is often difficult to universally define. (Ramsey et al. 1992). A primary goal of environmental education, though, is the development of responsible environmental behavior in citizens, both as individuals and societal groups (Ramsey and Hungerford 1989). The global ramifications of individual or collective action on the rest of the world have only recently become concerns for society. Historic views of air and water were that the abundance and vastness of these resources allowed for unlimited use and abuse. Today, additional chemical burdens on the environment and alterations of the natural systems have increased. This has

been coupled with an increased understanding of the effects of human action on the environment, including long term effects.

Every human action has an impact on the environment, both immediately and globally. In a formal education setting, it would seem that incorporating environmental issues into the curriculum would be relatively easy; but experience would suggest otherwise.

6.5 Structuring Environmental Education for Global Issues

Throughout the world, environmental education programs are designed for either INFUSION into existing curricula or the INSERTION of new courses into study. FRAMING, a third alternative, can be especially effective in learning about global issues (Heimlich 1992).

In the infusion approach, content and skills are integrated into existing courses so as to focus on that content without losing the integrity of the courses themselves (Ramsey et al. 1992). For example, an elementary mathematics class might calculate the amount of solid waste that 30 students produce in a year, or the issue of airborne toxins can be used when studying about prevailing winds in an earth science class. Infusion is most often seen in elementary and middle school levels, but less in high school where classes are departmentalized and topically related (Singletary 1992).

Case studies have been used effectively in infusion efforts (Ramsey et al. 1992; Singletary 1992). Case studies provide the educator with flexibility and control as the teacher becomes the curriculum designer. The class, directed by the teacher, analyzes a particular issue, developing focused information and skills. A class might choose the global issue of loss of biodiversity focusing their study on the changes in their own neighborhood which have caused a loss of species.

Insertion, the addition of specific courses in environmental education, tends to be used more at the high school level. A course in global issues or environmental issues which is developed on the issues investigation skills format is an example of insertion. While the case study is issue specific, the issue investigation skills format is broader and more generalized. This approach, with the teacher acting as a facilitator and advisor, is probably more effective at fostering responsible citizenship behavior than the issue case study (Ramsey et al. 1992).

Framing moves beyond the arbitrary boundaries of traditional disciplines by creating a framework which allows learning to be related and integrated within a student's life (Heimlich 1992). Using this approach, educators and students can investigate, interpret, explore, manage, discover, and make decisions about global issues.

Hines et al. (1986) analyze responsible environmental behavior by identifying four elements in environmental education: (a) knowledge of environmental issues; (b) knowledge of specific action strategies to apply to these issues; (c) the ability to take action on environmental issues; and (d) the ownership of certain affective

qualities and personality attributes. These elements can be used as a framework for constructing learning about global issues that is related and integrated to a student's life.

Whichever approach is used, the relationship of the individual action in regard to global issues must be central to the instruction if the desired outcome is that of responsible environmental behavior. When studying about global issues, the goal needs to be more than merely acquiring scientific knowledge. A relationship must be made between the individual action and responsibility to the global issue.

6.5.1 Environmental Education in the SADC Region

Within the SADC region, the EEASA celebrated the 30th anniversary of the SADC EEASA conference September 2012. The Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa (EEASA) is a regional organization for environmental education in the SADC region through partnership with both the first and the second worlds. One of the key recommendations that came out of the 30th EEASA conference was the need to mainstream environmental education especially in formal institutions from primary school, secondary all the way to tertiary levels of schooling. Mainstreaming Environmental Sustainability Development in Southern African Universities (MESA), GUPES, and other initiatives are key to lifelong learning for environmental sustainability:

The above EEASA initiatives indicate that there are efforts to bring everyone on board in environmental education at a regional level. (Raditloang, EEASA Highlights, September 2012).

6.6 Decision-Making and Global Issues

One approach toward creating an opportunity for meaningful learning is through decision-making and problem-solving approaches with global issues. Infusion provides teachers with opportunities for drawing upon other disciplines in seeking solutions for problems. There are many situations in which creative problem solving dealing with environmental issues can be used in learning settings (Disinger 1990).

Before learners can address global environmental issues, they must be knowledgeable about problem identification, interrelationships and alternatives. Monroe and Kaplan (1988) suggest these elements are important in problem solving:

- Knowledge of the environment and of issues
- Familiarity with solutions to problems
- Knowledge of action strategies that help resolve issues
- Skill in action taking
- Locus of control and empowerment
- Attitudes and values

- Sense of responsibility and commitment
- Group process skills
- Communication skills
- Problem solving

Different issues require varying levels of decision-making; however, most decision-making can be viewed as a process involving needs identification, option scanning, and selection of a course of action (Ewert 1988). Several steps have been identified in the classic decision-making process:

1. Canvassing of alternative course of action and objectives
2. Weighing each option as to the potential benefits and costs
3. Searching for new sources of information
4. Assimilating new information
5. Re-examining the consequences of various actions with respect to any new information
6. Providing for implementation
7. Examining the results of the action (Janis and Mann 1977).

Environmental education can provide opportunities for using these steps in decision making, especially to relate the meaning of individual action to global issues.

6.7 Curriculum Needs and Global Issues

For environmental education to be widespread there is a need for democratization through participatory methods such as PRA and RRA. During the 1980s, environmental educators used surveys to determine the needs for environmental education programs. Educators recommended that environmental endeavors focus not only on awareness, but also on attitudes, skill development and citizenship participation in environmental problem solving. A need was indicated by teachers for a new curriculum on all academic levels to address the goals on environmental education. Knowledge and awareness of ecological issues were met to a greater extent as higher levels of learning included investigation of issues, evaluation of solutions, and citizenship action (Volk et al. 1984).

Environmental issues of global concern are known to students and to educators. If asked to identify issues, most would be able to identify several: global climate change, ozone depletion, acid rain, deforestation, ocean dumping, and so on. The challenge of environmental education is to make these global issues meaningful to learners by focusing on individual contributions to the problems, and then, using problem-solving, decision-making strategies to develop, refine and redirect the thinking and the learning. Participatory approaches are usually recommended as very important for democratization of environmental education using PRA, RRA, PAR for poverty reduction as indicated in the table below (Fig. 6.1).

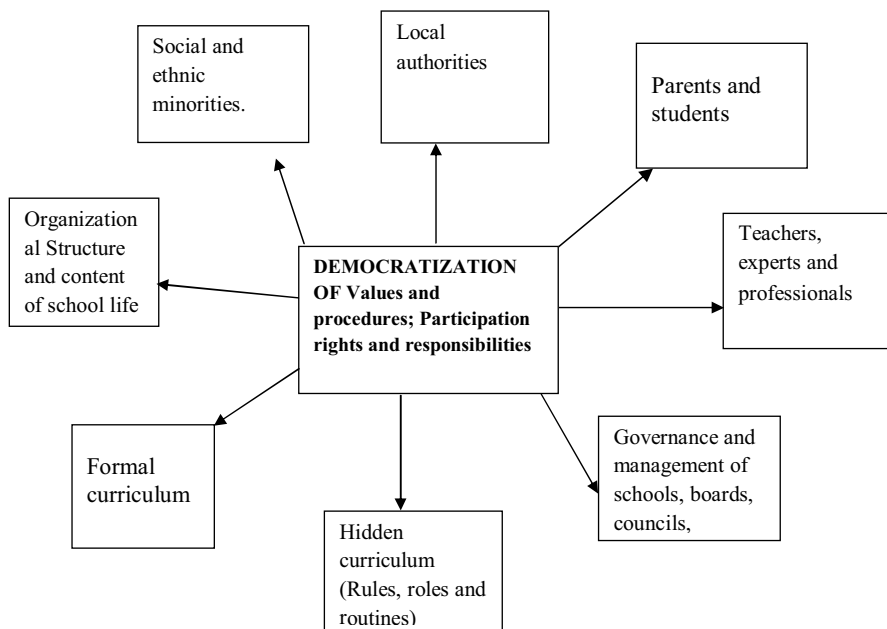


Fig. 6.1 Democratization of environmental education

As the diagram suggests through the use of participatory methodologies, Environmental education can be democratized through different levels of the curricular by a variety of actors in environmental education. The use of PRA and RRA especially in and out of school is ongoing in the SADC region to both illuminate and promote best practice.

6.7.1 Environmental Problems in the SADC Region

There is a lack of materials on the environment in Botswana, and this handbook addresses that gap. In addition, environmental education is being incorporated into the education system in Botswana. The authors, all from the Department of Environmental Science at the University of Botswana, focus on the six issues identified in the National Conservation Strategy: pressure on water resources; rangelands pasture degradation; depletion of wood resources; overuse of veld products; and industrial/urban pollution. Conservation of wildlife is treated as an important issue also. A comprehensive list of global environmental problems that affect even countries in the SADC region, is documented as Appendix 1 at the end of this chapter.

6.8 Botswana's Environmental Profile

Botswana is a land locked country in the very centre of Southern Africa. It shares its borders with four other nations: South Africa, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The total area within the national boundary is 581,730 sq/km.

The climate of the country is semi-arid, with the western part of the country receiving below 250 mm of rainfall per annum. The northern part of the country, in contrast, is wetter and receives above 600 mm of rainfall per annum. There is, therefore, a gradient in the dryness of the country; the west being very dry while the north is significantly wetter.

The railway system in Botswana runs only in the eastern part of the country and has enabled very fast growth of human settlements along it. As a result of the good transport facilities, sufficient rainfall and fertile soils, the majority of the 1.7 million people of Botswana live in the eastern part of the country. The concentration of human settlements along the railway line has, however, strained the eastern ecosystems due to increased fuel wood demand, accumulation of garbage, pollution of the air, and other consequences of urbanization.

To the north and north west of the country, the high rainfall has led to the formation of water bodies such as the Okavango Delta, Chobe River and Lenyanti water systems. This area supports a lot of wildlife, and has subsequently become a popular tourist destination. Littering, motorized boats and the increased movement of tourists, however, pose a certain threat to the wildlife of Botswana's north and north-west regions. Insecticides washed off from some of the plantations in the area, combined with pesticides used to control Tsetse fly and water weeds such *Salviniamolesta* (Kariba weed), have also increased the dangers facing the environment.

The western part of the country, the Kgalagardi and Ghanzi Districts, is characterized by shrub savannah. The available grasslands are therefore used mostly for pastoral farming. However, increases in human population and the communal system being utilized in pastoral farming have led to overgrazing by livestock in many areas. Other natural resources, such as the "Devil's claw" plant, are also threatened with extinction due to over-harvesting for commercial purposes.

This short summary shows that Botswana as a whole faces a number of diverse environmental challenges that vary from one region to the other depending on land use and characteristics of the soil. More information on Botswana's environmental profile is provided in the Common Country Assessment. Botswana is also a signatory or party to the following environment agreements, treaties and conventions that are meant to promote sustainable mitigation of environmental problems as indicated in Appendix 2.

The Government of Botswana has developed over twenty-five separate laws related to environmental and resource management issues as well as many national policies, some of which are listed below.

- a. National Conservation Strategy (1990): demonstrates Botswana's commitment to the sustainable use and conservation of the country's biodiversity. Seeks to increase the effectiveness with which natural resources are used and managed, and to integrate the efforts of ministries and non-governmental interest groups to maximize the conservation of natural resources in the country.
- b. Wildlife Conservation Policy (1986): Allows for the management and utilization of wildlife resources.
- c. Energy Policy (draft): The policy aims to lessen deforestation caused by fuelwood collection, and ensure that all households and community services have access to adequate and affordable energy services.
- d. Agriculture Policy (1991): Seeks to utilize the country's land resources, both grazing and arable, without long-term damage to the environment.
- e. Indigenous Livestock Species policy (draft): Ensures the conservation of indigenous livestock species to achieve food security and to guarantee a future supply of animal products and biodiversity in Botswana.
- f. Plant Genetic Resources policy (draft): Formulated after the realization that sundry varieties of crops are being replaced by modern cultivars, which are often less diverse. Supports institutions concerned with agro-diversity with the objective to conserve and maintain the diversity of plant genetic resources material through in situ and ex situ conservation.
- g. Tourism policy (draft): Promotes low-volume, high-value tourism in Botswana aimed at a market of middle- to high-income patrons. Ensures relatively fewer disturbances to the natural environment with less tourist traffic.
- h. Water Master Plan (1991): A set of plans arising from the extensive analysis options for the development and management of water resources of Botswana until 2020. The plans not only outline the basic physical and engineering developments, but also take into account economic, social, environmental, institutional and legal factors.
- i. Wetlands Policy (draft): To promote the conservation of Botswana's wetlands in order to sustain their ecological and socio-economic functions and benefits for the present and future well being of the people.
- j. Forestry Policy (draft): Will support (1) the development of sustainable forest management options based on sound ecological principles, (2) domestication and commercialization of forest products such as fruits and medicines and (3) restoration of degraded land using afforestation and plantations to make the land reusable.

The above conventions, policies formulated by the Government of Botswana and international protocols to which Botswana is party are very crucial as a sign of commitment and intent to address environmental problems. However, Botswana is still faced with problems of enforcement, staff shortage and measures to ensure national compliance.

6.9 Major Environmental Problems in Botswana

Botswana is currently facing two major environmental problems: drought and desertification. The desertification problems predominantly stem from the severe times of drought in the country. Due to the drought 75% of the country's human and animal populations are dependent on groundwater. Groundwater use has eased the effects of drought, but has left a toll on the land. Groundwater is retrieved through drilling deep boreholes, which leads to the erosion of the land [4]. Surface water is very scarce in Botswana and less than 5% of the agriculture in the country is sustainable by rainfall [4]. Due to this 95% of the country raises cattle and livestock as a means for an income. Therefore, it is not a surprise to see that 71% of the country's land is used for communal grazing, which has been a major cause for the desertification of the country.

6.9.1 *Desertification in Botswana*

In terms of desertification, Botswana is one of the most seriously affected countries in the Kalahari Region of Southern Africa. Problems include overstocking, large-scale vegetation depletion and changes, especially around water points, and accelerated soil erosion by wind, sheet wash and gullyng.

Part of the desertification problem is natural in such a semi-arid and drought-prone environment.

But the greater part is due to pressure of commercial exploitation of a fragile ecosystem. Owing to the increasing pressure of the already crowded communal grazing areas of the east, owners of large herds have, in the last three decades, been moving westwards, establishing permanent cattle posts in the Kalahari sandveld and spreading conditions of overstocking and degradation of vegetation on a large scale.

The move into the Kalahari sandveld has been facilitated by the Tribal Grazing Lands Policy (TGLP), introduced in 1975, which encouraged owners of large herds to move them out of the crowded settlement areas, to the sandveld where they would be given exclusive rights to land to establish fenced commercial ranches. Impetus was also provided by the impact of modern science and technology that provided veterinary care and new sources of water by means of deep drilling boreholes. Recent satellite imagery reveals that there has been considerable uncontrolled development of cattle posts in areas set aside for wildlife management, resulting in the emergence of land use conflicts and extensive degradation of the tree savannas.

Overgrazing due to the rapid expansion of the cattle population is a continuing threat to the vegetation and wildlife of Botswana. There are five game reserves, three game sanctuaries, and 40 controlled hunting areas. About 18% of the land has been set aside as national parks and game reserves. Natural hazards to the environment include seasonal winds from the west that blow sand and dust across the country.

Botswana has a very limited water supply that is inadequate for its increasing population, and the nation's water shortage is exacerbated by periodic droughts. One major factor in Botswana's water supply problem is that 68% of the country is part of the Kalahari Desert. The country has 2.9 cu km of renewable water resources, 46% of which is used for farming. Almost all of Botswana's urban dwellers and 90% of its rural people have access to safe water.

In a total of 164 species of mammals, five are endangered, including the black rhinoceros, the African hunting dog, and the African savannah elephant. Burchell's zebra has become extinct. Seven bird species of 386 are also endangered. Four plant species in a total of 2,800 are threatened with extinction.

6.9.2 Statistics and Impact on the Environment

- Total area 582,000 sq.km: The country has a good amount of space for the human and animal population. However, because of being landlocked, arid to semi arid conditions, most of the land is not suitable for easy access to the ports, and arable and pastoral agriculture which are the backbone of peasant economy.
- The Kalahari constitutes 77% of total area: The remaining 23% is the only one useful for arable and pastoral agriculture
- 17.6% of total area is protected: Wildlife and human species have to crowd on limited space causing problems of access to land. This creates problems of what counts as fair compensation where lions and other predators cause destruction on farms and kill livestock.
- The Okavango Delta covers between 10,000–18,000 km²: This is one of the longest deltas that have attracted tourists and better access to surface water compared to water resources in the relatively drier parts of the country. However, the elephant population in the wetland area destroys plants, and animals, and occasionally threaten human life and sometimes deadly for tourists.
- 5% of total land suitable for cultivation: Botswana is a very dry country with mainly infertile soils which make it impossible for agriculture to be a viable tool for poverty eradication, unless there are irrigation schemes to provide financed alternative to rainwater. Sadly, only 1,300 ha of arable land is irrigated. Botswana contributes 7% of Africa's greenhouse gas emissions.

Climate is sub-tropical, summer: 19–33 °C, winter: 5–23 °C. Annual rainfall in northeast 650 mm, minimum of less than 250 mm in extreme southwest There is a very high rate of surface water evaporation, and about only 18,000 registered boreholes in Botswana. 11 million cubic meters of water flow into the Okavango Delta every year. This strains access to safe drinking water for domestic and industrial use. Mining and energy account for 19% of water consumption of the 97% of population that has access to safe drinking water.

Energy resources are a big challenge throughout the country. About 3% of rural and 24% of urban households are electrified. Wood supplies 98% of domestic energy in rural areas and 79% in urban areas

Botswana's natural heritage accounts for about 164 species of mammals, 157 species of reptiles, 38 species of amphibians, 80 species of fish and over 500 species of birds, 2,600–2,800 different plant species, and 154 of all species are under threat of extinction due to harsh climatic conditions. Botswana prides herself in an elephant population of 120,000. Elephant population grows by 3–5% annually and this creates a strain on existing spaces as humans and wildlife strive to survive.

6.10 Conclusions

Environmental issues and problems are a factor in the incidence of different forms of poverty and poverty reduction programmes at local, regional and global levels. There are global, regional and local environmental problems that disproportionately affect human populations. All the problems call for environmental education and realization of MDGs based on need and issues at hand. A case study on MDGs in four selected African countries was conducted over 18 months between January 2010 and August 2011. The cases studied indicated that the four countries were engaged in lifelong learning, and were addressing all of the MDGs based on the country priorities and abilities. Emphasis on which MDGs was addressed, and the extent to which reducing poverty and hunger, increasing access to education, bridging gender gaps, halting the spread of HIV/AIDs and other chronic illnesses, and environmental sustainability and building global partnerships were achieved varied from country to country.

Appendix A: List of Environmental issues

The list below, though not exhaustive, provides an inventory of global environmental problems which are factors in breeding poverty and make it difficult to make a transition from poverty to non-poverty.

Climate change, including global warming has resulted in, amongst others, loss of water, electricity, heat wave, and lack of surface water • Related to this is the problem of global dimming • fossil fuels • sea level rise resulting in floods, • greenhouse gas • Ocean acidification • Shutdown of thermohaline circulation • Environmental impact of the coal industry which results in diseases such as pneumonia; and • urban heat islands. Climate change is a global problem that impacts on energy and other essential needs such as water and electricity, which results in high bills to access essential goods and services that are hard to secure because of climate change.

Conservation: The conservation of natural resources is very important for agricultural production, and promotion of tourism, amongst others. Lack of effective conservation has a negative impact on, amongst others, species extinction • pollinator decline • coral bleaching • holocene extinction • invasive species • poaching and endangered species.

Energy: There is a global shortage of sources of energy, which calls for energy conservation. Strategies towards energy resources include use of renewable energy, renewable energy commercialization, efficient energy use to curb environmental impact of the coal industry and the environmental impact of hydraulic fracturing.

Environmental degradation: Environmental degradation has a bad impact on survival of human and animal species due to impacts of eutrophication •habitat destruction •and invasive species that indiscriminately breeds extinction of others.

Environmental health: There are several environmental pollutants due to bad air quality causing acute respiratory illnesses such as asthma, illnesses such as tuberculosis due to the environmental impact of the coal industry electromagnetic fields, electromagnetic radiation and health. Indoor air quality caused by lead poisoning, sick building syndrome, and environmental impact of hydraulic fracturing

Genetic engineering: There are problems of genetic pollution, and genetically modified food controversies. **Genetically modified (GM) foods** are foods derived from genetically modified organisms. Genetically modified organisms have had specific changes introduced into their DNA by genetic engineering techniques. These techniques are much more precise than mutagenesis (mutation breeding) where an organism is exposed to radiation or chemicals to create a non-specific but stable change. Other techniques by which humans modify food organisms include selective breeding (plant breeding and animal breeding), and somaclonal variation.

GM foods were first put on the market in the early 1990s. Researchers have also developed a genetically-modified breed of pigs that are able to absorb plant phosphorus more efficiently, and as a consequence the phosphorus content of their manure is reduced by as much as 60%.

Intensive farming: Some farmers breed more animals in spaces not adequate for their populations. This leads to overgrazing, soil erosion and infertile soil for gainful arable agricultural development. Due to the dry climatic conditions and lack of surface water, the need for irrigation cannot be overemphasized. Arid conditions have resulted on monoculture where only drought resistant plants can survive. There are also environmental effects of meat production especially where there are diseases that affect livestock, and the need for proper application of plasticulture.

Land degradation: With the impact of globalization came many chemical and non- chemical land and air pollutants, soil erosion, soil contamination and salination by toxic nutrients and desertification. Land use is adversely affected by rural-urban migration, urban sprawl • habitat fragmentation leading to habitat destruction especially where there are controversies surrounding ownership and access to land.

Nuclear issues — Nuclear fallout • Nuclear meltdown • Nuclear power • Nuclear weapons • Nuclear and radiation accidents • Nuclear safety • High-level radioactive waste management

Overpopulation — Burial • Water crisis • Overpopulation in companion animals • Tragedy of the commons • Gender Imbalance in Developing Countries • Sub-replacement fertility levels in developed countries

Water and air pollution — Environmental impact of the coal industry is manifested in acid rain • Eutrophication • Marine pollution • Ocean dumping • Oil spills • Thermal pollution • Urban runoff • Water crisis • Marine debris • Micro plastics •

Ocean acidification • Ship pollution • Wastewater • Fish kill • Algal bloom and mercury in fish • Environmental impact of hydraulic fracturing. Other challenges and problems include environmental impact of the coal industry nonpoint source pollution point source pollution light pollution • Noise pollution especially in the inner cities, and visual pollution. Air pollution includes environmental impact of the coal industry, smog tropospheric ozone, indoor air quality, volatile organic compound atmospheric particulate matter.

Reservoirs: These are crucial for rainwater catchment and storage but need proper maintenance and purification measures especially where there are water borne illnesses. Environmental impacts of reservoirs can be fatal and deadly if uncontrolled.

Resource depletion: This includes over- exploitation of natural resources, clear cutting • deforestation, illegal logging and over-drafting.

Consumerism: Use of environmental resources by commercial entities who want to maximize profit can lead to consumer capitalism, planned obsolescence, and over-consumption of plant and animal species.

Fishing: Fishing is common in areas where there are seas, lakes and rivers that hardly run dry. Fishing typologies include blast fishing bottom trawling cyanide fishing, ghost nets, illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing, overfishing, shark finning, and whaling.

Mining: Mining is very lucrative source external revenue in Botswana and other African countries. However, associated environmental problems include acid mine drainage, environmental impact of hydraulic fracturing, mountaintop removal mining, and slurry impoundments.

Waste: Solid and liquid waste products include heavy toxic metals, pesticides, herbicides, electronic waste, litter, waste disposal incidents, marine debris, medical waste, landfill, leachate, environmental impact of the coal industry, incineration, great pacific garbage patch, exporting of hazardous waste, environmental impact of hydraulic fracturing.

References

- Chilisa, B., & Preece, J. P. (2005). *Research methods for adult educators in Africa*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.
- Disinger, J. F. (1990). *Teaching creative thinking through environmental education*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service Number ED 331 699).
- Ewert, A. (1988). Decision making in the outdoor pursuits setting. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 20(1), 3–7.
- Fortner, R. W., & Mayer, V. J. (1991). *Repeated measures of students' marine awareness*. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 23(1), 30–35.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Education for critical consciousness*. New York: Continuum Publishing Company.
- Green et al. (1995). Variation of individualism and collectivism within and between 20 countries: A typological analysis. *Journal of Cross cultural Psychology*, 36(3) May 2005, 321–339. (Sage Publications: San Francisco).

- Heimlich, J. E. (1992). *Promoting a concern for the environment*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service Number ED 351 206).
- Hines, J., Hungerford, H. R., & Tomera, A. N. (1986/87, Winter). Analysis and synthesis of research on responsible environmental behavior: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 18(2), 1–8.
- Janis, I., & Mann, L. (1977). *Decision making: A psychological analysis of conflict, choice, and commitment*. London: Macmillan.
- Knowles, M. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education-From Pedagogy to Andragogy*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall/Cambridge.
- Ministry of Finance and Development Planning/United Nations Development Programme. (2010). *Botswana MDG Status Report*. Gaborone: MFDP/UNDP.
- Monroe, M. C., & Kaplan, S. (1988). When words speak louder than actions: Environmental problem solving in the classroom. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 19(3), 38–41.
- Mulenga, D. (1999). Reflections on the practice of participatory research in Africa. *Convergence*, 32(1–4) 33–46.
- Raditloaneng, W. N. (September 2012). EEASA hi-lights of the 30th anniversary EEASA Conference held at Rhodes University, Grahamstown.
- Ramsey, J. M., & Hungerford, H. R. (1989). The effects of issue investigation and action training on environmental behavior in seventh grade students. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 23(2), 35–45.
- Ramsey, J. M., Hungerford, H. R., & Volk (1992). Level of environmental awareness towards depletion of the ozone layer amongst distributors and consumers of solvent sector: A case study from Oman. *Climate Change*. December 2010. Vol. 103. Issue 3–4. Pp. 503–517.
- Singletary, T. J. (1992). Case studies of selected high school environmental education classes. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 23(4), 35–50.
- UNDP/Government of Botswana. (2010). MDGs status report on Botswana. Gaborone: UNDP/ Government of Botswana.
- Volk, T. L., Hungerford, H. R., & Tomera, A. N. (1984). A national study of curriculum needs as perceived by professional environmental educators. *Journal of Environmental Education*, 16(1), 10–19.

Further Reading

- Sen, A. (1999). *Democracy as a Universal Value*. Paper by A. Sen.
- Tett et al. (1999). Causes of twentieth century temperature change near the Earth's Surface. *Nature*, 569–572. <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1029/2000JD000028/full#jgrd8646-bib-0064>
- United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). (2002). *UNDP Country Programme for Botswana (2003–2007)*. Gaborone: Government of Botswana/UNDP.

Chapter 7

Fighting Poverty Within the San Community

Morgen Chawawa

7.1 Introduction

There are structural, systemic and historical problems in the San Community, lack of entrepreneurship and traditional leadership skills that must be addressed in the transition from poverty to social welfare. Poverty is discussed as a structural problem caused by, amongst others, social deprivation and human greed. The San need survival skills to rid themselves of poverty which may in part be provided by policy shift, business and management training, change of mindset and exposure to different lifestyles. In this section of the book, the author will demonstrate the extent of poverty and some initiatives that have been taken by various stakeholders, with a vested interest in addressing San Community poverty issues.

According to the United Nations Millennium Development Goals, all nations must strive towards attainment of all the eight MDGs. Poverty is a factor that may in some instances militate against the achievement of all the MDGs above. However, the focus of this chapter is on MDG 1.

7.2 The San Community in Botswana

7.2.1 Background

Botswana comprises approximately 34 different ethnic groups, as defined by Eight of these are considered to be the principle groups in Botswana: These eight tribal groups have dominated all politics in Botswana since Independence, at national and local level. Since Independence in 1966, the Government of Botswana has considered all Batswana [the people of Botswana] to be “indigenous”, claiming

M. Chawawa (✉)
Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

that “Botswana is inhabited by many different ethnic groups that occupied the geographical areas of present-day Botswana at different times in history.” The Government has endeavoured to build a united and peaceful nation based on equality of all citizens, with all ethnic groups and tribes being on an equal footing. This is ‘formal equality’, based on seeing everyone in the same form or image.

7.2.2 Basarwa (San)—the first people of Botswana

Speakers of Khoisan languages in Botswana are collectively known as “Basarwa” in Botswana, or “San” across Southern Africa. Botswana has an estimated population of about 60,000 Basarwa (approximately half the population of San people in Southern Africa and 3.5% of Botswana’s population). They are spread across all parts of Botswana, particularly the Southern, Kweneng, Kgatleng, Ghanzi, Kgalagadi, Central and North West Districts. (*The World Factbook*. Central Intelligence Agency. 2014.)

The origin of the word, “Basarwa”, is believed to be “bao babasaruing dikgomo” (those who not rear cattle). The Basarwa have accepted this name reluctantly, because the implication is that the norm is to “rear animals” and so people who do not are defined in negative terms. The Basarwa or San have inhabited Southern Africa for at least 40,000 years. As such, they may be categorised as “indigenous peoples” because they are said to be descendants of the original populations residing in the area now known as Botswana. The traditional Basarwa or San peoples were nomadic hunters and gatherers, who travelled in small family bands. They followed the water, game and edible plants; carrying with them everything they needed for daily subsistence. Over most of their history they were not constrained, as more recently, to the arid regions of Botswana.

The concept of private ownership of land did not exist in their culture, as it is understood in present day Botswana. Traditionally, every Basarwa group is familiar with the environment in a particular area and relocation to a new area, with a new habitat, can have an acute and adverse effect. Effectively, this meant that independence in the 1960s was granted to the major Tswana groups. Without the formal acknowledgment of the Basarwa peoples’ existence within the Kalahari, there was no opportunity for land use patterns in the Basarwa traditional areas to find “official recognition”. When the Kalahari Desert was declared Crown land by the former colonial Government, the Basarwa and other major inhabitants became unlawful occupiers on their traditional lands. The major implication of the declaration was the denial of land entitlements to specific groups and this contributed to the marginalisation still being experienced by the Basarwa today (Suzman 2002).

7.2.3 Language Barriers

The Government of Botswana provides free education but the San have problems in accessing it. Teaching is done in Tswana and English, which many San children

do not speak. The Naro Language Project (Naro is the most widely spoken San language in Ghanzi) initiated by the NGO umbrella known as the Kuru Family of Organisations, is working with the support of the Government and San communities to improve literacy and education. The Government has backed the language project's suggestion of having mother-tongue education in the first three school years and hiring Naro-speaking assistant teachers. When classes start, Hessel and Coby Visser, two Dutch linguists with the project, visit every school and show teachers how to write and pronounce San names. Other activities include teaching adults to read and write. Over the past 13 years, the Vissers have transcribed Naro and have produced reading material like HIV/AIDS information and riddle booklets to encourage literacy. Hessel Visser has mastered Naro's 28 clicks—four main ones with seven modifications each. He has also seen progress: more San children are studying, and a few have even reached university (Mafela 2009).

7.3 Development Models for Poverty Eradication

The Government of Botswana has accomplished much through the Remote Area Development Programme (RADP) since 1978, when the Bushmen-Basarwa-San were renamed Remote Area Dwellers, shortened to RADs, having abandoned the Basarwa Development Programme which was considered “separatist” in favour of “RADP” which includes all needy ethnic groups in those areas. However, the large majority of RADs are San. Operating in seven districts, the RADP has brought roads, potable water, primary schools, hostels and health posts, the latest being a newly completed maternity ward costing P4.4 million (US\$ 912,560) in New Xade.

Through its Economic Promotion Fund the Government supports livestock schemes, small industrial projects, income-generation, and training in animal husbandry, among other activities. To acquaint RADs with commercial cattle farming, the Fund has established three community-owned farms. Driving through New Xade, the controversial village where San residents of the Central Kalahari Game Reserve (CKGR) have been relocated, one sees people queuing for drought-relief and food-for-work programmes. The Government offers free education and health care, old-age pensions, drought aid, free food for AIDS orphans and free anti-retrovirals for people with HIV/AIDS. In spite of these efforts, rural poverty is endemic and the San remain the poorest of the poor, exploited as farm labourers, plagued by alcoholism, perceived as backward, silent in politics. Moreover, many development projects initiated by NGOs and international development agencies for the San have been designed and imposed from the outside, with little input from the San.

From 1974 to 1978, Elizabeth Wily, a teacher from New Zealand, was appointed Bushmen Development Officer of the newly established Bushmen Development Programme. She had been a successful teacher in the settlement of Bere. In the minds of most politicians and civil servants, the purpose of this new programme was mainly welfare-oriented, but Wily and her colleagues privately recognised that secure access to land was a vital key to the survival and to the future of the

Bushmen. Hunting and gathering was not identified as a legitimate land-use at independence and accordingly rights over hunting and gathering territories were never allocated. The hidden agenda of the expatriate leadership of the projects was "...to attempt to secure San title over as much of their traditional land as possible" (Wily 1981, p. 3). The Bushmen Development Programme was renamed the Basarwa Development Programme in 1975, the Extra-Rural Development Programme in 1976 and the Remote Area Development Programme in 1978. These name changes reflected a growing reluctance on the side of the Botswana government to single out a sector of preference for rural development on ethnic grounds (Wily 1994, p. 7). The RAD programme has attracted considerable donor attention during the past 20 years, specifically from NORAD and SIDA and only 7% of RADP funds came from the Botswana government (Hitchcock and Holm 1991, p. 15). These donors have made every effort to use their influence to provide direction to the programme that would support economic development and increase access to land by the San. A 1996 evaluation done for NORAD by the Christian Michelsen Institute (CMI) concluded that funds had often been well-spent in providing basic infrastructure as well as health and education services. However, the efforts to provide a sustainable livelihood and increase secure access to land for the San had largely failed. By the time of this evaluation, SIDA had already withdrawn and NORAD subsequently phased out its bilateral assistance programme to Botswana and closed its office in 1997/1998. The Botswana Government has been reviewing its RAD policy for some time, but it is doubtful whether significant resources will continue to be made available to the remote small communities in the absence of donor funds.

7.3.1 Loss of Land by the San

It is a popular and persistent misconception that the San "owned no land" (Hitchcock 1987, p. 319) or were nomadic, wandering from place to place. Different degrees of ownership over game, land and veldfoods existed among different San groups. Amongst for example the! Kung San of northern Botswana and Namibia, their clearly identified areas of land-rights, so-called n!oresi (plural), had enough veldfoods, water and game to support the family group or band during an average year (Lee 1979, p. 334–339).

For centuries and up to the present, the San have been the losers in the conflict between their need for land on which to forage and the demands of cattle ranching. In both traditional Tswana culture and the modern Botswana economy, cattle rank high as a source of status and wealth. The government has implemented several plans to promote cattle-ranching, leading to the dispossession and forced relocation of poor rural people (not only San).

The World Bank has estimated that between 28,000 and 31,000 people were displaced by the Tribal Grazing Land Policy, initiated in 1975 to allocate and regulate tribal land where cattle graze. The new National Policy for Agricultural

Development and the Fencing Act have the potential to displace many more, mostly in the Western Central District, say analysts.

The San also face problems in obtaining secure land and resource tenure rights, including water and grazing. "District Land boards and Councils have been unwilling to grant land rights to groups who make claims on the basis of customary rights and traditional livelihoods," anthropologist Robert Hitchcock notes. The San are considered nomadic (although they settle for periods and know their foraging areas) and thus have no rights to ancestral land, as San or by customary law, only hunting rights, and even these are very limited. The Tribal Land Act Amendment Act of 1993 allowed people to get land anywhere in the country, not just in their home districts, provided they developed the land in two years, including water and fencing. In practice, people with means, mainly the urban-based, outcompete locals for land. The losers are the poor.

As casual workers on the ranches in Ghanzi, the San have reportedly endured a history of abuse at the hands of Afrikaner farmers who settled on the fertile land along the Ghanzi ridge in 1890s. In the process they displaced some 5,000 Naro San, who still suffer the consequences of losing their land. "They turned to casual labour, begging, stock theft and piecemeal for survival. They were demoralised, drunk and apathetic," wrote researcher Elizabeth Wily in 1972. The Naro describe their lives with the term "sheta", meaning poverty, unemployment, oppression, dependency, impotence, homelessness and landlessness, despair, sickness and death. "Poverty and ethnicity among the San In its documents and policies the government consistently talks of the Basarwa, not as a distinct ethnic and indigenous group, but as poor citizens or welfare-needing RADs, like any other poor rural Batswana. This is an important distinction, analysts say. If the San's problems stem from poverty, that would require a distinct set of policy responses; if their problems are due to their status as a marginalised minority, a different course of actions would be required. "Brick-and-mortar" solutions (schools and hospitals) and relief food do not solve social exclusion, low self-esteem and discrimination. In the words of a researcher, the government tried so hard to be culture-neutral that it became culture-blind.

7.3.2 Close Kinship Ties

Resource rights differed among different San groups, with some having closer inter-band relationships than others which continue up to now. Different kinds of property implied different kinds of individual and collective ownership (Barnard 1992, p. 242). There is another popular misconception about Bushmen culture. Many people see them as nomadic people that lived in a pristine and closed environment, unspoiled by Western influence and living their peaceful and non-violent life of hunting and gathering until very recently. In a sense, the San appeal to many as being archetypal. They are seen as one of the last "original people" who speak to us about our own origins.

7.3.3 *Hunter Gatherers, and Nomadic Life*

The attention of the vast majority of the more than 100 researchers who studied the San listed by Hitchcock (1987, p. 296–324) concentrated on the traditional culture of hunting and gathering and on a limited number of groups. Hitchcock (1987, p. 220) elsewhere says:-

While it can be said that the Basarwa represent one of the best studied groups of indigenous peoples in the world today, much of the work that has been done has concentrated on foraging adaptations. Relatively little in the way of detailed analysis has been done on socio-economic change among these people.

Anthropologists have begun to shift their attention to adaptation patterns of groups that settle down (Hitchcock 1982, p. 235). In the literature, the focus is shifting to the great diversity in 20th century hunter-gatherer lifeways (see for example Kent 1992, 1996 *passim*). In reality, the San lived a semi-nomadic lifestyle within clearly demarcated areas of land-right and use. In reality also, the Kalahari has been occupied by agro-pastoralists for centuries and for at least the last 1,500 years the San have interacted with others in varying degrees (Hitchcock 1987, p. 323).

Bantu agropastoralists arrived in northern Botswana before 500 A.D. from the north and the first Bantu-speaking farmers probably settled in south-eastern Botswana around 600. Contact between the San and these early Bantu groups was most likely limited to trading.

Around 1000 A.D. the Toutswe communities living in north-western Botswana, probably ate more domestic than wild animals. On the fringes of this society lived the San, looking after stock, acting as servants and hunting for skins (Tlou and Campbell 1984, p. 41) and traces of the San are found in the smaller outlying villages. The San who were in contact with these Bantu groups generally became attached to families for whom they hunted, did domestic work and herded cattle.

Human Rights AbusesThe communities that later would grow into the Bakgalagadi, Batswana and Basotho tribes began to form in the western Transvaal (the present Northwest province of South Africa) around 1200 A.D. and grew out of the intermarriage between the first Bantu-speaking farmers, the San and the Khoe. The San generally had the lowest position in the tribal hierarchy and lived in serf-like conditions.

The ... San have and often continue to suffer serious human rights abuses at the hands of other people. Genocidal activities resulted in the near-extirmination of the San in what is now South Africa. In Botswana, many San were incorporated into a complex socio-economic system at the lowest levels...if they complained about their treatment, they were beaten. (Hitchcock 1991, p. 3)

By the middle of the last century, the San had lived in contact with the pastoralists for centuries and many groups began to disappear as a distinct people in the more heavily populated areas. The San were never considered part of the Tswana tribal group called Morafe but were connected to the family that they served through the Mafisa system. According to Guenther (1986, p. 178–179 and personal correspondence

1999) Mafisa pertains mainly to the practice of loaning cattle to serfs in return for labour and sometimes calves. It can be benign, but is often oppressive and

... despite the paternalistic affection a (Bantu) patron may feel for his Bushman client, the Kgalagadi and Tswana as a whole look down on the Bushmen, whom they deem inferior and servile people. (Guenther 1986, p. 179)

7.3.4 *San's Status*

Serfs were called Malata and most San living in Eastern Botswana had Malata status (Hitchcock 1998, p. 4). Campbell (1981, p. 14) also describes the Malata relationship in stark terms whilst at the same time stating that this tradition still strongly influences popular sentiments concerning the Bushmen: "The serfs' masters had exclusive rights over them and their descendants and, while not being able to sell them, they could use them for any form of service, which included domestic work, hunting and cattle herding... Malata were unable to represent themselves, were not considered Bangwato and neither attended the Kgotla nor were initiated in any regiment. This historical status is extremely important in any modern consideration of their rights to resources... Facets of the traditional system still prevail. They have a strong bearing on the general attitude of the cattle owners towards people of the malata class."

7.3.5 *Minority Status*

In the Southern part of the Kalahari, the San formed loose trading alliances with the Bakgalagadi, a "lower" tribe in the Tswana hierarchy. However, during the last century the Bakgalagadi began to treat the San as badly as they themselves had been treated by the Batswana. The white settlers in South Africa meanwhile did not hold the San in much higher esteem. Indeed, such were the attitudes of some, that Guenther (1980) recounts a ghastly incident when Dutch settlers on a hunting expedition shot and ate a Bushman, assuming that they were eating the meat of non-human game. When Bushmen in Namibia and South Africa were denied access to their traditional water holes and were not able to hunt and gather anymore, bitter fighting often occurred between Bushman groups and settlers (Gordon 1992 passim). It was only in the remote areas such as the Central Kalahari where the San lived their traditional lifestyle without much change until the middle of the last century. Year-around surface water was not available to sustain cattle farming, thereby rendering it less attractive for pastoralist groups. The San therefore lived relatively undisturbed in the more barren areas of what is now the Ghanzi district in western and central Botswana. This began to change towards the end of the 19th century when the larger political developments in the South African sub-continent coincided with increased population pressure from other groups.

7.3.6 Poverty and Lack of Educational Opportunities

The San community in D’Kar is amongst the hardest hit by poverty in Botswana. It was observed that lack of educational opportunities was part of the many reasons why the San were disadvantaged in many fronts. In one of the training workshops held for the San community, participants were asked to brainstorm on the characteristics of the San community which had a bearing on their poverty status.

The San only made up a small portion of the national population at independence. The vast majority of these lived in feudal relationships with their Tswana masters, as labourers and squatters on the freehold and communal farms that used to be their traditional territory or as squatters on the outskirts of towns like Ghanzi. Access to hunting and gathering resources were at best very limited, herding jobs became scarce and other opportunities for a sustained livelihood were simply not accessible or available. Nationally, only 5% of the San were thought to be pursuing a hunting and gathering lifestyle around independence (Hitchcock 1991, p. 4). The San had become a generally demoralised economic and ethnic underclass and the Naro San were the “most proletarianized of the Botswana San” (Lee 1979, p. 36).

7.4 Programmes to Develop the San

Botswana is considered by many to be a model of successful and peaceful development in Africa. It is respected for its stable and democratic government, a generally free press and a prudent economic policy. There has been a consistent annual budget surplus. Post-independence GDP growth averaged 6% per annum, largely caused by the mining sector (MFDP 1997a, p. 17). During those years, great attention has been given to the development of infrastructure and the provision of basic services and in 1993 Botswana ranked 71 out of 179 countries on the Human Development Index, surpassed in Africa only by Mauritius, Seychelles, Libya and Algeria (MFDP 1997b, p. 27).

The following section describes the events and policies since independence that are relevant to the situation of the San people, especially those in the settlements in the Ghanzi district.

7.4.1 Post-independence Abolition of Subject Groups

It needs to be emphasised how painstaking and almost compulsive (Guenther 1986, p. 300) the concern of the Government of Botswana has been in order not to be seen to favour or disfavour one ethnic group over another. This has been the practice since the early 70s. Basarwa simply do not exist as a category in official documents and discourse (Saugestad 1998 *passim*) and questions about ethnicity have not been asked since the census of 1964. Botswana does not recognise the Basarwa as any

more “indigenous” than any of the other ethnic groups in the society (McDonald and Molamu 1997, p. 3). As the Minister of Local Government, Land and Housing stated not so long ago in the local press, “...all Batswana are indigenous to the country” (Botswana Daily News 05.03.93).

7.4.2 Poverty with a Special Focus on the San

The San are a very special group to study because of its uniqueness compared to other indigenous people within Botswana. It is difficult to overestimate the poverty and dependency that still prevails in the settlements. It has been estimated that the percentage of San dependent on government food and cash for work projects have run as high as 80–90% (Hitchcock and Holm 1991, p. 5). Settlements have scathingly been called refugee camps, cattle posts for ethnic outsiders and relief food distribution centres (CMI 1996, p. 13, 29; Hitchcock and Holm 1991, p. 10). But even 20 years later, it is equally difficult to point to an alternative strategy that would have given a better chance of success, given the Government position and the interests of powerful groups at stake. Without the settlement strategy, the farm Bushmen of the Ghanzi District would today probably be in a similar situation as the San in the TGLP areas, with no alternative but the cattle post. Wily acknowledges in retrospect that “to tread softly” has been unproductive, but argues there was no other way San could be given at least some access to land. Wily believes (1994, p. 16–19) that today a firm focus on land rights, amendments of legal instruments, political will and a public acknowledgement of “the Basarwa” issue are more within reach than they were 20 years ago. Her first conclusion may be correct and the latter is probably too optimistic.

After these developments in the 1970s, not much has really changed. The settlement policy is still supported, though only one additional settlement was established in the Ghanzi district in the early 1990s, the settlement Qabo.

7.4.3 Kuru Development Trust

Several San advocacy and development organisations have emerged, most notably Kuru Development Trust, First people of the Kalahari and the Working Group of Indigenous Minorities of Southern Africa (WIMSA). The Trust is one of those determined to bring about change in the lives of the San. The lack of human resources that these organisations face, the lack of government recognition of their legitimacy, the general lack of political will, plus the fact that San communities are small and scattered makes it clear that it will probably take a number of years before enough internal pressure will lead to meaningful negotiations on a national level that has any chance of challenging the status quo. Although Survival International and other lobby groups have questioned, through San spokespersons, the relevance of human rights abuses, a lot still remain to be done for the San to lead changed lives. The

recent history of further dispossession of the San, most notably from the CKGR, has underlined this further.

7.4.4 The WK Foundation Workshops

During the 2011 WWKF program, workshops that targeted the San induced them to discuss several topics such as the importance of education, San's children and problems with retention in schools. Group work generated answers and reasons such as the following;

- Poverty amongst the San
- Cultural alienation in formal schools
- Language barriers
- Lack of interest in the modern kind of education
- Dependency syndrome
- Mockery and marginalization's
- Lack of encouragement by parents
- Fear of mixing with other groups of people
- Limited exposure to technology even during the training on entrepreneurship

7.4.5 Education with a Focus on San Mother Tongue

The purpose of the initial brain storming session was to re-orientate the participants with the reasons why Bokamoso Trust exists. The next activity was for the participants to discuss how Bokamoso got organized as an educational programme to start addressing the educational issues of San children. At the end of the discussion it became clear that Bokamoso was an intervention created to give a good educational foundation to San children in D'kar and the settlements to prepare them for school. The history of *how* Bokamoso started, *who* started it *how* was it run were discussed openly with those who knew the oral history making more contributions.

Bokamoso as a group of people had a clear idea what the problem was with San education that they developed a rationale and strategy for addressing these education issues of the San. The action to be taken was called an intervention. The presenter then led a discussion on how the participants understood Bokamoso secured the resources to run the programme. Overall it was noted that Bokamoso Trust was formed to help secure funds to develop the San so that eventually they would be self-sustaining and overcome poverty.

7.4.6 Women, Ethnicity, HIV and AIDS

Women among the San, regardless of their age category, are not only at risk of their own infection but as caregivers; shoulder the total burden of the HIV pandemic. In

the African context, women remain vulnerable, as long they are in the reproductive age, because they are expected to bear children. The Presidential Task Group (1997) noted that:

Women of child bearing age have the greatest risk of contracting HIV and women of all ages bear the greatest burden of caring for AIDS sufferers and their dependents. (p. 53)

The death toll from HIV and AIDS opportunistic infections diverted resources that could have been used by individuals, communities, families and the entire nation to divert efforts towards HIV prevention, treatment regimens to manage opportunistic infections, training of personnel to run and counseling and testing centers.

7.5 Human and Gender-based Poverty among the San

Women among the San have a high dependency ratio and remain vulnerable to human and gender-based poverty because of poor resource base, inadequate training and education. Poverty as a gender-based problem predisposes the San women to income insufficiency and other human dimensions of it. Although poverty is more than lack of income, income is a common descriptor as it impinges on human survival and decisions to resort to commercial sex work. This disempowers women, and in cases of intimate relationships, women are exposed by the quest to for survival to engage in behaviours that predispose them to HIV and AIDS.

7.5.1 Ba Isago University College and WW Kellogg Foundation Project: Long Term Poverty Eradication Programmes

It was observed that the San had poverty in all aspects, making it impossible for them to move out of poverty and embark on wealth creation. Entrepreneurship training on business, business management and other topics is amongst the most recognized ways of creating skills and a mindset for reducing poverty not only amongst the San but nationally. In the 2012 State of the Nations address, a total of P40 million was allocated for poverty eradication (President's address, Monday November 5th, 2012; Botswana Daily News, Tuesday November 6th 2012) for any of the 23 packages designed for eligible beneficiaries nationally).

7.5.2 Fighting Poverty Among the San

During the implementation of the National Development Plan of 1970–1975, the Basarwa Development Programme was introduced in recognition of the lack of development of Basarwa. In 1978, it was phase-out and replaced with the Remote Area development Area, an all-inclusive affirmative action programme targeting all

inhabitants of remote areas. Poverty, insecurity, inadequate education and training, weak institution and leadership and negative attitudes affected Basarwa. (Revised Remote area Development Programme 2009; The National Poverty Reduction Strategy 2003). It was also found that all the three dimensions of poverty (income, capability, and participation) hit hardest on the Remote area communities.

The Ba Isago University in partnership with Kellogg Foundation initiated a Community Based Planning Programme that was based on the Zooming Process in the D'kar community and its surrounding resettlement areas which are occupied by the minority San Tribe. According to the project, "The aim of the approach is to help build local capacity for self-drive particularly in youth, women and the families. The capacity to self-drive is developed through supporting rural communities to learn to self-start, self-assess, and self-correct. The approach further aims to build leadership systems and the capabilities needed to provide local people with a favorable environment, as well as the confidence and resources to lead their own social and economic transformation. A multi-faceted approach to learning, it is argued, is the beginning of participatory approach that would connect the unconnected D'kar community to the rest of the world.

7.5.3 Kuru Family of Organisations KFO

The Kuru Family of Organisations (KFO) is an affiliated group of eight NGOs working in Botswana and South Africa that has the common goal of empowering the most vulnerable group of indigenous peoples in southern Africa, namely the San, to take control over their own destinies through a holistic process approach to development. The Kuru Family of Organisations (KFO) consists of seven San-owned member Trusts working in Botswana and South Africa (Bokamoso, Gantsi Craft, Komku, D'Kar Trust, TOCaDI, South African San Institute and Letloa). Through Letloa Trust, KFO also supports the Botswana arm of the Working Group for Indigenous Minorities in Southern Africa (WIMSA). KFO's work currently reaches 40% of the San in Botswana and 70% of the San in South Africa. Its vision is for the San peoples of Southern Africa to achieve permanent control over their lives, resources and destiny.

7.5.4 Mission

Develop a network of modern and professional development organisations with competent and responsible San leadership, facilitating a development process with marginalised communities to independently make informed decisions and to implement their own viable response to their situation. The Kuru Family of Organisations (KFO) presently works in over 40 San communities in three districts in Western Botswana. This represents about 20,000 San people or 40% of the San in Botswana.

These people come from the following San language groups; Naro, Bugakhwe, Anikhwe, Juoansi, Gwi, Ganaand! Xo. Projects also include people sharing the same geographical areas with the San which include Mbandero, Hambukushu and Wayei, all of them minority groups.

7.5.5 To be Responsible

Address the development needs of San people. Where and as long as it is necessary Kuru employs experts from outside the San communities to render skills we do not yet have. As a San organisation Kuru is part of a movement of minority peoples to take up their rightful place in the wider society.

7.5.6 To Heal

The Kuru people come from a culture of healing traditions. It defined the way we hunted and gathered. It still defines the way we think and the way we want to do things. For us everything is linked and should be in balance. When there is drought the land needs to be healed. When there is conflict society and individuals need healing. Development has to be seen from a healing perspective, so that every project must lead to better relations, an improved environment and a better quality of life for all.

7.5.7 To Give

The San have much to give. The hunter's trophy becomes a gift to everyone in the community. Kuru is a gift by the Founder Members to a new generation. What we can give and contribute to others is who we are. To pay respect and to share your skills are the greatest gifts. Development is about having the freedom to give to others from the unique gifts each and every person has.

7.5.8 To have Courage

The San must find food for people. Sometimes they have to chase a lion away from the meat. It takes courage to say NO to misuse of power, NO to substance abuse, NO to taking more than what you need or what is rightfully yours. To live with courage is more than having power and control over your surroundings. The courageous is willing to confront the most difficult of issues.

7.5.9 To Enable

The San believe in collective wisdom. It is the task of our leaders to create an enabling environment so that everyone will grow to their full capacity and be able to participate whether old or young or male or female. In a modern organisation this means that we have to find ways to deal with cultural issues like consensus decision making and participatory democracy.

7.5.10 To have Personal Integrity

One can only walk into the unknown when one knows the people around them are trustworthy. Only when you trust someone can you walk into the desert to find the water you were told would be reached at a specific place and time. As staff we have to be able to believe in one another. The communities need trustworthy organisations that they can trust with their lives.

7.5.11 To Know the “Face of God”

There is a power bigger than ourselves. For many thousands of years we have known that if we looked up, we would see the clouds, the stars, the moon, the sun, the immense sky of the Kalahari. The Naro called this “NqarriKgeikwe—the Face of God”. We can never be alone. No matter how big the challenges are we will always be able to rise above them.

7.6 Interventions by Ba Isago and Kellogg Foundation

7.6.1 Fighting Poverty through a Change of Mindset

The Ba Isago project helped to build local capacity for ‘self-drive’ and ‘changed the mindset’, particularly in youth, women and families in D’Kar community and its surrounding resettlements areas, where the majority of the participants have had to access to tertiary education. Applied to the San community, the program participants went through the three year training program to learn the skills of entrepreneurship by refocusing on their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. Capacity building workshops were held over the 3 year period to build resilience, change the mindset and promote the building of an entrepreneurship, modern leadership and community development-focused mindset of the beneficiaries. Once resilient, communities take stock of their values, beliefs, capacities of Community Based organizations available resources (both human and non-human) community processes and strengthen them to attain self-reliance and sustainable development.

The Zooming Approach is predicated on the belief that people know what they want to change in their environment, are very clear about their community development priorities and all they need is a forum and methodology that gives them space to participate and institute the necessary changes, leading to socio-economic transformation of their livelihoods. This approach helped remove the ivory tower gap that had been experienced by the University and introduced a positive, dynamic and psychologically sensitive cooperative environment, facilitating a close working relationship with the D'Kar Community.

It became evident from this interaction between BA ISAGO University, Kellogg Foundation and the D'Kar Community that the effective community engagement must be viewed as a multi-sectoral approach for long term sustainability. It cannot be left to one player alone. Government must be cognizant of this fact and endeavour to involve all key community development departments, which include social services, health, education, agriculture, women's affairs, youth, etc. By the same token, the process calls for a multi-faceted approach to learning, the formal classroom being one of them. The fact that the most of the key participants in the rural areas have had no exposure to tertiary education, and many may have dropped out of elementary school, means that other forms of engagement must be employed, which may include translation of community engagement learning materials or the use of pictures to express ideas.

D'kar is a private farm, belonging to the San Reformed Church in D'kar, and therefore not eligible for government funding. Trusts work as partners to the 1700 marginalized D'kar inhabitants as they face the health, economic and political challenges of a minority group in Botswana. The goal of Kuru D'kar Trust is to assist D'kar community especially the poor and marginalized to develop sustainable livelihoods through education, training, and community mobilization. Amongst other things the Kuru D'kar Trust mobilizes the youth, local women, and the elderly to undertake community projects, support health services to the community and develop San leadership to guide the village, and the community into the future.

7.6.2 Benefits Derived from the Project

Evaluation of the trainings was done through critically analysing reflective workshop reports written by the Project Coordinator, from the narrative reports of consultants and on-site observations made by external project evaluators as well as other stakeholders. The following were identified:

7.6.3 From the Workshop Participants and the Community

In terms of why projects did not work in the past, participants had this to say:

We are suffering, and every little income received is used, as a result of lack of financial management skills and failure to re-invent profits/income towards the business

There are many people buying on credits and many will not pay, hence the business runs out of working capital

Jealousy, many people discourage us

Most people in the area make the same product, hence there is stiff competition.

7.6.4 Social Benefits

They saw a lot of business potential in D’Kar since many people were not employed; there was good infrastructure such as, roads, water, and electricity for income generating; there was donor support; support from government; availability of loan and grants.

They did not only benefit individually by means of acquiring skills to enhance their learning, it improved their future plans to improve their livelihood, as well as the need to appreciate each other and help each other, since they were taught as a group, they appreciated other participants aspirations and needs.

They acclaimed a heightened confidence after workshops and “... need to stand up for oneself and reach out to people and market oneself, and not be shy”

My mind is now open to go out to the market

In terms of **knowledge and information**, all the narrative reports suggest a growth in knowledge and provision of information to the community. Linkage with Government ministries for access of services was established through the workshops addressed by civil servants from Ghanzi District Government Ministries. The acquired **skills** and the high level of commitment was shown by the large number of participants who started to resuscitate and put into practice newly acquired knowledge through the re-establishment of the local garden which was dying by transplanting 14 seedbeds of onions, spinach, rape and other vegetables. They took turns in caring for the garden in groups every day.

There was a visible **change in behaviour** through exchange of ideas with successful entrepreneurs in Ghanzi town and professional trainers that could lead to long term outcomes. In terms of **capacity building**, this training contributed to the community becoming increasingly empowered and more self-reliant enhancing sustainability; with beneficiaries starting their own businesses, employing others, educating their children and enjoying good health, and reducing their dependence on government welfare programmes.

7.7 Successes/Challenges of Running the Project in D’Kar- Ghanzi

Generally attendance was good, good training reports were received, and consultants demonstrated good delivery skills. The major partner Kuru D’Kar Trust has been supporting the project well. Full involvement and commitment of stakeholders

was noted. The challenges included lack of landline communication and internet services for ease of communication with relevant stakeholders. Need to use translators for all aspects of the training, at times in three languages, Naro, Setswana and English affected the pace and to some extent the quality of knowledge delivery.

7.7.1 The Involvement of Letloa in Fighting Poverty

Letloa Trust has been helping in the development of the San by increasing access to primary, secondary, practical training and tertiary education for the San people. In Ghanzi District, D'kar Farm Community, the **Letloa** (meaning 'net') Trust is the lead organisation of the Kuru Family of organisations (KFO). It exists to give strategic direction to the KFO and to build the professional and technical competencies of its member organizations. Letloa's vision is to develop a network of modern and professional development organisations, with competent and responsible San leadership, facilitating a development process with marginalised communities, to independently make informed decisions and to implement their own viable response to their situation.

7.7.2 Management and Leadership Development Programme

There is a Management and Leadership Development Programme for the San designed as a support programme, to the KFO members, to build the management skills of San graduates to take on senior management positions within their Trusts, which include Bokamoso, D'kar Kuru Development Trust, Komku, Ghanzi Crafts, Kuru Art and Crafts, competently and confidently by 2012.

The Member Trusts manage social programmes supporting community development initiatives of the San in Ghanzi, whilst Letloa provides the same trusts with technical supervision and support. Letloa also still facilitates networking with governments internationally, the University of Botswana and other international indigenous people's organisations in terms of San education support, policy development on culturally adapted education and mother tongue tuition.

The Management and Leadership Development Programme's (MLDP) aim is to bring San into management and leadership positions confidently and competently. The MLDP focuses on supporting interns to grow in four major competency areas, strategic leadership, people leadership, operational leadership and personal leadership. Each intern develops a personal development plan as a means to realise these competencies. To ensure that all competencies are met a mix of various training and development activities are used to match the specific needs of the individual interns such as attending relevant workshops, participating in action learning groups, attending job related further education courses, and reflecting on their successes and challenges as they progress.

However, the major avenue to ensure that competencies are met is on-the-job training and it is here that the need for mentors becomes paramount. The year 2010 proved to be very successful with regards to interns enrolling onto tertiary education courses. In 2009, a number of interns tried to enroll at the University of Botswana (UB) but were unsuccessful. This year, with the support of our partner, the Research Centre for San Studies, University of Botswana, all those that applied to UB were successful. This was a tremendous achievement. To date, the range of courses undertaken by MLDP interns at various institutions include Degree in Library and Information Services, Diplomas in NGO Management, Masters in Development Studies, Diploma in Human Resource Management, Certificate in Early Childhood Education, Certificate in Small Scale Business Management, Degree in Business Management and a Diploma in Technical Financial Accounting. In addition to the above individual courses the interns also participated in a personal development workshop, facilitated by the Collective Leadership Institute, Finance for Non-Financial Managers, facilitated by IDM, and a leadership initiative in conjunction with the Barclays Bank Leadership Development Network, facilitated by Am-bur Associates. These ‘anchor’ workshops were made possible due to funding from the Ministry of Finance/European Commission Non-State Actors Capacity Building Programme. All were resoundingly successful and have contributed towards increasing the interns’ confidence and abilities within the workplace. In April, the programme supported the Research Centre for San Studies in hosting the workshop, ‘San Voices in Education: Who is going to drive?’ This forum marked a move away from the traditional information sharing forums where often San experiences are articulated by non- San with the San speaking loudly and clearly about their experiences and proving they are willing to take ownership of the way forward. In addition to this workshop, MLDP was also involved in the Letloa Trust, Maun Educational Learning Workshop, ‘Inclusive Education for All’ and the development of the Letloa Education Strategy (Kuru Family of Organisations Annual Report, 2010).

The MLDP interns were very vocal with regards to their thoughts on San and education and are enjoying participating, where appropriate, in KFO strategic discussions. 2010 saw the successful completion of the third round of interns. The interns now include: XharaeXhase and Zachariah Watsamaya (Komku Trust); Willie Morris (Bokamoso Trust); GakemothoSatau (Letloa Trust, Land Livelihood and Heritage Programme); Wynard Morris and Job Morris (Kuru D’Kar Trust); NxisaeKiema (Letloa Trust, Tsodilo Project); BilliesPamo and FrederikBrou (SASI); TlhokomelangNgaka and MorongaTanago (TOCaDI Trust); KuelaKiema (Letloa Trust, Cultural Centre); SwabiKamimo (WIMSA); and Kerapetse Bantu Peter (‡Heku Community Trust). Unfortunately, the programme has also seen some interns leaving the programme—we wish them luck in their new pursuits.

7.8 Interventions by the University of Botswana and Tromso

The Universities of Botswana and the University of Tromso Collaborative Programme for San Research and Capacity building was established 1996. The UB Tromso does benchmarking and is multi-disciplinary focusing on the cultural, historical, legal situation of the San in Botswana, Namibia and South Africa. The University of Botswana and University of Tromso Collaborative Programme for San/Basarwa Research and Capacity Building (UB/Tromso) has officially ended. This is a project that has been running, housed at UB, for over a decade. In the past 12 years, the programme has grown from being a solely research programme to a two-fold programme funding research and capacity building as well. This has yielded good results as San youth who were left out of the system were enrolled into higher education and which could translate into upliftment of communities and a shift from the margins to the centre.

As part of its mandate the programme has facilitated a sponsorship programme which came into being in 2003 as response to the action-oriented research by the UB/Tromso researchers. The programme started on a small scale with part of the funds from the research component of UB/Tromso and in 2005 UB/Tromso received a grant equivalent to 3.5 million Pula from the Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs with Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) controlling the funds. The grant was meant to cover San youth scholarship costs for a five year period (2005–2009) in three countries; namely, Botswana, Namibia and South Africa (University of Botswana, San Research Centre 2014).

7.9 Conclusions

The three projects, research management, leadership and academic based discussed above demonstrate a very strong engagement of universities with the community in fighting poverty. However, the major shortcoming of the projects described above is possibly the lack of student involvement, so that the community serves as source of learning for students in order to contribute to their development. This calls for curricular relevance, faculty commitment to teaching and institutional responsiveness to the larger public good. They are given as part of promoting best practice in an imperfect world.

Letloa partnership with the University of Botswana center for San studies is gradually making progress in ensuring access to higher education by the San who were previously disadvantaged in all fronts. It is accepted that the succession plan to ensure sustainable development of the San beyond donor fatigue will connect the previously unconnected San to access higher education

7.10 Recommendations

In spite of all efforts by local and international stakeholders, the San in Botswana remain by and large the primary victims of poverty and social marginalization and will invariably need more aggressive national interventions and strategies to assist them join the mainstream socio-economic opportunities and that includes affirmative action programmes that target them only. The involvement of NGOs and other international development agencies in the fight against poverty remains critical but the input of the San in all endeavours cannot be ignored for sustainability of initiatives. In this regard, it is recommended that formal structures should be established for the support and implementation of service learning and consultative structures as an integral part of working with San communities in Botswana. Community engagement institutional policies are necessary that promotes a positive culture amongst university faculty to provide service to communities that integrates community service to teaching and research. More opportunities must be provided to connect the unconnected San minorities especially in terms of more scholarships to access tertiary institutions.

References

- Barnard, A. (1992). *Hunters and herders of Southern Africa. A comparative ethnography of the Khoisan people*. Cambridge University Press.
- Guenter, M. G. (1986). The Nahrö Bushmen of Botswana, tradition and change. In Quellen zur Koisan-forschung. Hamburg: Helmut Buske Verlag.
- Hitchcock, R. K., & Holm, J. D. (1991). Bureaucratic domination of hunter-gatherer societies: A study of the San in Botswana. *Development and Change*, 24(2), 305–338.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1982). Patterns of sedentism among the Basarwa of eastern Botswana. In E. Leacock & R. B. Lee (Eds.), *Politics and history in band societies* (pp. 223–267). Cambridge University press.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1987). Anthropological research and remote area development among Botswana Basarwa. In R. Hitchcock, N. Parsons, & J. Taylor (Eds.), *Research for development in Botswana*. Gaborone: Botswana Society.
- Kent, S. (1996). Cultural diversity among African foragers: Causes and implications. In S. Kent (Ed.), *Cultural diversity among twentieth-century foragers* (pp. 1–18). Cambridge University Press.
- Kuru Family of Organisations Annual Report. (2010). Letloa Trust, Bokamoso, Gantsi Craft, Komku Trust, Kuru D’Kar Trust, Naro Language Project, San Arts and Crafts, South African San Institute, TOCaDI Annual Report, 2010.
- Lee, R. B. (1979). *The Kung San*. Men, women and work in a foraging society. New York: Cambridge university press.
- Mafela, L. (2009) Changing livelihoods, language use and language shift among Basarwa in Botswana. *International Journal of Multilingualism*. 6(3), 229–245.
- MFDP. (1997b). *National development plan 8*. Gaborone: MFDP.
- Presidential Task Group on a Long Tem Vision for Botswana- Towards Prosperity for all. (1997). *A long tem vision for botswana- towards prosperity for all*. Gaborone: Residential Task Group a Long Tem Vision for Botswana.

- Saugestad, S. (1998). *The inconvenient indigenous: Remote area development in Botswana, donor assistance and the first people of the Kalahari*. University of Tromsø.
- Suzman, J. (2002). The San in Botswana. In *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 12/1/2002, 28(4), 850–851. Carfax Publishing, Taylor and Francis Ltd. Language.
- The World Factbook. (2014). *Cia World Factbook 2014*. World FactBook of the United States Central Intelligence Agency.
- University of Botswana, San Research Centre, 2014
- Wily, Elizabeth A. (1981). *The TGLP and Hunter-Gatherers: A Case Study in Land Politics*. Gaborone, Botswana: National Institute of Development and Cultural Research.
- Wily, Elizabeth A. (1994) Hunter-Gatherers in Botswana and the Land Issue. *Indigenous Affairs* 2/94:6-19. Copenhagen, Denmark: International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs.

Further Reading

- Altbach, P. G., Reisberg L., & Rumbley L. E. (2009). *Trends in global higher education: Tracking an academic revolution executive summary*. A report prepared for the UNESCO 2009 World Conference on Higher Education. World Conference on Higher Education 2009.
- BIDPA. (1997). *Study of poverty and poverty alleviation in Botswana. Technical Reports. (Phase I, vol. 2)*. Gaborone: MFDP.
- Benneworth, P. (Ed.). (2012). *University engagement with socially excluded communities*. Berlin: Springer Verlag.
- Botswana. (2014). CIA World Factbook 2014 CIA WORLD FACTBOOK AND 2014 World Fact Book of the United States Central Intelligence Agency.
- Central Statistics Office. (2001). *Population of towns, villages and associated localities*. Ministry of finance and development Planning.
- Central Statistics Office (2003). *Household income and expenditure survey*. Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.
- Freire, P (1970) *Education for critical consciousness*. New York: Continuum Publishing Company.
- Good, K (1999). *The state and extreme poverty in Botswana: The San and destitutes*. *Journal of Modern African Studies*, 32(2), 185–205.
- Government of Botswana. (2009). *Revised remote area development programme, 2009*. Gaborone: Government Printers.
- Government of Botswana. (2003). *The national poverty reduction strategy, 2003*. Gaborone: Government Printers.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1985). Development planning, government policy and the future of the Basarwa In Botswana. In C. Schrire & R. Gordon (Eds.), *The future of former foragers: Australia and Southern Africa* (pp. 55–62). Cambridge: Cultural Survival.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1996). *Kalahari communities: Bushmen and the politics of the environment in Southern Africa*. IWGIA document no 79. Copenhagen.
- Hitchcock, R. K. (1988). *A critical assessment of the accelerated remote area development programme: a confidential report to the Norwegian agency for international development NORAD*. Unpublished monograph.
- Jefferies, K. (1997a). Poverty in Botswana. In Botswana Society (Ed.), (1997), *Poverty and plenty-The Botswana experience* (pp. 30–60). Gaborone: Mac Millan.
- Kibirige, J. S. (1997). Population growth, illiteracy, poverty and health. *World Development*, 17(7), 247–259.
- MFDP. (2000). *Mid term review of NDP 8*. Gaborone: Ministry of Local Government.
- Oduaran, A. & Bhola. H. S. (2006). Widening Access to Education as Social Justice. Essays in Honor of Michael Omolewa (eds), Dordrecht: Springer.
- Participatory Education, Evaluation and Research. (1999). *PLA Notes*, Issues 36 (pp. 3–8). London: IIED.

- Saugestad, S. (1994). *Research and its relevance: notes on the history of research on the Bushmen-San-Basarwa-N/oakwe of Botswana*. Paper presented to the conference Khoisan Studies: Multidisciplinary perspectives: Germany.
- Raditlhokwa, L. (2012). Poverty in Botswana. *Botswana Daily News: Botswana Press Agency (BOPA)*, 8. (Republic of Botswana Website: www.gov.bw).
- UNDP. (1998). *Overcoming human poverty*. Gaborone: UNDP.
- Women's Affairs Department. (1995). Botswana Human Rights Report. Gaborone: WAD.
- Wilmsen, E. N., & Denbow, J. R. (1990). Pragmatic history of San speaking peoples and current attempts at revision. *Current Anthropology*, 31, 489–524.
- Wily, L. (1979a) A Case Study in Land Politics in Present Day Africa: The Impact of the Tribal Grazing Land Policy Upon Hunter Gatherer Land Rights in Modern Botswana, Gaborone: Human Rights and Development Working Papers.
- www.osisa.org/indigenous-peoples/south-africa/natural-justice.

Chapter 8

Developing San Women's Business, Governance and Management Skills in the Arts and Craft Project

Morgen Chawawa

8.1 Introduction

The San Community in D'kar lacks entrepreneurial skills which are vital to building sustainable businesses in nay community. While Ba Isago University College and W.W. Kellogg Foundation had run a number of generic business management workshops, it was felt a special project was needed in which the San women were currently involved so that a direct impact was felt by the community. A needs assessment conducted revealed that there was a project that had been running for some time in which San women and some men were engaged in making art and crafts objects unique to the San people. Tourists visiting this area were buying paintings and crafts, providing the project members with some reasonable income but a number of deficiencies were noted. The success of the art project paved way for one of the artists to display her products in an art exhibition in England, where she won a price for producing an art design that was adopted by British Airways for its tail display. The artist was given an honorary award by the President of Botswana for the achievement. Apart from the art paintings, San women produce what are called tie-and-dye materials which are very popular with tourists.

Furthermore, the San Community in D'kar lacks project management skills which are vital to building sustainable businesses in nay community. While Ba Isago University College and W.W. Kellogg Foundation had run a number of generic business management workshops, it was felt a special project was needed in which the San women were currently involved so that a direct impact was felt by the community. A needs assessment conducted revealed that there was a project that had been running for some time in which San women and some men were engaged in making art and crafts objects unique to the San people. The concept of PCM can be successfully applied to the Kuru Art and Crafts Cooperative project so that it is run

M. Chawawa (✉)
Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

like a business project, subject to periodic review and all aspects of the project can be improved upon through the PCM Model of operation.

8.2 The Tie-and-Dye Project for San Women in D'kar Farm community

In D'kar Farm San community, most households are headed by women. Women look after families without material support from the men, most of whom do not have formal employment. Many do not live with the families in the village. There was an urgent need to equip women with skills to start their own businesses so they could support their children. They have traditionally relied on men for leadership in the home and in the community development projects. This is generally true for the San communities. But in this project it was felt they needed to develop their own leadership skills because they were the drivers of this project. The skills of leading, directing and supporting organizational goals were covered during the trainings. At the end of the trainings a number of changes were observed among the participants.

Ba Isago University College in partnership with the W. W. Kellogg Foundation decided to run a number of workshops for the San women who had struggled to build a business of making art and crafts for tourists visiting the area. Fifteen San women in D'kar Farm community run a cooperative making art, crafts and tie and dye products. This cooperative had been operating for ten years. The cooperative failed to take off because there was a lack of leadership and business management skills. They had a part time business manager. The members of the cooperative were not committed to the project. They came to work on the project when money was needed. They did not have anyone with managerial experiences. A number of donors from the Netherlands had injected some funds into the tie and dye project but because of lack of leadership and business management skills the project could not grow. The intervention of Ba Isago University, with the financial support of the Kellogg Foundation transformed the cooperative, giving it strong leadership and business management skills.

The women needed practical skills they could use to make quality products to sell and make money for their families. Kellogg Foundation and Ba Isago University College provided trainers, raw materials, and a training facility where women were given special training in making "tie-and-dye" goods, which many tourists like to buy and display in their homes. The training took place over two weeks. During that time they were busy making the goods. Tourists came and bought large quantities of materials. This was very encouraging for the women who were engaged in the project. Mrs. Brown, the trainer and project coordinator gave lectures and demonstrated how to make specific patterns and pictures with the objects used to block out the light. The method used for this training was based on learner involvement in all aspects. Learners were encouraged to solve problems themselves by assessing the facts e.g. hearing from an experienced craft distributor about the market values of their products and then to find solutions as to how to improve.

Looking at the realities of their situation and find a way forward. Participants were told to gather the objects they wanted to use and plan the design on a piece of paper. When this was done outside space was cleared for each person to put her cloth in the sun. They then proceeded to apply the dye and arrange their objects according to the planned design on the cloths.

Leading is the management function of influencing people to act or not act in a certain way. It is the process of getting members of the project to work together in a fashion consistent with the goals of the project. Major components of leading include motivating employees, managing group dynamics and leadership per se. All of which are closely related to major areas of organizational behavior. The San people are not good at “leading” because everything must be done by consensus. When families decide on any activity or function, they must agree as a family, otherwise nothing happens. The trainings gave the participants a new perspective on this aspect of their life. Initially, it was difficult to convince them of a need for someone to provide leadership in their business undertaking. The tie and dye business demands communication with other businesses by the leader on behalf of the other members of the cooperative. The San end to be suspicious of each other. They are wary being cheated or short changed in business dealings. So all decisions are referred to the group, which must agree or else the project is abandoned. After the trainings, this thinking changed. They chose a woman to be their leader and began to refer some decisions to their leader when they felt it was necessary to do so. The meetings were chaired by the leader and decisions from their meetings were carried out with the support of their leader. After the trainings, the leader was able to induce her colleagues to work project goals. Although initially the leader was not comfortable giving instructions to the other members of the project, she gradually accepted the responsibility for the achievement of the project objectives. Through the trainings, she began to play a major role in moving projects forward and in motivating other women by ensuring good communication between the cooperative members. We saw the leader giving direction when it came to matters of finances, when it involved sharing of profits at the end of the month when products had been sold and monies banked. Although the group decided how much each should get, the leader took the very important role in deciding on how to use the rest of the funds left in the project. We also witnessed the leader playing a large role in the implementation of the business plans including expansion of the business operations, purchasing of additional equipment and adoption of new marketing techniques.

Leadership training infused energy into the project, motivating its members to get things moving and keep them moving. Leadership was important in passing information to colleagues, explaining the mission, allocating tasks and giving instructions, consulting with staff and supervising their work; whatever was necessary to raise production, discipline staff or handle conflicts. The mystery of how information is gathered and used in the San community is interesting. Traditionally, the San people do not share much in terms of “information”. They believe that power lies in how much you know and how much others depend on you. They operate by and large on a “need to know” basis. So the more you know, the less you want to share that information. In the trainings, the facilitator spent some time on the importance

of information w to all members of the cooperation and why it had to be shared. The trainings encouraged cooperative members to offer ideas on matters pertaining to their business operations. These included ideas on how to increase production, staff motivation, knowledge of their business and communication aimed at improving performance and increasing productivity.

Participants were also given an understanding of the fundamental differences between “manager” and “leader”. Good managers lead their projects to greater heights of achievement, productivity, and ultimate profitability. Managers have the authority to enforce order and direct the activities of others. This includes issuing orders and being responsible for their execution. A leader has the authority, but gets results without using force. The women discussed several different types of leadership styles. Some are more prevalent than others in their community. The workshops also talked about autocratic style. Under the autocratic leadership style, all decision-making powers are centralized in the leader. They do not entertain any suggestions or initiatives from colleagues. The autocratic management has been successful as it permits quick decision-making. One person decides for the whole group and keeps each decision to himself until he feels it is needed to be shared. This is not true under the San community, where consensus is highly respected. During the workshops the participants were highly critical of this model of leadership and the discussions on this area of leadership, focused on why it should not be used in their project. The women wanted this type of leadership model in their homes when disciplining children but not in the cooperative. The young women who were also members of the cooperative were very critical of the views expressed by the older women. They felt that it was abusive and should not be practiced anywhere in Botswana. The participative or democratic style was discussed during the workshops. This favors decision-making by the group such a leader gives instruction after consulting the group. They can win the co-operation of their group and can motivate them effectively and positively. The decisions of the democratic leader are not unilateral as with the autocrat because they arise from consultation with the group members and participation by them. The cooperative members were very excited about this form of leadership because it is prevalent in the San community. What seems to be lacking in their view of this leadership was “accountability”. All wanted to be consulted when decisions were being made but no one wanted to be “accountable” for the results of the decisions made. They wanted the leader to be accountable. Who should be leading the group and how much authority were they willing to give to the leader? Because in the San community women do not hold leadership positions, the participants, who were all women, were not prepared to lead the group. In the end, some incentives had to be introduced to encourage one woman to accept the leadership position. The leader was given a small monthly allowance and less work on the production line since she had to work with all customers, suppliers and shops that were selling the cooperative's products.

Another leadership style covered during trainings was *laissez-faire* or free rein. This style of leadership raised many questions during the workshops. This was the dominant leadership at the time Ba Isago University started its community engagement initiative. According to the trainer, a free-rein leader does not lead, but leaves

the group entirely to itself; such a leader allows maximum freedom to colleagues, i.e., they are given a free hand in deciding their own policies and methods. This style leadership fits into the leadership prevalent in the San community. The cooperative members felt this type of leadership was not going to give them the best business relationship and that they were going to fail if they allowed this form of leadership style. During the discussions no one wanted to accept the blame that the cooperative had run its business this way in the past and that is why they had failed to grow their business operations. Many donors had poured money into the cooperative in the past but very little came out of the investments because to *laissez-faire* leadership. The workshops also discussed what is called “toxic leadership” i.e. leadership abusing workers and leaving the organization in a worse condition. The participants seemed familiar with this type of leadership. They gave examples of leaders in their community who were not good leaders because of the way they made decisions affecting the whole community. The leaders met with donors and the Government of Botswana and decided on projects that had failed to take off because “toxic leadership”. The examples given pointed to San men holding traditional positions, making all decisions on behalf of the community as they worked with project funders or Government officials. The cooperative women raised their voices during this discussion and passionately expressed their disenchantment with this type of leadership but they were not prepared to declare their views in the presence of the traditional leaders, not represented at these workshops. The facilitator of the workshop allowed women to vent their anger on this topic because it was evident the participants did not want to have this type of leadership in their community and more so in their cooperative. They described in graphic details the reasons why they felt the traditional chief was a “toxic leader”, using examples of decisions he had made without consulting the people. The discussion was helpful in understanding how the leader was going to motivate members to work cooperatively with her. During the project, there was no need to worry about such destructive leadership because it had been completely discussed in the trainings.

During the trainings, women learned how to work as a team. The workshop came up with ways and strategies seeking to ensure that individuals, board members and management engage in good governance practices seeking to avoid bribes, kick-backs, etc. Cooperative members were taught about organizational social responsibility: Workshop participants were taught that good governance practice respects corporate social responsibility. This is based on an understanding of the expectations that our communities have regarding the ‘social contract’ that their organization has with its community may include public reporting, and openness to complaints about services or tips regarding illegal actions of employees. The women learned to that providing a vehicle for suggestions advances more social responsibility. In the world of governance, our better-educated citizens are constantly raising their levels of expectations for its leaders. Rules, principles, and social responsibility guidelines can help ensure that managers, board members and/or political leaders, raise expectations, and build back faith in leadership. This is important both for the sustainability of our communities and the sustainability of our Trusts.

In the San community product prices are not determined by supply and demands or any commercial factors. Product price depends on whether you know someone or not. The price is higher when you do not know someone. The workshops covered pricing factors on the products. Participants were divided into two groups. After that the workshops facilitator gave them price of materials used, the labor, other costs e.g. transport of either materials from the distributor or the product to the market and administrative support. They had to set prices based on this information. Participants now had a sound strategy to determine prices for products. Most of the participants were illiterate so calculations were mostly done by leaders in each group who could do it. It was important for all the participants to have a clear understanding of how the pricing works. After the training on pricing, the cooperative members began to charge higher prices for their products because they had acquired more information on how to price products. The cooperative began to make more money. At the end of the month, the profits were higher, allowing members to get a bigger share for their families. This was great news.

The concept of marketing was not known by the cooperative. Mrs. Brown, the workshop facilitator, asked the participants to iron all cloths and lay them out ready for sale. She had invited a distributor for crafts situated in Maun, to look at the cloths and see if she thinks they will sell. Mrs. Kohler told the participants that the market is overstocked with tie and dyed cloths from the rest of Africa and from Indonesia. If they wanted to sell the cloths they should do something to them to make them unique. For example, they had to sew on beads, draw animals unique to Botswana on them and make other articles from them. She was most impressed by the light-resistant tie and dye cloths and felt that there could be a future for it. She did not recommend making clothes from the cloths but rather to make them into cushion covers, bedspreads or table linen.

8.2.1 Final improvements

The participants reviewed their discussions from the previous day and made decisions informed by the lessons. They also learned that drawing animals in the light resist cloths did not finish well and sewing ostrich eggshell beads, a symbol of their culture, onto some of the tie and dye cloths was an attractive idea. This did improve and add extra interest to the cloths. Each participant finished six cloths over the three weeks. They selected two of their cloths to keep for themselves and sold the rest at the Kuru Art Centre. The women of D'kar Farm were fortunate to have undergone special training in tie-and-dye and game farming self-help commercial projects because of the keen interest and passion they expressed in the community capacity building workshops sponsored by the Kellogg Foundation in partnership with BA ISAGO University College. These women are now able to look after their families, send their children to school and improve their diet. The Kuru Development Trust benefited immensely from this training, particularly in good governance and effective leadership. The spirit of natural resource conservation has taken a firm

root in this community to the extent that once a month conservation meetings are held to discuss relevant issues in the field of natural resource conservation on the farm. The women in D'kar are now good leaders of their families and better managers of their financial resources.

8.2.2 The Future of the Projects

After intensive discussions at the end of the community engagement programme, a forum was created for the San cooperative women to map the way forward. They wanted to be involved in the projects on a larger scale as a cooperative. They decided to seek external funding for their project. Participants felt that a specialist fund raising manager was needed to lead the fundraising for their project. They wanted to hire a trained manager for the tie-and-dye project. There was urgent need to source materials on a large scale to cut costs. They wanted more working space, since they were now working in the art studios and some artists were a bit upset about their intrusion. They identified a market, strategically located to attract tourists and somebody to sell the products. They want to set up a bank account and work hard to satisfy their customers. They wanted to work towards a sustainable project and to diversify production to include curtains, table cloths, bags, dresses, quilts, cushion covers, and sofa covers. They will employ someone to sew articles from the cloths. For marketing, they tasked the art project manager to market their cloths to local hotels, Government departments, craft shops and places that attract tourists. Their marketing strategy includes a website to advertise their work on the internet. Some participants felt they want to portray their culture in the cloths much as the Kuru artists are doing in their paintings.

For BA ISAGO University, Kellogg Foundation and the D'kar San Tribe, the Community Engagement was a major success. The San women were empowered to change their own lives. The women became leaders in their own community. They learned to express their own views and contribute to the welfare of their families and the community at large. However, Ba Isago University became more aware after this experience that community development and community engagement must be viewed as a multi-sectoral approach for long term sustainability. Government of Botswana is cognizant of this fact and is involving all key community development departments, which including civil society organizations and educational institutions like Ba Isago University. By the same token, the process calls for a multi-faceted approach to learning, the formal classroom being one of them. The fact that the most of the key participants in the rural areas have had no exposure to tertiary education, and many may have dropped out of elementary school, means that other forms of engagement must be employed. This may include translation of community engagement learning materials or the use of pictures to express ideas. The challenges faced by Ba Isago university staff were many. Working with a community situated seven hundred kilometers from Gaborone, where Ba Isago is based was a challenge in terms of effective communication with field staff, providing logistical

support, transporting materials and consultants for the project, effecting timely payments to vendors, and making important decisions on the project operations. With funds being released by Kellogg Foundation annually, sometimes the project experienced operational difficulties due to gaps in the disbursement of funds. However, in the end, this was a great, learning experience for Ba Isago University and the San people of D'kar, whose lives were transformed for the better. The project owes its success in part to the funding from the Kellogg Foundation, USA.

Ba Isago's community engagement gave the San women in D'kar the power of self-recognition that energizes communities to seek to transform their reality to a better quality of life, to plan for it and to strategize for access to opportunities that would allow the achievement of an improved quality of life. What was needed at the local level was an "*I can do*" disposition. The women were able to develop their ability to collectively elaborate a vision for their future; and engage in dialogues and conversations with other stakeholders to find feasible and compatible answers to common challenges. The women in D'kar needed innovative programmes and activities, promoting new ways of doing business and empowering the poor so that they could take charge of their own affairs.

8.2.3 Project Cycle Management (P.C.M.)

From experience, it is clear that many problems relating to the implementation of projects are due to improper planning. Often considerable amounts of resources are wasted before projects are adjusted to become more effective.

Some of the main problems relating to planning are:

- The stakeholders and beneficiaries are seldom or only marginally involved in the formulation of the project;
- The context in which the intervention will take place is not sufficiently understood by those who make strategy decisions;
- The project formulation remains vague and can be interpreted in different ways;
- Because of this monitoring and review to increase the projects effectiveness and efficiency becomes almost impossible;
- Often the link between the activities of a project and its desired results are not very clear.

8.2.3.1 Training workshop structure

The first day started with a group of 17 participants to the training workshop. The majority of participants were women who were 10 against 7 men. More participants joined the training later on bringing the total number to 24 participants.

The first day covered the following topics:

- Introduction to Project Cycle Management;
- Characteristics of a project;
- Steps of the Project Cycle Management and Advantages of Project Management.

The course started with some introductions. Each participant gave their names and their roles and responsibilities in the community. This was followed by the facilitator asking the participants to give their expectations for the workshop before the group agreed on some ground rules for the workshop. The facilitator then outlined the workshop objectives and outcomes. Some of the expectations matched with the workshop objectives.

The presentation that followed made emphasis on defining what a project is and the stages involved in the life cycle of a project with more emphasis on Programming (planning), identification, appraisal, financing, implementation and evaluation and how these stages are interrelated. Participants were then divided into two (2) groups. One group was tasked with working on how their horticultural project started, what prompted them to embark on a horticultural project, project viability and what they want to achieve. The second group worked on outlining activities carried out to come up with a horticultural project, how they monitor project implementation and what they would like to see happening in D'kar in the next five (5) years in terms of poverty reduction and employment creation based on the horticultural project they are undertaking. Group presentations followed with some very useful contributions from the participants. From the plenary presentations, it was clear that the participants had understood the concepts introduced earlier in the day.

A presentation on Introduction to Project Cycle Management (PCM) was followed by the session on the steps of the Logical Framework Approach (LFA). The day ended with the facilitator explaining what would be covered in Day Two and emphasising that it will begin with more details and deliberations on the steps so introduced. Participants were given a Take Home Exercise to research on the needs and interests of stakeholders using the explanations of the morning.

8.2.3.2 Day Two Course Coverage

The day covered characteristics of PCM; stakeholder and problem analysis; Objective and strategy analysis; and project monitoring and evaluation. The day began with a recap of Day One, with participants relating what they have learnt in the previous session. The facilitator then made some presentations on the characteristics of PCM with questions from participants. Discussions followed on stakeholder and problem analysis. The participants were then divided into two groups.

Group One was asked to identify key stakeholder needs and interests based on stakeholder socio-economic and political characteristics, interests and expectations, potentials and deficiencies and how best to involve the stakeholders in the project.

Group Two, on the other hand did an exercise on problem analysis, identifying major problems, selecting a starter problem and establishing a hierarchy of cause and effects in a problem tree. Group presentations followed.

Objective and strategy analysis were introduced followed with some demonstrations on working out an objective tree on the basis of the problem tree. The last topic for the day was on Project monitoring and evaluation based on the importance of monitoring project implementation and the need for evaluation; what do we evaluate and why we evaluate, based on project relevance, efficiency, effectiveness and impact as well as measuring impact on the basis of Knowledge, Attitudes, Practices and Skills (KAPS). The day ended with a short introduction on topics for Day Three. Attendance was higher with a total of 26 participants.

8.2.3.3 Day Three Course Coverage

The third day covered the Vertical and Horizontal logic in Project Planning Matrix (PPM), Project indicators and means of verification and Budgeting and the Budgeting process. The facilitator took participants through what they have learnt in the previous sessions during a recap. A short presentation on project monitoring and evaluation followed. Participants were taken through an introduction to the Logical Framework Matrix with some demonstrations on the construction of the vertical logic of a project (project indicators, means of verification and risks and assumptions). Group exercises on the vertical and horizontal logic were carried out with some group presentations.

The next topic was on project budgeting highlighting the stages involved in drawing up a project budget and the importance of budgeting. The last topic was on the stages of organisational growth. The ended with workshop evaluations based on timing of the workshop, venue, food, learning from others, training materials, the trainer and exercises carried out.

8.2.4 Details of the training module

PCM (Project Cycle Management) is a planning methodology. PCM starts from the principle that 'projects' are short-term interventions designed to assist communities, organisations and groups to tackle and overcome specific problems. The method is therefore essentially geared to make optimal use the knowledge and insights of the future beneficiaries¹, of those who have a direct or indirect interest and of individuals who have particular knowledge of the issues at stake.

Projects differ in size, scope cost and time, but all have the following characteristics:

- A **start** and a **finish**
- A **life cycle** involving a series of phases in between the beginning and end
- A **budget**

¹ The word 'beneficiaries' in the text denote individuals, groups, communities and organisations for and with whom the 'project' or programme has been designed.

- A set of *activities* which are sequential, unique and non-repetitive
- Use of *resources* which may require coordinating
- Centralised *responsibilities* for management and implementation
- Defined *roles* and *relationships* for participants in the project

8.2.5 *Workshop on Project Management*

A workshop was organised for the San women who were members of the Art and Crafts Cooperative only Participants were given a handout as a supplement to the comprehensive Training Tool Kit for the training on Project Management.

Project management is the way in which projects are planned and carried out following a sequence of agreed strategy which leads to an idea for a specific action that is formulated, implemented, monitored and implemented with a view to reviewing the strategy and further action. This approach has the following advantages when applied well:-

- It assists those implementing a project to be *clear and realistic when coming up with objectives* for their project since they are able to draw clear distinction between the objectives and the means of achieving them. This ensures that the sustainability of the project is already thought through from the beginning.
- It ensures that the *quality of the project is enhanced* in all the various components of the project cycle and that the proposed initiatives are responding to the really felt needs and identified problems and that there is ownership of the project by the beneficiaries and the stakeholders.
- It helps to *choose appropriate technologies* for use in the proposed initiative especially locally renewable resources; indigenous knowledge and respecting the socio-cultural values of the people involved.
- It provides for *a consistent approach to planning and discipline* when considering what is required in implementing a project and serves as an important reminder of what needs to be checked during implementation to ensure that the aim of the project is not forgotten during implementation.

A series of workshops were held in October and November of 2010 for all the three levels 1 to 3: on Monitoring and Evaluation, Principles of small Business Management, Project Cycle management, and Customer Care. The workshop on Monitoring and Evaluation was held at D'kar Village, Gantsi, and 27th–28th October, 2010. (Ba Isago Training Report, October 2010.)

One of the workshops was run from 2nd to 4th November, 2010. The workshop was facilitated by a Project Management expert, who was also a national expert familiar with the local context on community mobilisation, community based income generation and project planning, design and implementation.

The course material used during the training was derived from *a Project Design-The Project Cycle Management Approach Toolkit* designed and developed by Community Development Resource Services (CDRS), South Research, Ba Isago

University College—Botswana. This is a very useful toolkit structured as a basic guide to designing projects according to the European Commission- EuropeAid Project Cycle Management Handbook. The facilitator localised the context to suit the context in terms of examples relating to the horticultural project currently running at D'kar. A supplementary handout prepared by the facilitator covered *Advantages of Project Management and Monitoring and Evaluation*.

The workshop was delivered using participatory methodologies linking the content to the practical work of the trainees. Lectures were linked to practical examples of the ongoing horticultural project taking place in the community. Structured learning exercises based on participants practical knowledge was chosen as a primary approach in view of the adult learning principles in view of the level of trainees participating. Additionally, demonstrations and group work were employed to involve the participants in addition to the brainstorming and buzz group and presentations that followed.

8.2.5.1 Objectives of Capacity Building

The Project Cycle Management course is designed to help participants acquire knowledge and skills on Project Cycle Management and the Logical Framework as planning and implementation tools. This training was to assist the community members appreciate the various areas involved in the development processes of initiatives being undertaken in their community.

The training started with defining what a project is, and the distinction and relationship between a project and a programme. This was applied to the existing projects know to the participants. Then a short presentation on Project characteristics was made to show that a project contains the following: a start and finish time, a life cycle, a budget, a set of activities that are interrelated, use of the resources mobilised, clear responsibilities and defined roles and relationships; the life cycle of a project highlighting the beginning to an end and all the steps that a project goes through for it to be viable and sustainable.

Participants were introduced to the various steps of the Logical Framework Approach covering the following steps:-

- Stakeholder Analysis
- Problem Analysis
- Objective Analysis
- Strategy Analysis
- Project Plan Matrix
- Activity Planning
- Budgeting
- Monitoring and Evaluation.

The course also helped participants to identify how to choose the most appropriate strategy; acquainting themselves with the Project Planning Matrix; reviewing the

role of indicators and means of verifications and how to prepare an Activity plan and a Budget.

The PPM contains four key elements of the Project:

- a. The Objectives of the Project
- b. The project Activities, Means and Costs
- c. The Assumptions made for the project
- d. The Indicators required to monitor the Project

8.3 Project Indicators and Means of Verification

Indicators are an important outcome characteristic of a project being planned or implemented.

Indicators are important monitoring mechanisms for assessing the progress of a plan. They allow for ongoing measurement with the Project Cycle. They are how the performance standard to be reached will be measured.

Indicators can be outputs (the tangible products produced from our activities) or impact indicators (measurements of change in situations or groups). Indicators do need to be **SMART**:

- *Specific*: they measure only the objective, purpose or result to which they are linked
- *Measurable*: they are based on factual measurement we can verify whether they have been achieved
- *Agreed upon* with beneficiaries and stakeholders involved in the project
- *Realistic & sensitive* it must be believable that they are measuring the change attributed to the project
- *Time bound & cost effective* indicating during which period a certain amount of outputs will be achieved and whether this can be verified (checked) at a reasonable cost by those who will manage the project.

Much of the emphasis placed in plans is on quantitative units of measure—the number of participants, the number of workshops etc. For development projects impact indicators are as important—changes in attitude and behaviour, changes in quality of life etc. Impact indicators are often difficult to describe.

8.3.1 *The Tie-and-Dye Project for San Women in D'kar Farm community*

In D'kar Farm San community, most households are headed by women. Women look after families with limited material support from the men, most of whom do not have formal employment. Many do not live with the families in the village. There was an urgent need to equip women with skills to start their own businesses

so they could support their children. They have traditionally relied on men for leadership in the home and in the community development projects. This is generally true for the San communities. But in this project it was felt they needed to develop their own leadership skills because they were the drivers of this project. The skills of leading, directing and supporting organizational goals were covered during the trainings. At the end of the trainings a number of changes were observed among the participants.

Ba Isago University College in partnership with the W. W. Kellogg Foundation decided to run a number of workshops for the San Art and Crafts Cooperative women who are struggling to build a business of making art and crafts for tourists visiting the area. Fifteen San women in D'kar Farm community run a cooperative making art, crafts and tie and dye products. This cooperative had been operating for ten years. The cooperative failed to take off because there was a lack of leadership and business management skills. They had a part time business manager. The members of the cooperative were not committed to the project. They came to work on the project when money was needed. They did not have anyone with managerial experiences. A number of donors from the Netherlands had injected some funds into the tie and dye project but because of lack of leadership and business management skills the project could not grow. The intervention of Ba Isago University, with the financial support of the Kellogg Foundation transformed the cooperative, giving it strong leadership and business management skills.

The women needed practical skills they could use to make quality products to sell and make money for their families. Kellogg Foundation and Ba Isago University College provided trainers, raw materials, and a training facility where women were given special training in making "tie-and-dye" goods, which many tourists like to buy and display in their homes. The training took place over two weeks. During that time they were busy making the goods. Tourists came and bought large quantities of materials. This was very encouraging for the women who were engaged in the project. Mrs. Brown, the trainer and project coordinator gave lectures and demonstrated how to make specific patterns and pictures with the objects used to block out the light. The method used for this training was based on learner involvement in all aspects. Learners were encouraged to solve problems themselves by assessing the facts e.g. hearing from an experienced craft distributor about the market values of their products and then to find solutions as to how to improve. Looking at the realities of their situation and find a way forward. Participants were told to gather the objects they wanted to use and plan the design on a piece of paper. When this was done outside space was cleared for each person to put her cloth in the sun. They then proceeded to apply the dye and arrange their objects according to the planned design on the cloths.

8.3.2 Workshop on Business leadership

The San Cooperative women needed to understand the meaning of business leadership so that they could change their approach to their cooperative and build a sustainable business. Business leadership is the management function of influencing people to act or not act in a certain way. It is the process of getting members of the project to work together in a fashion consistent with the goals of the project. Major components of leading include motivating employees, managing group dynamics and leadership per se. All of which are closely related to major areas of organizational behavior. The San people are not good at “leading” because everything must be done by consensus. When families decide on any activity or function, they must agree as a family, otherwise nothing happens. The trainings gave the participants a new perspective on this aspect of their life. Initially, it was difficult to convince them of a need for someone to provide leadership in their business undertaking. The tie-and-dye business demands communication with other businesses by the leader/s on behalf of the other members of the cooperative. The San people tend to be suspicious of each other and do not like business transacted on their behalf, even when it is to their benefit. They are wary being cheated or short changed in business dealings. So all decisions are referred to the group, which must agree or else the project is abandoned. After the trainings, this thinking changed. They chose a woman to be their leader and began to refer some decisions to their leader when they felt it was necessary to do so. The meetings were chaired by the leader and decisions from their meetings were carried out with the support of their leader. After the trainings, the leader was able to induce her colleagues to work project goals. Although initially the leader was not comfortable giving instructions to the other members of the project, she gradually accepted the responsibility for the achievement of the project objectives. Through the trainings, she began to play a major role in moving projects forward and in motivating other women by ensuring good communication between the cooperative members. We saw the leader giving direction when it came to matters of finances, when it involved sharing of profits at the end of the month when products had been sold and monies banked. Although the group decided how much each should get, the leader took the very important role in deciding on how to use the rest of the funds left in the project. We also witnessed the leader playing a large role in the implementation of the business plans including expansion of the business operations, purchasing of additional equipment and adoption of new marketing techniques.

8.3.3 Changing the Mindset of San People

Leadership trainings infused energy into the project, motivating its members to get things moving and keep them moving. Leadership was important in passing information to colleagues, explaining the mission, allocating tasks and giving instructions, consulting with staff and supervising their work; whatever was necessary to

raise production, discipline staff or handle conflicts. The mystery of how information is gathered and used in the San community is interesting. Traditionally, the San people do not share much in terms of "information". They believe that power lies in how much you know and how much others depend on you. They operate by and large on a "need to know" basis. So the more you know, the less you want to share that information. In the trainings, the facilitator spent some time on the importance of information w to all members of the cooperation and why it had to be shared. The trainings encouraged cooperative members to offer ideas on matters pertaining to their business operations. These included ideas on how to increase production, staff motivation, knowledge of their business and communication aimed at improving performance and increasing productivity.

8.3.4 Lessons for the Workshop

During the trainings, women learned how to work as a team. The workshop came up with ways and strategies seeking to ensure that individuals, board members and management engage in good governance practices seeking to avoid bribes, kick-backs, etc. Cooperative members were taught about organizational social responsibility: Workshop participants were taught that good governance practice respects corporate social responsibility. This is based on an understanding of the expectations that our communities have regarding the 'social contract' that their organization has with its community may include public reporting, and openness to complaints about services or tips regarding illegal actions of employees. The women learned to that providing a vehicle for suggestions advances more social responsibility. In the world of governance, our better-educated citizens are constantly raising their levels of expectations for its leaders. Rules, principles, and social responsibility guidelines can help ensure that managers, board members and/or political leaders, raise expectations, and build back faith in leadership. This is important both for the sustainability of our communities and the sustainability of our Trusts.

8.3.5 Final Improvements

The participants reviewed their discussions from the previous day and made decisions informed by the lessons. They also learned from one of the trainers, Mrs. Kohler a specialist in tie-and-dye that to improve the quality of their products, they should not draw animals in the light cloths because they did not finish well and that sewing ostrich eggshell beads, a symbol of their culture, onto some of the tie-and-dye cloths was an attractive idea. This improved their products and added extra interest in their cloth products they sell. Each participant finished six cloths over the three weeks. They selected two of their cloths to keep for themselves and sold the rest at the Kuru Art Centre. The women of D'kar Farm were fortunate to have undergone special training in tie-and-dye and game farming self-help commercial

projects because of the keen interest and passion they expressed in the community capacity building workshops sponsored by the Kellogg Foundation in partnership with BA ISAGO University College. These women are now able to look after their families, send their children to school and improve their diet. The Kuru Development Trust benefited immensely from this training, particularly in good governance and effective leadership. The spirit of natural resource conservation has taken a firm root in this community to the extent that once a month conservation meetings are held to discuss relevant issues in the field of natural resource conservation on the farm. The women in D'kar are now good leaders of their families and better managers of their financial resources.

8.3.6 Development of Self Recognition

Ba Isago University community engagement gave the San women in D'kar the power of self-recognition that energizes communities to seek to transform their reality to a better quality of life, to plan for it and to strategize for access to opportunities that would allow the achievement of an improved quality of life. What was needed at the local level was an “*I can do*” disposition. The women were able to develop their ability to collectively elaborate a vision for their future; and engage in dialogues and conversations with other stakeholders to find feasible and compatible answers to common challenges. The women in D'kar needed innovative programmes and activities, promoting new ways of doing business and empowering the poor so that they could take charge of their own affairs.

8.3.7 The Future of the Art and Crafts Project

After intensive discussions at the end of the community engagement programme, a forum was created for the San cooperative women to map the way forward. They wanted to be involved in the projects on a larger scale as a cooperative. They decided to seek external funding for their project. Participants felt that a specialist fund raising manager was needed to lead the fundraising for their project. They wanted to hire a trained manager for the tie-and-dye project. There was urgent need to source materials on a large scale to cut costs. They wanted more working space, since they were now working in the art studios and some artists were a bit upset about their intrusion. They identified a market, strategically located to attract tourists and somebody to sell the products. They want to set up a bank account and work hard to satisfy their customers. They wanted to work towards a sustainable project and to diversify production to include curtains, table cloths, bags, dresses, quilts, cushion covers, and sofa covers. They will employ someone to sew articles from the cloths. For marketing, they tasked the art project manager to market their cloths to local hotels, Government departments, craft shops and places that attract tourists. Their marketing strategy includes a website to advertise their work on the internet. Some

participants felt they want to portray their culture in the cloths much as the Kuru artists are doing in their paintings.

For BA ISAGO University, Kellogg Foundation and the D'kar San Tribe, the Community Engagement was a major success. The San women were empowered to change their own lives. The women became leaders in their own community. They learned to express their own views and contribute to the welfare of their families and the community at large. However, Ba Isago University became more aware after this experience that community development and community engagement must be viewed as a multi-sectoral approach for long term sustainability. Government of Botswana is cognizant of this fact and is involving all key community development departments, which including civil society organizations and educational institutions like Ba Isago University. By the same token, the process calls for a multi-faceted approach to learning, the formal classroom being one of them. The fact that the most of the key participants in the rural areas have had no exposure to higher education, and many dropped out of elementary school, meaning that they need other forms of communication in order to teach them effectively. This included translation of community engagement learning materials or the use of pictures to express ideas. The challenges faced by Ba Isago university staff were many. Working with a community situated seven hundred kilometers from Gaborone, where Ba Isago is based was a challenge in terms of effective communication with field staff, providing logistical support, transporting materials and consultants for the project, effecting timely payments to vendors, and making important decisions on the project operations. With funds being released by Kellogg Foundation annually, sometimes the project experienced operational difficulties due to gaps in the disbursement of funds. However, in the end, this was a great, learning experience for Ba Isago University and the San people of D'kar, whose lives were transformed for the better. The project owes its success in part to the funding from the Kellogg Foundation, USA (Ba-Isago Univeristy/Kellogg Foundation, 2008).

References

Ba Isago University Annual Report on the Kellogg Foundation. (2008). Traditional and Youth Leadership Capacity Building Programme, D'Kar Community, Ghanzi District, Botswana.

Further Reading

- Bridges, W. (1991). *Managing transitions, making the most of change*. Addison-Wesley Publishing Group.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. Harper Torchbooks, Harper & Row.
- Burns, H. M. (2002). *Transforming leadership: A New pursuit of happiness*. Atlantic Monthly Press.
- Covey, S. R. (1992). *Principle centered leadership*. Simon and Schuster.

- Fadel, N., & Magome, K. Guideline for Building the self-drive-mindset and community visioning as imperatives for sustainable development of rural communities: The W.K. Kellogg Approach.
- Frame, J. D. (2003). *Managing projects in organizations: How to make the best use of time, techniques, and people* (3rd ed). Jossey-Bass.
- International Development Research Council (IDRC). (2002). A training Guide on Outcome mapping.
- Kerzner, H. (2009). *Project management: Project management: A systems approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling* (10th ed). Wiley.
- Larson, E., & Richard. (2009). *Requirements management, part 1: Requirements planning*. Watermark Learning, Inc.
- Lewis, J. (2006). *The project manager's desk reference* (3rd ed). McGraw-Hill.
- Meredith, R. J., & Mantel, Jr. S. J. (2008). *Project management: A managerial approach* (7th ed). Wiley.
- Paula, M., & Karen, T. (1997). *The project management memory jogger: A pocket guide for project teams*. GOAL/QPC.
- Project Management Institute. (2013). *A guide to the project management body of knowledge: (PMBOK® Guide)* (5th ed). PMI.
- Schwalbe, K. (2009). *Information Technology project management (with Microsoft® Project 2007 CD-ROM)* (6th ed). Course Technology.
- Stackpole, C. S. (2009). *A project manager's book of forms: A companion to the PMBOK® Guide*. Wiley.
- Warner, M., & Sullivan, R. (Eds.). (2004). Putting partnerships to work, strategic alliances for development between government, the private sector and civil society. Green-Leaf Publishing. <http://www.greenleaf-publishing.com>.
- Weiss, J., & Wysocki, R. (1992). *Five-phase project management: A practical planning and implementation guide*. Basic Books.
- W. K. Kellogg Foundation. (2004). Southern Africa Programming Update, April 2004.
- W. K. Kellogg Foundation. (2005). Southern Africa Program Update, May 2005.
- West Africa Rural Foundation. (2004).

Chapter 9

Reducing Poverty by Inventive Entrepreneurship Skills

Morgen Chawawa

9.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to build on to the contents of chapter four, through a call for poverty reduction through inventive entrepreneurship training programme. As part of the business of creating an entrepreneurship mind articulated earlier in Chap. 4, Ba Isago University and Kellogg foundation embarked on a three year training programme to equip the target community with inventive entrepreneurship skills training and products derived from skills learned. This chapter is informed by theoretical meanings of invention as innovation for an entrepreneurship mindset, and reports on the practical training workshops to teach the skills of starch batik, fabric paint and tie and dye that were held for the beneficiaries of the Kellogg Foundation Project at Kuru D'Kar Trust in D'Kar. The training workshops ran from time the project started in 2009, to Tuesday the 7th to Thursday the 9th of February 2012. The Kellogg Foundation Project for D'Kar Development Trust facilitated by BA ISAGO University College ran training programs to capacity-build the underprivileged San in D'Kar village from 2009 to 2012. The main objectives of the training workshops were to alleviate poverty and enhance self-sufficiency in the target groups.

Let us begin with the concepts of invention, innovation and entrepreneurship.

9.2 Invention, Innovation and Entrepreneurship

Invention, innovation, and entrepreneurship are words frequently thrown around by politicians, theorists, and entrepreneurs alike to generally describe the act of bringing a product or idea into the world. While easy to confuse, each concept is distinct

M. Chawawa (✉)
Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

and requires specific skills. When it's time to choose the right people for a business startup, these distinctions are critical.

9.2.1 *Invention*

Let's start with **invention**. *Invention is an intellectual exercise in connecting the dots*. It's the eureka moment when entrepreneurs connect multiple problem statements with existing solutions from other spaces, parallel or unrelated, and come up with a new combination of thought that solves the problem statement that has been discovered. It is a mental event. Often the moment of invention is very clearly defined.

A perfect example is someone who creates a workable idea. An *inventor* is the person who synthesizes the problem statement and solutions into a novel solution that solves some unique problem. This definition of an invention is completely indifferent to what you do with the invention afterwards; you can be an inventor and not have done anything at all other than the mental exercise. This type is common at universities, but innovators exist in university and community environments as well. Inventive thinking forms the foundation to entrepreneurial endeavors. An invention can also develop over a period of time when one is working on something and they slowly realize the little pieces that make the system work better. In the aggregate, one who is an inventor actually changed some essential component of the system and has an invention one can file a patent on.

9.2.2 *Innovation*

Innovation is an ongoing process of getting an invention to a point where it has an application value of some kind. That doesn't happen automatically, because technology is only useful if somebody uses it. Unlike knowledge, technology doesn't have any intrinsic value. If one discovers that some distant object in the sky is a planet, that knowledge has some abstract value for humanity. If the world can find a vaccine that actually cures HIV/AIDS, cancer and other chronic illnesses, that cure doesn't teach anything new about biology, or the human body, and is just a particular mix of stuff that works, then it has no value until it actually cures somebody's chronic AIDS or cancer. All human beings need innovators, because technology needs to be used for it to be of any value.

The boundaries around the innovation process are sloppy, but roughly include all the steps between invention and pre-commercialization, or possibly commercialization. This is the period when you start thinking not just about your idea, but what you need to do to make it work in practical terms. You experiment, you fiddle around, you find out that it doesn't work on current computers, and you adjust it in some way to make it practically realizable. In the act of innovation, you might also

invent new things. But equally important, you are going to generate a lot of practical know-how. This is where the bulk of value in a technology startup is created. This know-how is often hard to characterize, because it is the embedded knowledge in the heads of your people, but it is of enormous value to any acquirer.

Startups are sometimes the point of invention, but more often than not they are created after the invention to act as innovation engines.

9.2.3 Entrepreneurship

The concept of **entrepreneurship** is separate from this. Entrepreneurship is about driving innovation in a constrained environment (e.g. limited money or time). Often this happens in a startup, but it's perfectly possible to be an entrepreneur inside a large corporation if the constraints are in place. An entrepreneur's job is not just to bring the technology to market, or to the commercialization stage; *the job of the entrepreneur is to create and maintain the environment that allows innovation to occur* (people, money, goals, etc.). Unlike single person corporations or partnerships that do not have an inherent constraint, opportunity, or even desire to scale (doctors, lawyers, consultants, and other freelancers), entrepreneurs engage in an aggressive pursuit of scale under conditions of risk.

When we look at these definitions together, we learn something critical about the people needed for technology transfer. First, you do not need an inventor as the CTO in your startup. This is a mistake I see a lot of startups make. You need access to the inventor to get clarity on their thoughts, but that can take the form of a consultancy on an as-needed basis. What you really need is an *innovator* in your startup's technical leadership role. This is someone who has enough understanding of the technology and commercialization process to drive the technology from invention to commercial application. If the inventor does not have the skills or know-how to be an innovator, your startup company will die (this is in my experience the number 1 reason for failure in startups led by university professors).

On top of this there is a need an entrepreneur who can create the environment in which the inventor can thrive (people, dollars, money, and infrastructure). And while your innovator and entrepreneur might be one and the same person, it is important to keep in mind that both roles need to be filled.

An entrepreneur can be someone who "owns a business, someone who started a lot of companies, and someone who has possession of an expertise, or venture, and assumes significant accountability for the inherent risks and the outcomes....A person who undertakes to organize, operates, manage and assume the risk of a business venture is called an entrepreneur." (Wikipedia.).

"An inventor is a person who creates, or discovers a radically new method, form, device or other useful means that does not exist before...."

Below is a contrast table on the entrepreneurs and the inventor.

Entrepreneurs	Inventors
12. Focus on financial return	
Entrepreneurs focus a lot on the ultimate financial return as it is the driving force	Inventors often make a small fortune out of a big one, as they focus on discovering breakthroughs without regard for their ultimate financial return
13. Control	
The control experienced by the entrepreneur is unparalleled if he himself is the inventor	He can make changes as and when thinks fit. If the inventor is not entrepreneur himself, he has to surrender a lot of control by licensing it to some entrepreneurial firm
14. Dependence on research	
They rely more on extensive amount of research they conduct rather than intuition	They rely more heavily on “gut” feelings or intuition than on past experience
15. Locus of Control	
According to researchers, mostly introverts come out to be good entrepreneurs	Extroversion is one of the strongest personality traits of inventors
16. Life goal	
An entrepreneur’s life goal is to a substantial business	An inventor’s life goal is to create something new
17. Preferred work mode	
Most of the entrepreneurs are group oriented. They like to work in teams to make their idea a practical success	An inventor prefers to work individually
18. Role of research	
Research is a necessary evil for the entrepreneur	For an inventor research is an enjoyable avocation
19. Recognition	
Usually entrepreneurs gain team recognition	Inventors enjoy personal recognition
20. Financial goal	
Their financial goal is to fund future retirements	Their financial goal is to fund future inventions
21. Core competency	
Incremental improvements’ is the core competency of an entrepreneur	Discontinuous inventions’ is the core competency of an inventor
22. Preference	
They work to solve customers’ problems	Their preference is to solve complex problems
23. Dogmatism	
Dogmatism level is Low among entrepreneurs	High level of dogmatism is seen in inventors
24. Social skills	
Entrepreneurs possess moderate to extensive social skills	Social skills of an inventor are limited

Source: Adapted from Ralph Hamann, Stu Woolman and Courtenay Sprague (Eds.,) (u.d....) The Business of Sustainable Development in Africa: Human Rights, Partnerships, Alternative Business Models

By looking at the differences of entrepreneur and inventor, it is clear that the two terms are not synonyms at all. An inventor develops a new product or service which does not exist before and may or may not bring it to the market whereas an entrepreneur takes the risk to bring a product to market with the hope of making a profit. It is not necessary for an inventor to be an entrepreneur. Similarly an entrepreneur may or may not be an inventor. The list of fortunate people who are successful in both roles is very short.

A Fabric paint project existed in D'Kar for the past 10 years under Kuru D'Kar Trust. When research for this workshops was done there were only two women left in the project. It was a dwindling project and needed revision, new skills and capacity.

This chapter, informed by the training report and onsite activities of the training programme, covers the first in three workshops to train the target group (underprivileged San in D'Kar) in the practical skills of starch batik, fabric painting and tie and dye.

The first three workshops were conducted to train the target group (underprivileged San in D'Kar) in the practical skills of starch batik, fabric painting and tie and dye. This first workshop was to teach starch batik and fabric painting. The workshop stretched over three days:

All facilities were in place in Ghanzi where training workshops took place. The two bedrooms in the coordinators' house still needed linen, blankets, and bed covers, at the time of the training in February 2012. The old bed linen and curtains were worn out. The total cost of the bedding was estimated to cost about P3,000. There was need for air conditioners for the bedroom because it is extremely hot at night. There was also need a part time cleaner for the office. The training venue had a landline functioning both for fax and telephone, indicating that there were changes taking place. Training workshop contents of proceedings included presentations by experts, and workshop evaluation.

It was expected from the D'Kar training that the trainees would have characteristics of both to rid themselves of poverty. The training therefore covered materials relevant to both the entrepreneur and the inventors. The Invention Experience is a guided tour through the process of invention and entrepreneurship. In our hands-on, museum-based events, students are able to test their own skills at creating inventions that solve a wide array of challenging problems. For the D'Kar training programme, each event followed the **Invention Challenge** process, which has been designed with students, teachers, and museum professionals and is built upon the successful Startup Experience workshops. The Invention Challenge is a 5 step process guiding students through the stages of creating their own invention. By the end of each event, learners were expected to have developed a prototype for their very own solution to one of the challenges posed during their lives in D'Kar.

But the Invention Experience doesn't end after participating in an event. Trainers through Ba Isago were committed to creating a **long-term learning environment** and helping students pursue their own entrepreneurial talents and starting up their businesses for long term poverty eradication.

9.3 Training on Entrepreneurship skills

9.3.1 Workshop Methodology

Since this workshop involved the learning of a practical skill, participants had to take part and learn by practically doing what is needed to produce a cloth. This involved:

- Drawing a design
- Starch paste mixing and applying
- Paint mixing
- Paste removing and heat fixing
- overlapping of colours
- Paint applying techniques.

9.3.2 Presentation 1: Design

Having gone through the design with participants, the consultant started the training with an explanation of how starch batik work through blocking out the paint with a starch paste (bread flour). Each participant received a piece of white calico and was told to draw some designs on it, keeping in mind the technique explained. Samples of possible designs were highlighted from the art of the Kuru artists that were hanging on the walls of the studio. Each participant did a design in chalk on their cloths.

9.3.3 Presentation 2: Starch Mixing and Applying

Mrs. Brown and Selina Morris, one of the remaining participants of the existing Fabric Paint project, showed and explained the mixing of the starch paste to the correct consistency. Each participant got the chance to help mix and feel the consistency of the paste. They were showed how it is applied to the cloths by using cake decorating tubes or tomato sauce bottles with a thin tube through which the paste is pursed.

Each participant filled a bottle with paste and the applied it to the outlines of their designs.



Applying the starch paste to the first cloths

9.3.4 Presentation 3: Mixing Pigments and Emulsion to Make Paint

Mrs. Brown explained the role of pigments and emulsion in the paints. With the help of Selina Morris and Tix'ae, from the existing fabric paint project, each participant got a chance to help mix a colour. The participants were then shown how to apply the colour to the cloths once the paste lines were dry. The cloths were painted in different colours and left to dry.



Applying the first colour to the cloths



More colours are added

9.4 DAY 2: Presentations

9.4.1 *Presentation 4: Removing of Paste and Heat Fixing of Paint*

The participants were shown how to remove the flour paste from their cloths to leave white lines where it was. They were taught to iron the cloths to make sure that the paint is fixed and would not wash out. Then they had to wash out all remains of the flour paste and iron the cloth again for it to be ready for presentation.



Removing the starch paste from the first cloths

9.4.2 Presentation 5: Overlapping Colours and Other Paint Techniques.

Each participant were given another cloth and asked to do another design and to apply the paste to the outlines. They were shown how to use different techniques to apply the paste such as painting it on with a brush or “combing” it with cardboard that is cut out like a comb. When dry, they painted the first colour to their cloths.

While the paste dried the trainer explained that only two colours will be used on this cloth. Each participant had to choose two colours. They were then showed how to make a sample cloth where they will test the colours. Each participant made a square on the cloth with the first colour chosen. The trainer further showed them how to scratch patterns in the wet paint with the end of a brush or do imprints of different objects in the wet paint. They then had to apply the second colour chosen over the first to see the result. Again they could scratch patterns and imprints into the second colour. If not satisfied with the colour they have chosen, they could try another colour. In this way participants learned firsthand the results of different colours over each other.

The participants then applied a second layer of paste in all areas where they wanted the first colour to stay as it is. It was left to dry till the next day.



Making the sample cloth

9.5 DAY 3: Presentations

- a. The facilitator spent time with each participant to discuss their designs and encourage them to try different techniques.
- b. The second layer of paint was applied to the cloths and extra patterns scratched/printed into it. When dried the paste lines were removed, the cloth ironed and washed and ironed again.
- c. Cloths were placed alongside each other and participants had to highlight the differences between the two and how the technique could develop.
- d. Participants who had finished process (c) started working on one large cloth in the subsequent workshop.

9.6 Results of the Training Workshop

The training ran for the planned duration of three (3) days with eleven participants. The training topics were all covered as scheduled: Starch batik and fabric paint introduction, design drawing, starch paste mixing and applying, paint mixing, paste removing and heat fixing, overlapping of colours and paint techniques. Each participant finished two cloths in the two different techniques taught.

9.6.1 Results of Workshop- Evaluations

Generally all participants were very happy with the training as judged from the feedback from participants at the end of the workshop. All participants finished two cloths. They were all very proud of what they achieved.

Most participants arrived at eight in the morning eager to continue and were willing to continue after five.

9.6.2 Evaluation Comments

In addition to the above, a few participants gave further comments and were captured as follows:

- “I did not know I can do it and am happy to see what I have done”.
- “The workshop was well presented and they understood all aspects of it”.
- “We have learned a lot”.
- “The space was small”.



The first cloths were finished

9.7 Workshop TWO

All the training workshops were conducted through practical work, which allowed most participants to take part in the group activities. The trainer demonstrated mastery of her subject because she is the Coordinator of Art and Crafts Department of KURU, and had extensive contacts with business in this industry. The sessions were lively because the San in D'kar have a keen interest in this industry and have been part of the tourism opportunities in Botswana through their crafts and traditional dances, which draw large crowds of tourists during the KURU festival.

9.7.1 Training Materials

The consultant produced the module supporting her training materials and this was being given to the participants for future use in their businesses. A copy of the module was attached for all participants. He also used flip charts extensively during his presentation.

9.7.2 Stationery

All the stationery necessary for the workshop was available. For photocopying of training materials used by trainers, I have made arrangements with D'kar Trust to use their photocopier and then send the invoice to project secretary at the end of the month. D'Kar Trust Starch Batik and Fabric painting workshop: 07th, 08th 09th February 2012 included mainly women—12 in all. At the end of the training, the participants evaluated the timing of the workshop, venue, food and refreshments, learning from fellow participants, training materials and handouts, trainer, exercises and training methods.

A second phase of training took place on Small Business Management as part of the D'kar Capacity Building project. This took place on Wednesday 11rd to Friday 13th August 2010. The course material used for this training was borrowed from the already made manual used by Boston Business College, a Business unit of BA ISAGO University College. Also included in the training workshop were; Structured Learning Exercises, Simulations, Group Discussions, Class Discussions and Lectures. Having started on the entrepreneurial skill, this module therefore takes learners to another level of managing businesses. This is with the assumption that the Business Ideas raised during the previous week's workshop would be adopted and taken of the ground. How do they go about running these Businesses?

The opening was graced with motivational talks and happiness about the improved attendance. The training covered preparation of business ideas, marketing, purchasing and costing, and book keeping.

In addition to entrepreneurship skills of inventing products, participants were also taught how to market their products, and manage the markets. Marketing was defined as a human activity to satisfy need and wants.

In other words Marketing is what entrepreneurs do to attract and maintain customers to their business. It involves identifying customers' needs and trying to satisfy them. The big tasks of marketing officers and agents are; Finding and Persuading Customer to buy

Creating continuous interest of customer in products; and all activities done to identify customer needs and make strategies to satisfy them. Effective marketing is not all about describing the product BUT is to do with identifying the right perceptions and aspirations of the customers then try to address them with supply of your product.

In order to fully understand what marketing is, there is a need to identify and explain key words in the definitions of Marketing and relate them to the BUSINESS we want to do:

9.7.3 Key Aspects of Marketing

Effective marketing is achieved by the following *Ps* of Marketing:

9.7.4 Product

This is the good (tangible) or service (intangible) products produced by a business for sale to the public. Good Products must be of the right Place, Price, People and Processes.

9.7.5 Place

This is the area where you operate or where you are selling your products or ways in which your customers will get your products including communication and transport networks.

List the PLACE where and how you will provide and meet your customers:

Characteristics of a good place:

- Clean/Neat
- Accessible
- Nearer to customers
- Safe
- Highly Acceptable.

9.7.6 Price

This is the amount of money your customers will pay for your products. All businesses sell at a profit hence your price must include reasonable profit:

$$COST + PROFIT = SELLING PRICE$$

Good Price Must:

- Take into account all costs
- Put in reasonable profit affordable by most customers
- Attractive to customers

Estimate your costs and your profit in order to come up with the price you will charge customers:

9.7.7 People

These are the workers and other stakeholder in the business who will meet and service the customers. These people must be at their best in terms of:

- Appealing Dressing
- Welcoming Speech
- Caring for customers
- Helping Customers
- Providing Friendly atmosphere

List the people who will serve customers in your business and show how they will present themselves:

9.7.8 Processes

These are a combination of policies and procedures, as well as production systems and approval stages in service delivery.

They also include the Packaging of the products and services.

This may include the following:

- Arrangement of the shop
- Machinery and speed of service
- Selling process e.g. filling in of forms
- User friendly guides to service delivery
- After sale support e.g. packaging

List PROCESSES you will follow in your business:

9.8 Conclusions

The workshop was a success and succeeded to achieve its invention objectives. The participants' level of participation and comprehension was good. The cloths they had finished showed that they understood the techniques that were taught and were able to apply them. As entrepreneurs they managed to invent a cloth that was not there before. It can be concluded that the training in D'Kar gave the learners an opportunity not only to invent but to develop into good entrepreneurs for poverty eradication.

9.9 Recommendations

Based on the training sessions, the consultant recommended that:

- (i) Participants should be assisted to form a project, to manage it and to market the products they produce. Since most of the participants were illiterate it would be good if they could use the practical skills they have learnt here in a group rather than to try to start individual projects, where they will need a lot of management skills.
- (ii) They should also be assisted to produce by products from the cloths they produce. Examples include tablecloths, curtains, place mats, bedspreads, bags, clothes etc.
- (iii) Participants must ensure that they use all assistance available to them to build sound business plans. They could visit offices such as LEA, Department of Youth and Culture, and CEDA for assistance in writing sound business plans.
- (iv) Participants must make out clear personal objectives which they would wish to achieve from this workshop. Thus they ought to make maximum use of the training and other opportunities they had to move forward.

Further Reading

- Allen, K. (1995). *Launching new ventures: An entrepreneurial approach*. upstart (a revised edition exists—I don't have it yet).
- Applegate, J. (1992). *Succeeding in small business: The 101 toughest problems and how to solve them*. Plume/Penguin.
- Bangs, Jr. D. H. (1992a). *The start up guide: A one-year plan for entrepreneurs*, upstart.
- Bangs, Jr. D. H. (1992b) *The business planning guide: Creating a plan for success in your own business* (6th ed), Upstart. (comes with a CD-ROM)(later editions probably exist).
- Baty, G. B. (1990). *Entrepreneurship for the nineties*. Prentice-Hall.
- BelAir, R. (1988). *How to borrow money from a banker: A business owner's guide*. AMACOM.
- Bergman, T. P. (2002). *The essential guide to web strategy for entrepreneurs*. Prentice Hall PTR. (comes with 2 CD-ROMs).
- Bhidé, A. V. (2000). *The origin and evolution of new businesses*. Oxford U. Press.
- Blechman, B., & Levinson, J. C. (1991). *Guerrilla financing: Alternative techniques to finance any small business*. Houghton Mifflin.

- Gerber, M. E. (1998). *The E-Myth manager: Why management doesn't work—and what to do about it*. HarperBusiness.
- Gladstone, D. (1988). *Venture capital handbook* (New and revised edition). Prentice-Hall.
- Gumpert, D. E. (1990). *How to create a successful business plan*. Inc. Publishing.
- Hall, C. (2001). *The responsible entrepreneur: How to make money and make a difference*. Career Press.
- Ralph, H., Woolman, S., & Sprague, C. (Eds.). (u.d). *The business of sustainable development in Africa: Human rights, partnerships, alternative business models*. [www.http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki). Accessed 20th Aug 2012.

Chapter 10

The Kellogg Foundation Guidelines on Community Development

Fadel Ndiame, Kgobati Magome, Wapula N. Raditloaneng and Morgen Chawawa

10.1 Introduction

BA ISAGO University College in partnership with Kellogg Foundation initiated a Community Based Planning Programme that was based on the ZOOMING PROCESS in the DKAR Community and its surrounding resettlements areas, which are occupied by the minority San Tribe. The Zooming Process is a participatory and interactive engagement approach to local development, developed and refined by the WKKF's Africa Programme on the basis of lessons and experience from its work in the region. It is based on the assumption that development is essentially about building the capacity of communities to make their own economic, social and spiritual decisions. The process is targeted at selected sites and communities, where careful experimentations of change processes can be undertaken and documented, in order to generate new insights and knowledge that can be shared with other sites and communities across the sub-region.

The aim of the approach is to help build local capacity for self drive—particularly in youth, women and families. The capacity to self-drive is developed through supporting rural communities to learn to self-start, self-assess, and self-correct. The approach further aims to build the leadership systems and the capabilities needed to provide local people with a favourable environment, as well as the confidence and resources to lead their own social and economic transformation.

W. N. Raditloaneng (✉) · F. Ndiame · K. Magome
Faculty of Education, Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana,
Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: Raditloa@mopipi.ub.bw

M. Chawawa
Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

The chapter is structured in 3 main parts:

- First, the history of the program in Southern Africa and the lessons learnt;
- Second, the rationale, objectives and the implementation the second phase- the *zooming* process; and
- Third, a brief summary of the framework and tools used to make zooming operational. Some operational guidelines are presented on the basis of the authors' prior experience with similar processes. The processes also involved interacting with participants who workshopped to learn about the Zooming Approach to entrepreneurship.

10.2 Background on the W.K. Kellogg Africa Program

The Kellogg Foundation Guidelines on community development are based on the assumption that development is essentially about building the capacity of communities to make their own economic, social and spiritual decisions. This chapter further provides the BA ISAGO University College and the Kellogg Foundation partnership and guidelines and how these were applied to the ITMUA case study project since 2009 when Kellogg started working with the community. Community development poses challenges of understanding the demographic characteristics of the poor and making an input to the betterment of their lives.

The process is targeted at selected sites and communities, where careful experimentations of change processes can be undertaken and documented, in order to generate new insights and knowledge that can be shared with other sites and communities across the sub-region. The aim of the approach is to help build local capacity for self-drive—particularly in youth, women and families. The capacity to self-drive is developed through supporting rural communities to learn to self-start, self-assess, and self-correct. The approach further aims to build the leadership systems and the capabilities needed to provide local people with a favourable environment, as well as the confidence and resources to lead their own social and economic transformation. The emphasis is thus on local communities' ability to initiate, implement and assess programs and initiatives that serve their own needs and thereby reinforce their self-drive mindset.

In practice, the third mission of universities—community service for development—provided the space to address such challenges of developing the D'kar community in a way that refocussed its research and teaching missions to transform and revitalize the relationship between higher education and national development needs through the BA ISAGO University College and Kellogg Foundation.

The initial training sessions focussed on creating an entrepreneurship mindset.

10.2.1 Historical Evolution and Lessons Learnt

The purpose of the WKKF's Africa program is to support the social and economic transformation of Southern Africa and reverse the cycle of rural poverty. The programme aims to build healthy, viable and sustainable rural communities and makes investments in civic engagement, economic opportunities, skills and leadership development, as well as health and well-being for families, women, and youth- towards achieving this aim.

The African Programme began comprehensive grant-making in 1998, in the Southern African countries of Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland, and Zimbabwe. In the first phase of programming (1998–2003/2004), the Foundation pursued its program goal through the implementation of three strategic initiatives:

- Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP)
- Initiative for Development and Equity in African Agriculture (IDEAA)
- Leadership Regional Network (LeaRN)

During this first phase, the WKKF program team decided to select *target* areas and focus the programmes' investments in these areas. The team defined a target area as a focused geographically-specific area, which offered an opportunity to address rural poverty through the integrated rural development investments outlined above. The implementation design emphasized regional level structures, with the above three initiatives coordinated regionally through the Universities of Pretoria and Zimbabwe, but implemented locally, in selected target areas.

10.2.2 Lessons Learnt from the First Phase

The implementation of the first phase of the programme yielded some lessons and insights, which led to the evolution of the next phase of the programme. Practical experience and feedback obtained from the assessment of the three initiatives, indicated that the *target area* defined by the WKKF programme team, was too large to produce the community transformation required- even with concerted and concentrated effort. The program team came to a realization that in order to facilitate the transformation process within the target areas, focused attention and intense activity had to be ignited within these areas.

Another major lesson from the first phase was the need for greater focus on the community, and stronger integration of the three strategies in pursuit of the development of a self-drive mindset at community level.

These lessons led the Foundation to evolve its programme into a new phase- one that invests in building a self-drive mindset through community visioning, planning and implementation of community-initiated development agendas. This second phase, titled the *zooming* phase- has consolidated the three initiatives into an

integrated systems change model that emphasizes the bottom-up community participation approach established in the first phase. The initiatives have been consolidated into one program with four impact strategies- civic engagement; economic opportunities; skills and leadership development; and health and well-being. This consolidation sharpens the primacy of the community and national levels in the WKKF programme, and enables sustainability through local and national institutionalization.

The *zooming phase* happens in a *zoom site*- defined as a geographically-specific, small area in which communities are fully engaged in comprehensive and intensive visioning, planning, strategy development, implementation, assessment and learning activities.

10.3 Building the Self Drive Mindset of Communities— the Zooming Approach

10.3.1 Defining the Approach

The zooming process is a participatory and interactive engagement approach to local development, developed and refined by the WKKF's Africa Programme on the basis of lessons and experience from its work in the region. It is based on the assumption that development is essentially about building the capacity of communities to make their own economic, social and spiritual decisions. The process is targeted at selected sites and communities, where careful experimentations of change processes can be undertaken and documented, in order to generate new insights and knowledge that can be shared with other sites and communities across the sub-region.

The aim of the approach is to help build local capacity for self drive—particularly in youth, women and families. The capacity to self-drive is developed through supporting rural communities to learn to self-start, self-assess, and self-correct. The approach further aims to build the leadership systems and the capabilities needed to provide local people with a favourable environment, as well as the confidence and resources to lead their own social and economic transformation. The emphasis is thus on local communities' ability to initiate, implement and assess programs and initiatives that serve their own needs and thereby reinforce their self-drive mindset.

10.3.2 The Development of a Self-Drive Mindset

The WKKF operates on the hypothesis that self-drive develops as communities acquire the following capacities:

- **Capacity to analyze one's own situation.** The WKKF's prior experience on the ground emphasized that ability to investigate truth for one's self is critical to

development. In the context of a community, collective investigation of truth and group decision-making requires capacity to consult and draw on the strength of the group to foster unity of purpose and action.

- **Capacity to articulate the changes one wants to make.** Too often the poor and marginalized are unable to express their own needs and desires to outsiders as well as to themselves. Developing the capacity for articulation of intended changes enhances both the understanding and implementation of the community vision.
- **Capacity to create alliances with other development partners:** To a large extent, the economic and social underdevelopment experienced by poor communities is the consequence of inability to initiate and sustain mutually supporting and reinforcing dynamics of collaboration and partnerships among the different actors and institutions operating in a given area. It is also the consequence of dysfunctional and unbalanced articulations between the local, district, provincial and national levels. It is therefore critical for communities to develop capacities to create alliances with a whole spectrum of development partners- including development agencies; community based organizations, other development agencies, the private sector and government (Warner and Sullivan 2004).
- **Capacity to act:** Without the capacity to translate goals into actions, many development efforts flounder. The WKKF approach contributes to the development of this capacity within communities; through the participatory engagement of communities in program implementation. This capacity to act is the engine that ensures that change will begin.
- **Capacity to assess and self-correct:** The capacity to assess and self-correct is as vital to the success of the community programme as all of the other capacities stated above. This capacity enables communities to adapt to the exigencies of the time. It further enables the establishment of a learning system to ensure that the community takes time to reflect and learn from its mistakes, rather than repeating them with no changed or new results.

In order to assist communities to develop a self-drive mindset through the development of the above capacities, the WKKF supports a facilitation process led by traditional leaders, along with local support organizations and the community itself.

10.3.3 How the Process Unfolds

The process takes place in a favourable setting, in which it is possible to facilitate a social mobilization process that can lead to collective action. At least three elements are considered by teams planning to zoom:

- Firstly, each team decides at **which administrative scale** the zooming exercise would take place. This administrative scale needs to be significant enough in terms of **engagements and interface opportunities** between **several types of actors** (farmers, traders, local authorities and institutions, representatives of central authorities, NGOs, churches).

- Second, relevant information and knowledge on the area and its institutional setting is obtained. The information is necessary to allow for rapid identification and involvement of all the relevant actors in the zooming process. In this respect, priority is given to localities which have already demonstrated some tangible evidence of organizational dynamism and openness- mainly through the successful initiation of collective action and the inclusion of women and youth.
- Third, the team explains the objectives of the process of zooming to the local and national leadership, and secures their understanding and agreement. The explanation grounds zooming as an explicit strategy for reaching out to the most needy and empowering them.

10.3.4 The Different Phases of Zooming

The entire process is schematically represented in Fig. 10.1 below, and involves five main steps designed to generate specific outputs which contribute to the building of a community’s self-drive mind-set. The main steps are: Entry or the “Community Consultations and Appreciative Inquiry”¹; Covenanting and Dedication; Community Mapping; Implementation; and Learning.

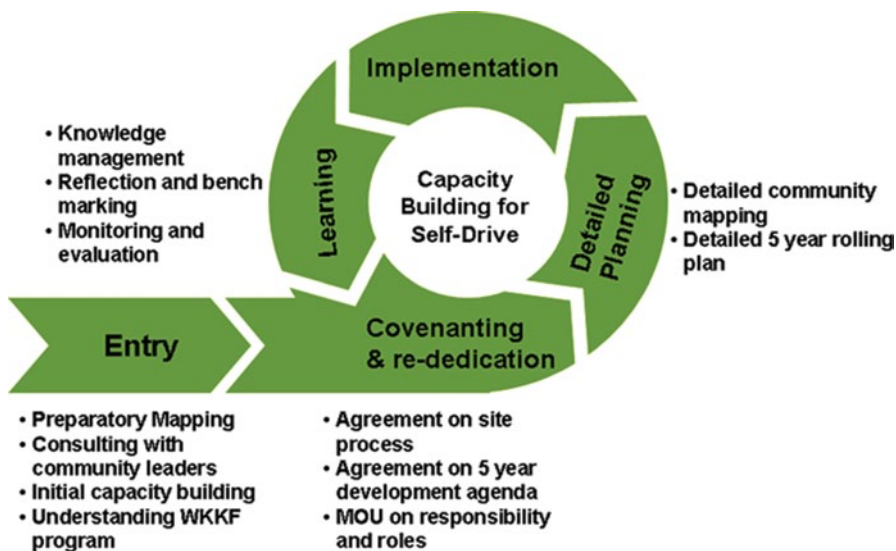


Fig. 10.1 Zoom site process model

¹ Following a discussion with the Kellogg Staff, it was suggested that the Entry phase be re-named “Community Consultations and Appreciative Inquiry” phase.

The expected result of this process is to contribute to the community empowerment agenda by achieving at least four main outputs:

- Firstly, Community Leaders are fully informed and they understand and agree with the program to be supported by the WKKF;
- Secondly, a covenant is established and it represents an agreement with the community leaders as to what the WKKF's involvement will be in the future;
- Thirdly, a comprehensive community mapping and plan is supported and becomes the basis of discussions with community's members; and
- Fourthly, community members are able to learn through this process.

The combined outcome of this process over time is an increased capacity of the community to self drive and to take control of their own development.

10.4 Operational Guidelines

10.4.1 The Entry or Community Consultations and Appreciative Inquiry Phase

During this phase, the country Program Directors consults with community leaders to inform them about the WKKF's values, objectives and the strategies it employs to achieve them. All leadership- built on different legitimating processes, and with different accountability mechanisms- is consulted. It is essential to be as inclusive as possible in the consultation phase, in order to secure a broad base of understanding and support for the program, it is not uncommon to find traditional authorities, representatives of central government, religious authorities, as well as other powerful economic and social elites in one locality. All these leaders need to be consulted and consensus built on the development program to be implemented,

For these reasons, the WKKF recommends the following guidelines to the Programme Directors and their operating agencies responsible for zooming:

- **To identify and consult with all the sources of authority and legitimacy in the locality;** this can be done by reviewing the information available on the area, but also by conducting semi structured interviews with key informants, knowledgeable about the local institutional and social settings.
- **To define and share a local zooming plan (objectives, roll out plan, roles and responsibilities),** with the leadership and stakeholders concerned.

This is the primary focus of the entry process, as the WKKF needs to secure the communities understanding and agreement with its values, objectives and strategies. The discussion with the local leadership pays particular attention to the objectives and the implantation schedule of zooming exercise, as they need to give their blessing to the capacity-building motivation of the exercise, and the required open and broad participation to the process. Once this objective is met, then attention is shifted to specifying and clarifying the roles and responsibilities of each party in the whole process.

10.4.2 *The Covenanting and Dedication Phase*

This phase has three main objectives:

- **To identify adequate institutional mechanisms to involve local players in the process**

Depending on the local circumstances, the following mechanisms are developed and agreed upon in order to manage the entire process:

- **A local steering committee-** created under the local authority's leadership. It is given an explicit mandate to oversee the zooming process and to be accountable to the local authority. The composition of this committee is carefully defined to reflect a broad base representation of the economic, social and political realities of the locality.
- **An organization committee-** charged with technical and methodological implementation of the zooming process. This committee could comprise both local facilitators and resources people from the locality and from outside.
- **A local sensitization and facilitation unit-** assigned the social marketing campaign and the popular sensitization of the zooming message and process. Their role is to keep everybody informed about the zooming process- its objective, as well as the roles and responsibilities of each party. This unit plays a crucial role in popularizing the results and the different outcomes of the process. It builds on the usual communication systems and vehicles of the area. Tailored support is provided to this unit in order to enlarge its local, and district level audiences.

- **Prepare an appropriate communication plan**

In order to meet the challenge of promoting social cohesion and popular acceptance of the local development plan, the steering committee develops a communication strategy targeted at the different stakeholders of the local development process. The objective of the communication campaign is to reduce the differences in perception between the different actors and to promote the cohesion needed for a successful collective action. The following approaches and tools are considered for the communication campaign:

- **Use of community meetings** to spread the word, provide the rationale for the exercise and explain the different steps and the parties involved;
- **Use of community meetings** to learn about the locality's history, opportunities, challenges and achievements.
- **Use of community forums** to give feedbacks on the zooming process and its outcomes.
- **Use of community radios and local newspapers** to provide timely and sustained information about the process and its results.
- Other approaches and tools are considered and used as appropriate, depending on the particular settings and circumstances of each site.

- **A capacity building package:**

Once the objectives of the exercise are defined and the appropriate facilitation mechanisms are agreed upon, a systematic need assessment is conducted to define the adequate support package that is required for successful completion of the zooming process. Following this assessment, **a planning grant** is made to the community or to the facilitation agency, in order to allow for the more detailed visioning and planning that would follow. This in turn generates a more comprehensive multiyear program derived from the community's detailed planning to be supported by the Kellogg Foundation and other partners.

10.5 Supporting Community Detailed Planning Process

The following guidelines apply to this phase:

a. **Conduct consultations with local actors and stakeholders about the communities' opportunities, challenges and priorities.** These consultations are done using several approaches:

- **A territorial approach** to systematically identify the limits of the locality; to make an inventory of all its resources; and to scan its main actors and how they interact with each other, as well as with the larger environment. At this stage, emphasis is on a series of maps of opportunities, constraints, institutional dynamics, etc. This territorially-focused work could use several discussion formats, including localized workshops involving a range of participants residing in the locality.
- **A collegial approach** by organising **focus group** discussions with more homogeneous groups, defined by the similarity of their activities, concerns, and/or social status. Depending on the area, the focus groups could be women groups, youth associations, traders associations, traditional healers, locally elected officials, extension workers, etc. This particular forum could also provide a much needed forum for peers to share their experiences, ideas and perspective about the issues that they perceive as important.
- **A thematic approach** to learn more about and discuss issues and recommendations related to a particular issue or theme such as access to market information, commercialization of a certain commodity, development of a local irrigation scheme, sensitization campaign related to HIV/AIDS, Orphans and Vulnerable Children etc.

b. **Facilitate community members' exchanges and analysis of their situation:**

All these approaches are mobilised to make a general exploration of crucial issues, diagnose and identify problems or to generate ideas and plans about how to deal with the issue at hand. During this process, certain standard Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) methods and tools are used to facilitate the deliberations of the community. For instance, a **problem tree analysis** can help local people

to systematically explore the relationships between a **central problem**, and factors and parameters that are associated with a given challenge. Emphasis is put in exploring possible solutions, and building on the ideas and experiences that were generated during the different discussions.

- c. **Synthesize the information** gathered and the proposals made in the various sectoral meetings, and organize a general **restitution** to the community at large, to seek their comments, criticisms and approval of the ideas generated. The objective of the synthesis of the information is to find common ground for selecting projects and proposals that the community would focus on. Care is taken to ensure that the process is sensitive to the needs and requirements of several social categories and explore **win-win** solutions that accommodate the needs of different actors.

Because of the need for the local action plan to get a broad base acceptance and support from the local constituencies, the zooming process relies as much as possible on institutions and mechanisms known and trusted by the different stakeholders. It might therefore be necessary to reinforce local conflict mediation and social facilitation skills. It is essential that all parties involved feel that the solutions arrived at serve the community at large, and have been a result of local consensus.

10.5.1 Methods and Tools for Learning and Sharing

The WKKF recommends the use of the outcomes mapping framework and its accompanying tools to facilitate the zooming process.

a. Outcome mapping as a working framework

Outcome mapping is a participatory facilitation, planning, monitoring and evaluation tool which provides the concepts and the tools needed to manage the desired changes pursued by any development program. The framework recognizes that the kind of social and economic transformations sought by the WKKF's program relate to changes in behaviours and attitudes that may not occur as a direct consequence of one specific program. These are rather the outcome of several factors whose combined effect brings about the desired outcome.

The outcomes mapping framework provides a set of tools which assist in facilitating the development of a **Vision** for the future; **Mission** to be pursued in order to contribute to the vision; Determining the **Boundary Partners** -the most important actors and institutions whose actions and behaviours are crucial in bringing about the desired change; **Determining the strategies** that the program needs to implement in order to influence the behaviours of the boundary partners; as well as **Definition of progress markers** which will inform the local actors about the effectiveness of their change strategies and what they need to do in order to improve them.

The framework further provides tools for the documentation of progress made in influencing the behaviour of boundary partners, the strategies used, and the lessons learnt in doing so. This action learning process offers community members with opportunities to reflect on their experience, and to make the adjustments needed in order to improve their performances.

b. Defining a community change management strategy

The following table presents a sample of possible strategies targeted at specific boundary partners and expected results from implementing the strategies. For each category, specific influence strategies are determined and applied.

Key actors	Influence strategy	Expected results
Opinion leaders	Advocacy, sensitization	Human and financial resource mobilization; Sponsoring, social affiliation; Conflict alleviation
Local authorities	Information	Official approval and endorsement; Resource allocation; Legality control
Technical state institutions	Cooperation	Technical support; Facilitation; Technical control
Social economic categories and head of household	Negotiation/ demonstration	Adoption et diffusion of new practices ad behaviours

c. Promoting boundary partner understanding of their roles and responsibilities

The strategy for dealing with this issue is to organize a participatory workshop on roles and responsibilities which lead to the optimal repartition of roles, based on the comparative advantages. This workshop format allows the different parties to develop a common understanding of their responsibilities with regard to each other. In this way, they develop clear accountability principles and mechanisms which can be enforced at the local level.

10.6 Defining the Community Development Approach

The emphasis is thus on local communities' ability to initiate, implement and assess programs and initiatives that serve their own needs and thereby reinforce their self-drive mindset.

The activities outlined in this chapter demonstrate the initiatives that have been undertaken over the last three months in pursuance of the philosophy and partnership of Kellogg Foundation, BA ISAGO University and the Kuru Dkar Trust for the benefit of the locals and in support of Vision 2016 and the Millennium Development Goals, to which the Government of Botswana is a signatory. The project was undertaken by BA ISAGO University College under the auspices of WW Kellogg Foundation.

D'kar is a private farm, belonging to the San Reformed Church in D'kar, and therefore not eligible for government funding. Trusts work as partners to the 1700 marginalized D'kar inhabitants as they face the health, economic and political challenges of a minority group in Botswana. The goal of Kuru D'kar Trust is to assist D'kar community especially the poor and marginalized to develop sustainable livelihoods through education, training, and community mobilization. Amongst other things the Kuru D'kar Trust mobilizes the youth, local women, and the elderly to undertake community projects, support health services to the community and develop San leadership to guide the village, and the community into the future

The Ba Isago University in partnership with Kellogg Foundation initiated a Community Based Planning Programme that was based on the Zooming Process in the D'kar community and its surrounding resettlement areas which are occupied by the minority San Tribe. According to the project, "The aim of the approach is to help build local capacity for self-drive particularly in youth, women and the families.

The capacity to self-drive is developed through supporting rural communities to learn to self-start, self-assess, and self-correct. The approach further aims to build leadership systems and the capabilities needed to provide local people with a favorable environment, as well as the confidence and resources to lead their own social and economic transformation."

10.7 Kellogg Foundation Guidelines and Their application to D'kar Community Development and Capacity Building Initiatives

The background of the planned training program recognized that D'kar Trust had been running many projects to improve the self-sustenance of the local people through job creation and income generating projects to curb unemployment. That, this was in line with the emphasis Government of Botswana placed on the creation of self-employment opportunities at the micro level.

The proceedings of the workshops were conducted in Setswana, and English with translations by an interpreter to Naro the local language, as some participants spoke only their local language. It was a mixed group of members who had studied at tertiary, secondary, primary level, non-formal education, and some who had not been to school.

Kellogg Foundation Guidelines advocate for Community Engagement, which "... the process of working collaboratively with and through groups of people affiliated by geographic proximity, special interest, or similar situations to address issues affecting the wellbeing of those people. It is a powerful vehicle for bringing about environmental and behavioural changes that will improve the health of the community and its members. It often involves partnerships and coalitions that help mobilize

resources and influence systems, change relationships among partners, and serve as catalysts for changing policies, programs, and practices.”

Out of the community engagement experiences in D’kar one can also conclude that while making extensive use of the Kellogg Foundation Guidelines, there are critical issues that all partners must agree on and appreciate their corresponding benefits:

- **Agenda**—Engagement changes the choice and focus of projects, how they are initiated, and their potential to obtain funding. Clear areas for collaboration are identified, and funding that requires community engagement becomes accessible.
- **Design and delivery**—Study design, tools, interventions, representation/participation, data collection and analysis, communication, and dissemination must be agreed upon. The speed and efficiency of the project can be enhanced by rapidly engaging partners and participants and identifying new sources of information.
- **Implementation and change**—This must be done in such a manner that all parties are fully committed to the process and carried out at a pace that does not force one into complying with the demands of the others.
- **Ethics**—Engagement must be seen as an opportunity to improve the consent process, identify ethical pitfalls, and create processes for resolving ethical problems when they arise.
- **The public involved in the project**—The knowledge and skills of the public involved in the project must be enhanced, and their contributions must be recognized (possibly through financial rewards). These efforts foster goodwill and help lay the groundwork for subsequent collaborations.
- **Academic partners**—Academic partners gain understanding of the issue under study and appreciation of the role and value of community involvement. In addition, new insights into the relevance of a project and the various benefits to be gained from it can result in increased opportunities to disseminate its findings and their wider use.
- **Individual research participants**—They must be used in such a way that they bring benefits to participants.
- **Community organizations**—These organizations must grow in knowledge, a higher profile in the community, more linkages with their community members and entities, and new organizational capacity. These benefits can create goodwill and help lay the groundwork for subsequent collaborations.
- **The general public**—The general public is likely to be more receptive to the research and reap greater benefits from it when they see tangible success in projects.

10.7.1 Community Participation

In D’kar Community project it became apparent that “community engagement requires participation of community members in projects that address their issues

and that meaningful community participation extends beyond physical involvement to include generation of ideas, contributions to decision making, and sharing of responsibility.” Among the factors that motivated people to participate were wanting to play an active role in bettering their own lives, fulfilling social or San community obligations, feeling a need for a sense of development, and wanting cash or in-kind rewards. Whatever people’s motivations, obtaining meaningful community participation and having a successful, sustained initiative required that engagement leaders respect, listen to, and learn from community members? An absence of mutual respect and co-learning can result in a loss of time, trust, resources, and, most importantly, effectiveness.

10.7.1.1 Community Needs Analysis

- During the preliminary stages of the projects, visits were made to a few homesteads to make observations on the way of life and what they needed to better their individual and community lives.
- Interviews were conducted with a few community members who gave insight into the Kuru Family of Organizations: Letloa Trust is the lead organization of the Kuru Family of Organizations (KFO) with a mandate to give strategic direction to the KFO, to build the capacity of members, to provide technical and financial management and fundraising support to members of the organizations that make up the KFO. These were cited as follows:
- Bokamoso Trust, providing pre-school education to children in communities.
- Gantsi Craft, supporting over 800 craft producers primarily women, in 15 settlements across the Ghanzi District and Kgalagardi North Sub-district. They purchase craft in the communities to supply the Gantsi Craft shop for their wholesale orders.
- Komku Trust focuses on livestock syndicate work involving about 31 members, including training in agricultural related activities. Komku supports Letloa’s Health initiatives.
- General comments included: Community members who want to live better lives come forward, whilst others give up easily.
- Women worked in groups on their crafts in homesteads, however stating that, the availability of the market was challenge. They received training, but need money to start their business projects. Many residents moved to the Afrikaner farms located between Gantsi and D’kar to work there.
- Up to mid last year community members were provided with food packages after assessment by government, but this service has since been terminated. Only old people receive such rations as well as Old Age Pension. The community survive on cattle rearing, subsistence agriculture, as well as food vendors. The problem of excessive alcohol consumption particularly by the youth was reported as posing a big challenge.

- A Focus Group Discussion was conducted with 20 participants who attended the workshop. The language used was Setswana and English, with interpretations made to the local language Naro.

10.7.1.2 The Training Techniques

Lecturing This was used extensively to explain by giving spoken explanations of the subject that is to be learned. Lecturing is often accompanied by visual aids to help participants visualize an object or problem. Lectures, on the other hand, are often geared more towards factual presentation than connective learning.

Demonstrating This is the process of teaching through examples. Demonstrations were used to prove facts through a combination of visual evidence and associated reasoning.

Demonstrations were used as much as writing sessions, storytelling and examples in that they allowed participants to personally relate to the presented information. Workshops avoided memorization of facts because they are a detached and impersonal experience. The same information, conveyed through demonstration, became personally relatable. Demonstrations helped to raise student interest and reinforce memory retention because they provided connections between facts and real-world applications of those facts.

Collaborating Collaboration was used to allow participants to actively participate in the learning process by talking with each other and listening to other points of view. Collaboration established a personal connection between participants and the topic of study and it helped participants think in a less personally biased way. Group projects and discussions were used as an effective teaching method. Trainers employed collaboration to assess student's abilities to work as a team, leadership skills, or presentation abilities.

Collaborative discussions took a variety of forms, such as fishbowl discussions. After some preparation and with clearly defined roles, a discussion may constitute most of a lesson, with the trainers only giving short feedback at the end or in the following session.

Learning by Teaching In this teaching method, participants assumed the role of teacher and teach their peers. Participants who teach others as a group or as individuals must study and understand a topic well enough to teach it to their peers. By having participants participate in the teaching process, they gain self-confidence and strengthen their speaking and communication skills.

The purpose of training was not only to pass information but to empower trainees in many respects including: to instill a sense of confidence within themselves to take risks and work on something new; to unearth hidden and inborn qualities and talents for survival; to impart innovation and creativity skills for the new project; to develop team-work and techniques of working with others and seek information; to form the habit of thinking positively to own and work to start on their own projects.

On-the-Job Training With on the job training, employees receive training whilst remaining in the workplace. The main methods of one-the-job training include:

Assignment Rotation Where the trainee is given several jobs in succession, to gain experience of a wide range of activities (e.g. a graduate management trainee might spend periods in several different departments).

Projects—employees join a project team—which gives them exposure to other parts of the business and allow them to take part in new activities. Most successful project teams are “multi-disciplinary”.

10.7.1.3 Format of Training

The first day of every training would always focus on Understanding Self and Self Assessment before getting into the new topic. Participants were given opportunities to share their life histories and what motivated them to attend the workshops, as well as their expectations. Each workshop covered a SWOT ANALYSIS of their lives. The main question they were required to answer was “Do I want to remain where I am, or do I want to change my situation”

What is community development and what is the role of members?

Most participants appreciated some general qualities of successful communities which included:

- -They are ordinary people like us
- -They look for opportunities
- -They use their talent/skills
- -They use their resources (human, materials, time & money)
- -They take the risk of investing and working on a business venture
- -They make profit for themselves

10.7.1.4 Highlights During Workshops

- Need to consider skills needed –leadership, interpersonal, problem solving, networking skills, innovation, creativity, survival skills, passion/vision and mission, strategic planning etc
- Consider the new ideas in the context of change for the better
- Consider risks, costs and benefits of working together.
- Need to solve problems constructively, manage conflict within shortest possible time, action review- how is your business performing? Associate with people who have your interest

Training Approaches Included:

- Brainstorming on business ideas using the **SCAMPER Model**-S-Substitute, A-Amplify, M-Modify, P-Put to other use, E-Eliminate, R-Reduce.
- Most sessions were carried out in groups of seven (7) with each group given a different assignment to complete and then report back to the rest of the group.

- **Round Robin Brainstorming** –This involved throwing a ball at anyone to name an idea that had not been mentioned;
- **Picture Association**-The trainers pinned pictures on the wall for learners to list as many business ideas, goods or services that can be developed from what was shown on the picture;
- **Environmental Scanning**- Participants were asked to go outside and look around the premises and list down as many ideas could contribute to the change of socio-economic conditions in the community and
- **Macro Screening** to summarise the best ideas after the workshop, and
- **Micro screen** the best ideas they liked at a personal level.

Observations

- Participants knew what they wanted and how to get it. They came up with a variety of ideas and projects/businesses they were either already engaged in, or aspiring to get started with, if they were assisted with funds.
- During the workshops the participants came up with projects for implementation which included: vegetable gardening; street vendor; crafts production; bakery; poultry farming; restaurant; leather works; small stock-goats; craft making; commercial gardening; beef production; butchery; sewing traditional attire etc.
- Participants learnt the value of business management, business planning, customer care, how to resolve conflicts in the workplace, market research, and many other concepts critical to the success of a business.
- While the Kellogg Foundation Guidelines help tremendously in working with stakeholders, the utility of the guidelines in a workshop setting is limited. They are good for the project manager and the institutions he or she may be representing but the trainers may not get much guidance from the manual.

10.8 Training Methodology

The workshop methodology was based on the CEFÉ Participatory Training Methodology which deliberately involves the learners in the learning process. It included the use of class/group discussions, games, structured learning exercises, simulations, field study and one-to-one training.

The training approach/methodology of this workshop was highly participatory hence deliberately keeping the participants awake. The simplicity of the trainer's presentation was very good.

Participants demonstrated high potential; they were positive and showed readiness to do their own income generating projects.

There were some participants who had already started their own small businesses and there was need for the project to take them to another level. The course was well structured.

Each participant signed a Training Commitment Contract to take the necessary steps to ensure that they participate fully in the project. At the end of each workshop

there was an Evaluation of Workshop by participants, and what they needed to move forward with their community projects.

10.9 Conclusions

The W.K. Kellogg Foundation's response to the challenges of massive rural poverty is captured and encapsulated in its **theory of change**: "self-recognition should energize communities to seek to transform their reality to a better quality of life, to plan for it (with outside assistance), and to strategize for access to opportunities that would allow the achievement of an improved quality of life (WKKF 2004)". At the heart of such a theory lies the relationship between the self drive mind-set of individuals, and communities operating at the local and national level; and the activation of social and economic transformations of rural communities in Southern Africa. What is needed is that "at the local level, communities; their leaders; businesses; organizations and institutions assume an **"I can do"** disposition. At provincial and national levels, this requires bureaucrats, politicians, business and non profit organisations' leaders to start to listen to local communities' needs and facilitate such that community initiatives have access to opportunities and resources, and to look out for regional opportunities that would enhance local social and economic development (WKKF 2005)".

The Kellogg Foundation's program will succeed in bringing about the kind of change described above- if it manages to effectively help the targeted communities to develop ability to collectively elaborate a vision for their future; and engage in dialogues and conversations with other stakeholders to find feasible and compatible answers to common challenges.

These imperatives compel the local actors to invent new patterns of behaviours, new modes of management and regulation (of power, resources, conflicts,) that are congruent with what is the fundamental challenge of African rural societies- to exist and to be recognized with specific values and cultural heritage, in a global world. This transformational agenda requires not only innovative programmes and activities, but more fundamentally new ways of doing social, economic and political transactions. In sum, in order to achieve the objective of alleviating poverty in Africa, **not only do we need new businesses**, but we also and probably more fundamentally, need **new ways of doing business**. The zooming approach being currently developed by the Kellogg Foundation Africa program can be a significant move in that direction.

The Kellogg Foundation Guidelines on Community Development have been very instrumental in facilitating the work in D'kar, particularly the initial stages of building rapport with community leaders and getting their support for effective implementation of the project. Through the use of the Kellogg Foundation Guidelines, we have learnt that,

"We need to establish relationships, build trust, work with the formal and informal leadership, and seek commitment from community organizations and leaders

to create processes for mobilizing the community. Effective community engagement is based on community support. All partners must be actively respected from the start. For example, meeting with key community leaders and groups in their surroundings helps to build trust for a true partnership. Such meetings provide the organizers of engagement activities with more information about the community, its concerns, and the factors that will facilitate or constrain participation. In addition, community members need to see and experience “real” benefits for the extra time, effort, and involvement they are asked to give. Once a successful rapport is established, meetings and exchanges with community members can build into an ongoing and substantive partnership.”(Focus group discussion notes 2011).

References

- Warner, M., & Sullivan, R. (Eds.) (2004). *Putting partnerships to work, strategic alliances for development between government, the private sector and civil society*. Sheffield: Green-Leaf Publishing. <http://www.greenleaf-publishing.com>. Accessed 19 Sep 2012.
- WKKF. (2004). Southern Africa programming update, April.
- WKKF. (2005). Southern Africa program update, May.

Further Redaing

- Burke, B. (2004). Evaluating for a change: reflections on participatory methodology. *New Directions for Evaluation*, 1998(80):43–56.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2009). *Prevention research centers: Evaluation results: Program context*. Atlanta: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. <http://www.cdc.gov/prc/pdf/esfall2009-full.pdf>.
- Ericsson, K. A., & Simon, H. A. (1993). *Protocol analysis*. Cambridge: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- IDRC (2002). *Wealth through Integration-Regional Integration and Poverty Reduction Strategies in West Africa*. IDRC.
- International Development Research Council. (2002). *A training guide on outcome mapping*.
- International Development Research Council (2002). *Regional Integration and Poverty Reduction Strategies in West Africa*. IDRC.
- Israel, B. A., Schulz, A. J., Parker, E. A., & Becker, A. B. (1998). Review of community-based research: Assessing partnership approaches to improve public health. *Annual Review of Public Health*, 19:173–202.
- Parker, E., Robins, T. G., Israel, B. A., Brakefield-Caldwell, W., Edgren, K., & Wilkins, D. (2005). Developing and implementing guidelines for dissemination. In Israel, B. A., Eng, E., Schulz, A. J., & Parker, E. A. (Eds.), *Methods in community-based participatory research for health*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- W.W Kellogg Foundation (2004). *Foundation Logic Model Development Guide-Using Logic Models to bring together planning, evaluation and action*. Michigan: W.W Kellogg Foundation.
- W.W. Kellogg Foundation Southern Africa Program Update (2005). Grants. Grand Haven: Council of Michigan Foundations Inc.
- West Africa Rural Foundation (2004). *Foundation for Rural Education, Wildlife and Environment*.

Part III
University Community Development
and Engagement

Chapter 11

Selected African Universities Community Engagement Work for Poverty Reduction

Wapula N. Raditloaneng

11.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses community service and engagement and student service learning in the process of poverty reduction. ITMUA was a Pan-African action research study funded by the Association of African Universities between 2010 and 2011 involving the University of Calabar in Nigeria, Universities of Botswana and Malawi and the National University of Lesotho. The aim was to explore the extent to which university community service missions were addressing, and could be developed to address, national priorities in relation to the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that were agreed in the year 2000 by most countries around the world as global targets to be reached by 2015.

The ITMUA project aimed to investigate ways in which community service can complement teaching and research activities in responding to diverse community and national development needs. In this chapter we discuss two projects that typify community service and engagement for poverty reduction. First is the experience of BA ISAGO University College training project in partnership with Kellogg Foundation in the implementation of the Community Based Planning Programme that was based on the ZOOMING APPROACH in the D'kar Community and its surrounding resettlements areas, which are occupied by the minority San Tribe. The ZOOMING APPROACH is a participatory and interactive engagement approach to local development, developed and refined by the WKKF's Africa Programme on the basis of lessons and experience from its work in the region. Another project given as an example of best practice is the ITMUA project which studied two cases of community engagement.

The main argument posed in this chapter, using the two university projects mentioned above, is that community service is, compared to teaching and research, (first

W. N. Raditloaneng (✉)

Faculty of Education, Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana,
Gaborone, Botswana

e-mail: Raditloa@mopipi.ub.bw

© Springer International Publishing Switzerland 2015

W. N. Raditloaneng, M. Chawawa, *Lifelong Learning for Poverty Eradication*,

DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-10548-2_11

and second missions) expected of university academics so that they can work with communities struggling to make a transition out of poverty. However, this third mission of universities and their engagement with communities is usually underdeveloped because of the high level of attention paid to teaching and research in promotion criteria applications.

To revitalize this mission the project built on and adapted the framework so it more effectively addressed the MDGs and African contexts. The ITMUA project was the brainchild of a desire to understand how selected African Universities were engaging with communities, with the ultimate motive of illuminating and promoting best practice in community service and engagement.

The ITMUA regional collaborative project which informs this chapter consisted of an African partnership network of four universities. The network was funded by the Association of African Universities and Department for International Development between 2009–1. The network conducted small scale case studies, in association with the University of Glasgow, into the effectiveness of non-formal education (NFE) for poverty reduction. The ITMUA action research project built on those findings to explore the potential role of NFE (as a key aspect of community service) in higher education on a wider scale. The project was sponsored by the Association of African Universities and Department for International Development 2009–2011.

11.2 ITMUA Project Methodology

Major research questions included:-

1. How is the university's third mission being developed and implemented?
2. What role do the Millennium Development Goals play in influencing the university's third mission?
3. To what extent and in what ways are national and regional policies on poverty reduction having an impact on university regional activities to relate teaching and research to community service?
4. To what extent and in what ways can universities enhance and integrate their existing activities (research and teaching linked to community service) to accommodate MDG priorities in their region?

To answer the four questions above, ITMUA took a 4 phase, qualitative, action research approach as follows:-

PHASE ONE: internal audit of CS programmes and activities



**PHASE TWO: stakeholder
Discussions on the role of MDGs in the third mission**



PHASE THREE: case studies to illuminate and promote best practice in CS



**PHASE FOUR: policy briefs
and stakeholder feedback and carving the way forward in greater university
engagement**

Source: Adapted from Julia Preece (2011) *Universities, community service and African contexts*. In Preece Eds., *Community Service and Community Engagement in Four African Universities* (pp. 37–48). Gaborone: Lentswe La Lesedi. ISBN 978–99912-71–48-4-(print edition); ISBN 978–99912-71–47-7-(eBook)

An action research, phased approach to the study was used. Action research is a recognised strategy in educational research where participation and dialogue are combined with a process of application and review (Stringer 2004). There were four phases: an initial audit of relevant policy literature and existing activities that could be classified under the banner of community service; a consultative phase with four stakeholder groups—academics, civil society, postgraduate students and government ministries—to examine how the university roles in relation to the MDGs and surrounding communities were perceived; a third phase where two case studies per institution piloted a multidisciplinary approach to community service/engagement alongside in-depth qualitative evaluation; and finally a reporting phase back to the wider academic community and the consultative stakeholder groups. This included the production of policy briefings on how to improve the university’s contribution to national and local development needs.

The studies were analysed country by country, then comparatively across countries (Nampota 2011), drawing on qualitative data from interviews, observations and focus group discussions, in order to identify patterns and context specific issues for a better understanding of what works where, how and why.

The eight cases studied through the phases above took place between January 2010 and August 2011 while the ITMUA project lasted. There were also questions specific to the case study art of the research which were about how the project operated. The questions for the two case studies per country were as follows:-

Research questions

- What do you think are the aims of the university's involvement in this project?
- Were these aims met—in what way?
- Who was involved in the project?
- How did the university engage with the community project?
 - In terms of negotiations, consultations, decision making, educational input
- How did the community project gain/benefit from the university's involvement?
 - In terms of poverty reduction; health and self sustainability; new skills knowledge and understanding
 - How did university students and staff gain/benefit from the involvement?
- In terms of personal growth; new skills, knowledge and understanding
 - In terms of enhanced understanding of their university curriculum
 - In terms of enhanced understanding of real world issues
- Who else benefited and how?
- How could the university develop this involvement:
 - a. In terms of contributing to community development needs/MDG focus
 - b. In terms of integrating this activity into the university research and teaching missions
 - c. In terms of improving the quality of what has been done
 - d. In terms of involving more people/organisations
 - e. In terms of continuing the partnership over the next few years [if this is possible]
- How is the wider community gaining from this involvement?
- Do you know of other communities who would be interested in similar partnerships?

Action plan questions for feedback on the projects were as follows:-

- What have you thought about the project since the first ITMUA workshop? What is/was your particular role in this project?
- What were your needs or expectations about this university-community project?
- What have you learned or gained on an individual basis from your involvement with the university/the community?
- What has been your previous experience of universities working with their communities?
- What have been the challenges for you in setting up this university-community partnership?
- What are the potential benefits—for students, communities, staff, and the university as a whole when universities, other institutions and communities work together?
- What continuing needs/expectations do you have now this phase has ended?
- What do you understand 'community service' to mean in the context of universities working with their communities?

- Should there be a university/government policy for community engagement or community service?
- If so, what needs to be done to develop a university and/or government policy for community service/community engagement?

Interpreting Community Service Terminology

[Questions asked to university staff who were involved in case study]

- What do you understand ‘community/regional engagement’ to mean in the context of universities working with their communities?
- Have you heard of the term ‘service learning’ used in Southern African universities?
- How might service learning differ from community/regional engagement or community service?

11.3 Findings from Policy Briefs and Case Studies

Each of the four universities that participated in the ITMUA project studies selected two cases in their respective countries to show- case best practices in community service and engagement. A criterion was drawn on cases that promoted best practise for each country. Community engagement was defined as earlier mentioned, and treated as a more meaningful form of service as it involved regular and prolonged contact with communities rather than showing up for specific one-time events.

Botswana’s case studies were selected on the basis of their potential for multi-disciplinary involvement and ability to build on existing and prolonged university engagement. A Community Based Planning Programme based on The Self-Drive Mindset of communities, using the “Zooming Approach” was undertaken by Ba Isago University College in partnership with W K Kellogg Foundation. The setting is D’kar and surrounding resettlements in Ghanzi, occupied by a minority group in Botswana, the San Tribe. Efforts to sustain projects once the donors completed their term within these communities failed. The aim is to build local capacity and empower communities to reduce poverty and improve their livelihood, building the leadership systems and capabilities needed to provide a favourable environment, confidence and resources to lead their own social and economic transformation. They said “*we have no skills to reinvent profits ... many people buy on credit and never pay*”. They needed skills in identifying income generating projects, the basics of small business management, entrepreneurship, and effective financial management, marketing cultural products, bookkeeping for small businesses, good leadership and governance.

The Lentswe–La-Oodi Weavers project, a cooperative owned predominantly by women, had operated since 1973. With little marketing exposure, their assorted artwork sat, unsold, in their store due to lack of publicity. There was no skills transfer and training, goods were sold only in Oodi, and there was need to create an outside market. The women needed business, management, entrepreneurial, marketing and accounting skills to sustain the project. UB developed a support project run by students at its Business Clinic with support from faculty.

The university staff members also gained new understanding. For example, one said: *The project translated theory into practice positively; in fact the office/lab and practice are not the same. Practice is needed to be carried out in the field.*

However, concerns were raised about the need for long term engagement before communities could become self-sufficient, including time for networking and constant follow up of individuals within the community and university. Furthermore, there was need to give credit to the learning that students acquired during their involvement.

Lesotho projects were selected on the basis of changes that had been observed as a result of communities engaging with the NUL. The projects indicated that universities are changing. They can no longer afford to remain ivory towers in splendid isolation from their communities or other knowledge producers. The University of Malawi (UNIMA) has a strategic commitment to contribute to the country's development priorities, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), through its community service mission. An initial audit of existing community service activities within the National University of Lesotho (NUL) highlighted a women's organization in one of the highland regions of Lesotho, called Mohoma Temeng. One NUL staff member had independently initiated Mohoma Temeng in response to expressed local concerns about orphans and vulnerable families in the vicinity. From there she engaged a Canadian university and students to help the organization with practical needs during the long university vacation. At the time of the ITMUA project's implementation Mohoma Temeng was already established and was undertaking a range of self-help initiatives ranging from home based care to income generating projects and orphan support. Mohoma Temeng was 'adopted' by ITMUA as a case study to explore how different departments at the National University of Lesotho (NUL) could work together to facilitate Mohoma Temeng's ongoing development needs.

Qacha's Nek is a remote mountain town in the Qacha's Nek district in the South East of Lesotho, only 2 km from the South African border, but 5.5 hrs. drive from the university and approximately 1980 m above sea level. In summer the average temperature only reaches 17°C and in winter temperatures drop to zero. The district is serviced by 11 community councils. The town itself is one of three constituencies in the district with a population of approximately 8000. It provides a government hospital and also a church owned hospital some 40 km away. The main languages are Sesotho and English, though some speak Xhosa and Sephuthi (Wikipedia 2010).

The Sehlabathebe National Park is just 105 km northeast of the town. Qacha's Nek is a significant border and tourist town and is a point of entry into Lesotho. International bus services exist between Qacha's Nek and South African cities and there is a twice daily bus service to and from Maseru. Public transport, in the form of minibus taxis, is also widely available in the vicinity. The town serves seven surrounding villages, of which Ha Mpiti, a few kilometers away from the shopping centre, is the central location for the Mohoma Temeng project.

The Mohoma Temeng project uses a small community building which is sandwiched between a primary school, some arable land and a river. It is accessible by tarred road all the way from Maseru but there is no electricity and cellular phone

connectivity is limited. In this area all toilets are pit latrines, water is accessible from wells or standpipes, all farming is subsistence and labour intensive. Mohoma Temeng (translated as ‘educating to feed ourselves’) is a youth and community grassroots project formally established in 2004. It has a core of 17 volunteers, almost entirely female, which include teachers, members of the food security and nutrition unit, people who are HIV positive, orphan caregivers and farmers. It aims to bring together rural farmers, primary school children, educators and researchers to improve the nutritional health of children and promote food security by educating people on indigenous methods of sustainable food production, improving sanitation and access to clean water within rural, poor and vulnerable communities. By educating, motivating and inspiring children, youth and communities to care for and respect their land and environment it aims to improve their total wellbeing and strengthen and expand Mohoma Temeng’s level of community and international engagement as well as develop bilateral and multilateral partnerships with universities. The project has local links with the neighbouring school, hospital clinic, youth organization, Ministry of Forestry and Community Council and international links with the University of British Columbia in Canada.

There are four interrelated projects for Mohoma Temeng. These are as follows.

Safe Water, Improved Sanitation and Education Since 2006 Mohoma Temeng has successfully provided over 3000 people with access to safe tap water from mountain springs, in six under-serviced villages (Ha Nqhoaki, Ha Tlali, Ha Mphahama, Matikareng, Kebakile and Ha Jobo). Villagers initially received training from the Qacha’s Nek Department of Rural and Water Supply on how to maintain clean water systems and hygiene. Ongoing needs are for education on water safety, sanitation and hygiene, including the need for ventilated pit latrines for approximately 15 primary schools.

International Engagement with University of British Columbia (UBC) This is a pilot project which aims to develop and enhance community service learning for students at UBC. Formal working relationships have been established with UBC to this end. The long term plan is also into involve NUL students in the service learning concept (Bringle and Hatcher 2007) and to organise workshops and networking opportunities between the universities and Mohoma Temeng with a view to integrating international service learning into existing academic programmes in both countries. In 2009 students from UBC and NUL were involved in building some Ventilated Improved Pit-latrines (VIPs).

Poverty Reduction Strategies Mohoma Temeng has four nutrition and income-generating units. These are i) dairy and ii) layers to provide milk and eggs to approximately 25 orphans and women who are HIV positive; iii) piggery and iv) organic horticulture with school orchard to support a local primary school with two acres of farmland, thus benefiting between 350 and 400 school children, of whom 25% are orphans. The farmers grow food for children in the school, using indigenous farming methods that are environmentally friendly. Teachers are then expected to teach these methods as part of the curriculum. Although the primary goal of these

activities is to improve nutrition, small income generated from sales of surplus milk, eggs, meat and vegetables is used to support: secondary education for eight orphans; transportation to hospitals for people affected by HIV/AIDS; life skills and HIV/AIDS workshops targeting youth; and overall sustainability of the project's activities.

Education for Sustainable Development Programmes Since 2004 Mohoma Temeng has commemorated the UN World Food Day through tree planting projects to increase access to firewood and fruit. People in seven villages have been organized in rural Qacha's Nek to plant approximately 2000 trees. As part of Dr Tsepa's environmental education teaching at NUL she has made community service a core component of her course so that in 2008 her third year Diploma in Agriculture Education students planted about 1500 trees in the community of Setleketseng, Ha 'Mamenyane. She partnered the initiative with the Ministry of Forestry, Bana Pele Youth and Community Centre and Setleketseng community.

The Pensioners' project in Lesotho was a pilot scheme to explore the possibilities of stimulating interest in adult education during the days when 700 pensioners collect their pension from the Roma Post Office. It was a partnership between the university, business, government agencies and the university's local community in the Roma Valley.

What the 7 months of workshops showed is the enormous demand for this form of community education and engagement amongst the elderly attending the monthly distribution of the pension. But, the role of the university must be in helping those public and private groups responsible for facilitating the access of the elderly to their Human and Constitutional Rights and entitlement to services to use the NUL Roma ITMUA project to organize this in collaboration with their old people

There were a number of organizations who could be interested in rolling out the pilot across Lesotho. Every one of the 280 pay points is in a community that could be mobilized to supply the help and advice given in the Roma pilot. Almost all will have clinics, an agricultural extension office, a few retired professionals such as civil servants, teachers etc. who, through the university's Departments of Non-Formal and Community Education could be trained to help pensioners use their pensions more effectively.

Immediate needs are to continue the Roma project by the university handing it over to the community, perhaps in the form of the locally elected Community Council. Then, in collaboration with Government ministries, business and existing NGOs the University would create a process to provide this kind of project around Lesotho. It probably needs a five year development plan to extend the system throughout the country with the development stage funded by domestic and foreign donors and NGOs. But, since at present there is no national structure through which the needs of the elderly can be put on the political agenda it is not clear yet how this can be done.

Starting immediately the university should talk with the Government Departments, local government bodies, business, NGOs and donors (especially the UNDP and the European Commission) to get their responses in principle to these ideas.

The EC has expressed interest in the support of under-represented sectors such as the elderly. HelpAge International the world's leading NGO promoting the Human Rights of the elderly has contacted the ITMUA team in Lesotho to say that the Roma project is unique as an example of using the mechanism of the pension delivery to also deliver Adult Education and improve the social and economic welfare of this group.

The Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS) and National Education Sector Plan (NESP) highlight priorities in line with the MDGs, including poverty reduction, food security, education and lifelong learning, improved health and reduction of HIV/AIDS. The university's own vision statement provides a complementary platform for these policy documents, with the aim of 'providing relevant world class education, research and services for sustainable development of Malawi and the world' (UNIMA 2004, p. 12).

An example of good practice was a travelling theatre project whereby students visit a site to identify issues and some possible solutions. Then the drama group composes activities that pass on relevant information about the problems the community is experiencing and some of the possible solutions. In general most activities were either funded research projects or were projects that had been initiated on an individual basis. The most active departments and individuals often involved external national and international partners. Examples of curriculum innovation included the Fine and Performing Arts Department Theatre for Development Course; Faculty of law practical legal studies course to enable students deal with specific cases at the Zomba prison; and Home Economics Department Theory and Practice in Early Childhood Care to enable students to appreciate issues of nutrition and health in local communities. However, recommendations for improvement included the need for collaborative planning and implementation with communities and employers, more community based research and wider dissemination of research findings to improve service delivery and community livelihoods.

The University of Calabar (UNICAL) has a strategic commitment to contribute to the country's development priorities, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), through its community service mission. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) Vision 2020 and Nigeria's National Policy on Education (2004) highlight priorities in line with the MDGs, including poverty reduction, food security, education and lifelong learning, improved health and reduction of HIV/AIDS. The university's own vision statement provides a complementary platform for these policy documents, with the aim to 'maintain the highest form of excellence in publications, teaching, research and service' (UNICAL Strategic Plan 2002, p. 10). Strategic goals of the National Policy aim to promote 'community service', and 'national and international understanding and interaction' (2002, p. 36).

A 2-day stakeholder discussion meeting in March 2010 attracted 11 senior university academics, 9 civil society organisations 3 ministry representatives and 5 graduates.

Whilst the concept of community service was understood it was recognised that much more work was needed to integrate community service with teaching and

research. Examples of NUL visibility included agricultural feasibility studies and advice on sustainable land management, building of toilets in five riverine communities to use urine and human faeces for crop production and incorporation of indigenous knowledge in conservation processes.

However, recommendations for improvement included the need for collaborative planning and implementation with communities and employers, the introduction of internship programmes for NUL students, more community based research and wider dissemination of research findings to improve service delivery and community livelihoods.

The university audit carried out in 2010 showed that their involvement in community service was faculty based. Lack of central coordination or monitoring of activities meant that staff were not aware of what each department was doing and were unable to capitalise on each other's expertise in contributing to community needs.

Nearly all activities were linked to student training programmes. Although the university was made up of 9 faculties and 3 Institutes, only 4 faculties were found to be undertaking activities that may be likened to community service

A 2-day stakeholder discussion meeting in March 2010 attracted 11 senior university academics, 9 civil society organisations 3 ministry representatives and 5 graduates.

Whilst the concept of community service was understood it was recognised that much more work was needed to integrate community service with teaching and research. Examples of NUL visibility included agricultural feasibility studies and advice on sustainable land management, building of toilets in five riverine communities to use urine and human faeces for crop production and incorporation of indigenous knowledge in conservation processes.

However, recommendations for improvement included the need for collaborative planning and implementation with communities and employers, the introduction of internship programmes for NUL students, more community based research and wider dissemination of research findings to improve service delivery and community livelihoods.

Examples of good practice included talks by Clinical Sciences in churches and mosques on management of safe child delivery; encouraging childbirth practices in a clinic or hospital where support can be given by a doctor or trained nurses; and development by Science of an information bank on biodiversity resources for the region.

The study found that students and staff who took part in the projects benefitted from the context specific experience of putting theory into practice, while community members acquired skills, knowledge and understanding that they were able to put to immediate use.

It also found that needs analysis and multidisciplinary engagement were critical to supporting communities effectively. But long term involvement was desirable to ensure self-sufficiency.

Multidisciplinary approach and university senior management support: keys to successful delivery of the third mission of universities in Africa.

11.3.1 A Comparative Analysis of the Cases Studied

The conceptual relationship between community ‘service’ and ‘engagement’ has evolved considerably over a relatively short space of time. For instance, Lazarus et al. (2008) trace the shift in terminology across South African policy documents over a period of ten years from ‘community service’ to ‘knowledge based community service’ to ‘community engagement’ and now to a ‘scholarship of community engagement’ (p. 61). Inman and Schuetze, as recently as 2010 highlight the changing perceptions around university-community-regional relationships. During the timescale of ITMUA itself, the distinctions between these two concepts became blurred.

Nevertheless, university mission statements and strategic goals across the partner universities tend to refer to ‘service’ rather than ‘engagement’ but often within wider policy contexts of commitment to national development.

The Lesotho Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) and Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) highlight priorities in line with the MDGs, including poverty reduction, food security, education and lifelong learning, improved health and reduction of HIV/AIDS. The National University of Lesotho’s own vision statement provides a complementary platform for these policy documents, with the aim to ‘be a leading African university responsive to national socio-economic needs, committed to high quality teaching, lifelong learning, research and community service’ (NUL 2007, p. 4). Strategic goals embrace ‘strengthening partnerships’, addressing the MDGs and ‘producing relevant and responsive programmes’.

The Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS) and National Education Sector Plan (NESP) highlight priorities in line with the MDGs, including poverty reduction, food security, education and lifelong learning, improved health and reduction of HIV/AIDS. Malawi University’s vision statement includes the phrase ‘research and services for sustainable development of Malawi and the world’ (UNIMA 2004, pp. 12). Strategic goals address MDG issues such as HIV and AIDS and human rights (p. 39).

The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) Vision 2020 and Nigeria’s National Policy on Education (2004) highlight priorities of poverty reduction, food security, education and lifelong learning, health and reduction of HIV/AIDS. Calabar university’s vision statement and strategic goals also include the words ‘community service’ (2002, pp. 36).

The Botswana Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) and University of Botswana Strategic Plan (2007) highlight concerns with poverty reduction, food security, education and lifelong learning, and reduction of HIV/AIDS. The university’s strategic goals include the strengthening of engagement with different communities, access and participation.

During the startup phase of attempting to produce some common understandings of the terminology for the project it became apparent that there is no universal definition of either ‘community’ or ‘community service’. Hall (2010, p. 23) states that community:

Can be taken as a cluster of households or an entire region, as an organization ranging from a provincial government department to an NGO, as a school, clinic, hospital, church or mosque or as part of the university itself... communities are loosely defined as social organisations. But community also functions as an adjective, as a qualifier that indicates work that is socially beneficial.

Although the University of Botswana does have its own definition of community service, for the purposes of auditing community service activities across the partners the following definition by Lulat (2005) was adopted as:

[An] extension of university expertise to the world outside the university, the community, in the service of improving the quality of life of the community and which is effected through a university model in which community service is integral to all aspects of the university: mission, structure and organization, hiring and promotion, curriculum and teaching, research and publications etc. (p. 262).

In this definition it is apparent that Community service (CS) should be applied within a whole institutional strategy. It is also seen as closely aligned to the notion of community work as 'a process of creating a shared vision among the community (especially the disadvantaged) and partners ... in society' (Hall 2010, p. 25). In general, it is associated with doing public good. CS, however, needs a process of participatory dialogue in all its activities. It is now recognized as requiring a more collaborative, needs-led approach where learning is seen as a two way process between higher education and community (Keith 2005). Furthermore it has potential for much more integration with the university's other core missions of teaching and research so that CS can contribute to knowledge production as well as knowledge dissemination.

As a result of this more elaborate vision, community engagement (CE) is now the more popular term. With engagement, the notion of partnership with a range of agencies within and around the community is implied. Schuetze (2010, p. 25), for instance, states that:

Community engagement is defined broadly, namely as the collaboration between institutions of higher education and their larger communities (local, regional/state, national, global) for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity.

The term community engagement therefore takes us beyond simply addressing communities of need and encourages us to think of a wider resource of partners within communities and regions. It encourages the notion of reciprocity and knowledge transfer in multiple directions. This was the approach that the ITMUA project attempted to address throughout its research.

11.3.2 Phase One

An internal audit of existing activities was benchmarked against international standards of community engagement. Examples of existing practice were collected from each university. Their community service activities were then measured against a

benchmarking tool (Charles and Benneworth 2009) that was adapted from a global project called PURE (Pascal Universities and Regional Engagement). Features of this benchmarking tool were selected and re-worked to accommodate the MDG focus of the ITMUA project. The benchmarking tool classified the universities' involvement in community service across five levels. Level one indicated that the main form of activity was through isolated individuals: 'acting from a mixture of altruism and desire to access resources'. Level three indicated: 'some institutional commitment but tends to be restricted to key departments and focused around core research roles'. Level five would indicate:

Strong institutional commitment with wide-ranging involvement from across the university including students. University is a key stakeholder in the initiative and seeks to enroll other agencies and facilitate collaboration across traditional boundaries. (ibid: 4)

The level of activity in each university, in benchmarking terms, ranged from level one to level three. The ITMUA aspiration was to move towards level five.

11.3.3 Phase Two

Following this audit each university carried out the consultation phase in the form of workshops with the four stakeholder cohorts. Although each country context demonstrated different degrees to which CE activities were operating, the overall findings were remarkably similar. In total 26 postgraduate students, 58 university academics, 21 representatives from civil society organisations and 11 people from government ministries took part. In their analysis of current university activities, most people could cite examples of university responsiveness to, for example, MDG 1 (poverty reduction) MDG 2 (universal primary education), MDG 6 (HIV/AIDS prevention and awareness) and MDG 7 (environmental awareness). Examples of university visibility in Lesotho included farming activities and services to local communities, collaboration with the Ministry of Education regarding monitoring of free primary education provision, the institution's own HIV/AIDS policy and 'know your status' campaigns by Health Sciences.

In Malawi examples of curriculum innovation included the Fine and Performing Arts Department Theatre for Development Course; a Faculty of Law practical legal studies course to help students deal with specific cases at the Zomba prison; and a Home Economics Department Theory and Practice in Early Childhood Care course to enable students to appreciate issues of nutrition and health in local communities. Examples of Calabar activities included agricultural feasibility studies and advice on sustainable land management, building of toilets in five riverine communities to use urine and human faces for crop production and incorporation of indigenous knowledge in conservation processes. Examples of the University of Botswana activities included its contribution to the HIV/AIDS scourge through the Students Against Aids initiatives and by the counselling services provided at the university clinic.

However, whilst the concept of community service was broadly understood it was recognised that much more work was needed to integrate community service with teaching and research. Unlike the other three partners, the University of Botswana does recognise community service in its promotion criteria for staff, and this became a recommendation for all the partners. Other recommendations for improvement, which were articulated across the stakeholder groups, included the need for collaborative planning and implementation with communities and employers, the introduction of more internment programmes for students, more community based research and wider dissemination of research findings to improve service delivery and community livelihoods.

11.3.4 The Case Studies

Following these audits and discussions each university selected two case studies for in-depth monitoring with a view to examining the challenges and practicalities of what worked where, how and why. The criteria for selecting projects included their potential for multi-disciplinary involvement and their involvement in a collaborative needs-analysis to ensure that the university was responding to community identified needs, rather than initiatives that had been decided solely by the university. In each case the following questions formed the focus for the monitoring and evaluation stage:

- What processes were involved in conducting the community service activity?
- What were the perceived benefits to community, university, and other providers?
- What were the main challenges in terms of organisation, addressing the community problems?
- What were the recommendations for improving and sustaining the university's community engagement?

Lesotho identified one remote, rural project and a second one closer to the main campus. The Mohoma Temeng project in a remote mountain area of Qacha's Nek caters for orphans and vulnerable children across 40 scattered villages. Members required skills in managing income generation projects, looking after livestock and supporting the care needs of their surrounding villages. The Roma Pensioner project was a response to earlier studies into the ways in which pensioners use their monthly stipend of approximately \$ 38. A needs analysis revealed a range of education and health care needs from nutrition to gardening, to managing abuse from families, to how to make their pension funds stretch further. Pensioners wait for several hours during collection days, providing a window of opportunity for health and other interventions. Participating disciplines in both projects included the Faculties of Agriculture and Health Sciences, Adult Education and Business Management, along with students from a counselling course in the Department of Theology and external contributors such as the police and NedBank.

For Malawi the Nyanya Group Village Headman project located about 4 km from Chancellor College (CC) and consisting of 18 villages was the main case study. A needs analysis conducted in the community revealed a range of education, nutrition and healthcare needs including irrigation farming in order to reduce hunger, skills for combating and mitigating HIV and AIDS, and meeting their other needs of large population size, alcohol and drug abuse and general poverty that impacted on schooling of children. Participating students included those involved in a Theatre for Development (TFD) project to raise awareness of exploitation and decision making issues in the community. The Muula Community Based Child Care (CBCC) project had originally been developed by one Masters student in the Home Economics Department in response to the community's nutrition and early childhood education needs. ITMUA evaluated this project and reviewed its current curriculum implemented in order to identify issues for training the project care givers.

Calabar identified two new projects. The sex workers' project in the Atakpa area of Calabar addressed the needs of 12 female sex workers. They required awareness raising about sexually transmitted diseases, training in vocational skills and skills in managing income generation projects in order to provide them with the means to ultimately abandon sex work. The Departments of Adult & Continuing Education and Nursing, in addition to two civil society organizations whose mission is reduction of HIV/AIDS infection, were involved in this project. The women farmers' initiative in the Uwanse area of Calabar sought to make farming and particularly, vegetable farming, a cheaper venture through training in compounding of organic fertilizer. The project taught basic principles of book keeping and sought to equip women farmers with marketing strategies appropriate for both their farm products and the area of Calabar. Departments of Crop Science and Adult and Continuing Education as well as two civil society organizations whose mission includes women concerns were involved in this project. The needs analyses that preceded the establishment and running of the two projects, revealed a range of education and health care needs; the sex workers emphasized sewing as preferred vocational skills while female farmers showed great appreciation for the ability to prepare their own fertilizer using local materials.

Botswana selected a remote project in the far west of the country and an established local community initiative that required an injection of skills support. For the remote rural location a Community Based Planning Programme based on the self-drive mindset of communities, using the "Zooming Approach" was undertaken by Ba Isago University College in partnership with W WK Kellogg Foundation. The location was D'kar and the surrounding resettlements in Ghanzi, which were occupied by a minority group, the San Tribe. Efforts to sustain projects once the donors completed their term within these communities had previously failed. The zooming approach aim is to build local capacity and empower communities at source, to reduce poverty and improve their livelihood by building local leadership systems and capabilities needed to provide a favourable development environment, sustain individual confidence and resources for communities to lead their own social and economic transformation. The participants needed skills in identifying income generating projects, the basics of small business management,

entrepreneurship, effective financial management, marketing cultural products, bookkeeping for small businesses, good leadership and governance. The Lentswe-La-Oodi Weavers project, a cooperative owned predominantly by women, had operated since 1973. With little marketing exposure, their assorted artwork sat, unsold, in their store due to lack of publicity. There was no skills transfer and training, goods were sold only in Oodi, and there was need to create an outside market. The women needed business, management, entrepreneurial, marketing and accounting skills to sustain the project.

In almost all the case studies, leadership came from academic staff, though students were often involved. In the Lentswe-La-Oodi Weavers project, leadership came almost entirely from a group of students who had established themselves as a voluntary business advisory clinic as part of their degree studies. In most cases student involvement was voluntary, though in the Malawi Nyanya group village headman project, students were also assessed on their involvement as part of their coursework.

The case studies were comparatively analysed in relation to the different ways in which the universities and communities engaged with each other, their ability to address the MDGs, the learning articulated by students, academics and community members and some of the challenges associated with this kind of work. The table below summarizes the results of community service and engagement, and impacts:

Country	Major results of Cs and engagement	Major impacts of CS and engagement
Botswana	Networking with university on selected case studies on income generation and entrepreneurship projects Concerns about the need for prolonged engagement as imperative	Translation of Cs and engagement theory into practice with university partnership for entrepreneurship and income generation projects
Lesotho	Projects on poverty reduction, improved nutrition, curbing HIV/AIDS and strengthening partnerships initiated in response to expressed needs of communities	Expansion of knowledge, skills and intension to promote best practice in nutrition, and income generation, and community education for pensioners
Malawi	Documentation of donor funded and individual projects that address some MDGs; HIV/AIDS, health poverty reduction, improved nutrition and curriculum innovation	University expert assistance with poverty reduction strategies, possible solutions from the lens of beneficiaries
Calabar	Documentation of research findings on commercial sex workers and vegetable farming projects	Raising awareness on STIs, HIV/AIDS and the importance of breaking the chain through healthy income generation and farming that can replace commercial sex work

Jointly, the above community based university assisted projects served to impact on the following:

Illumination of what counts as community service; revitalised networking, local and global partnerships; sensitization on understanding and respond to the call to serve communities (CS); team building, leadership and management; illuminated role of the Millennium Development Goals in influencing the university's third mission; formulation of national and regional policies on poverty reduction, universal access to primary education, and sustainable development.

11.4 The Process of Community Service Engagement and Learning

The experiences of these projects reveal differing approaches to community engagement that can be plotted on a continuum from 'outreach' activities to 'community engagement with service learning'.

'Outreach' represents one extreme end of the continuum, usually referring to a one-off activity conducted by the university to help address community needs. A somewhat more progressive concept is 'community service' which is reflected in the mission statements of the four universities.

Both 'outreach' and 'community service' concepts are criticized for their one-dimensional relationship—universities providing knowledge and resources to address a community problem. Schuetze's concept of 'community engagement' (Schuetze 2010) departs from this understanding and emphasizes collaboration between the university and the community for mutual exchange of knowledge and resources. Other researchers have added the concept of 'service learning' to community engagement. 'Service learning' incorporates the notion that students should be assessed for the learning they undergo in the process of collaborating with the community (Bringle and Hatcher 2007).

The community service continuum could thus appear as follows:

Outreach → Community service → Community engagement → Community Engagement with Service learning

One general observation from implementation of the case study projects is that the partner institutions did not conduct their activities in isolation. Rather, different groups of people collaborated in the implementation of the projects in all the four countries. In some projects whole departments were involved while, in others, only a few individuals took an active part.

Two projects involved academic staff only. In other cases local and international stakeholders played a part depending on the needs identified. In general, it is noted that collaborations were necessary in the implementation of all the projects. Whilst some of the collaborations increased funding opportunities, other collaborations enhanced the process of addressing varied but interconnected needs faced by the communities. It is clear therefore that a multidisciplinary approach to community service is a must if the development needs of communities are to be addressed meaningfully.

11.4.1 Student Learning

The findings showed that students and staff who took part in the projects benefitted from the context specific experience of putting theory into practice, while community members acquired skills, knowledge and understanding that they were able to put to immediate use.

The TFD students in Malawi learned more about the problems of their neighbouring communities and how TFD theories can be applied to real life situations. In addition, the students learned how to gain entry into the community as well as how to arrive at shared meanings with community members. These skills were particularly necessary for the TFD students who were interested in having the community open up to them:

We had a lot of problems to get village headmen understand our goals and give us the right people for our activities. Initially they just gave us their relatives because they thought that we are there to give presents to some people and these had to be their relatives. (FGD 1 with TFD students)

The community members thought that we had come to spy on them so they initially did not mention the challenges they face to enable us work out possible solutions with them through theatre. It took several visits and talking to different groups of people for us to get the rapport that was necessary for us to work. (FGD 2 with TFD students)

11.4.2 Community Learning

Community members in general mentioned the irrigation farming skills and techniques they had learnt and put into practice as their academic benefits.

One major benefit mentioned by all groups of respondents was greater understanding of their own problems. This is exemplified by the following quote from two groups of community members in Malawi:

The activities have helped us to understand our own problems... sometimes you think they are not your problems, or indeed that they are not problems at all. But through theatre, we realised that some of the issues we experience are problems—if we fall sick after drinking water from the river, it is a problem. (Community FGD)

That the poor yields result from our own practices, the money we get from selling land finishes quickly but the poverty that result from the selling of land lasts forever. (Community FGD)

Botswana community members emphasised their appreciation of the consultation process:

We had a gathering of leaders and community members where there was consultation ... everything they did they consulted with us. (Councillor)

They also mentioned learning a number of practical skills. The training programme in D'Kar, for example, included strategic planning forums, technical skills training workshops, demonstrations, look and learn tours, engagement with Government of

Botswana departments in Ghanzi District and participation in practical development projects:

The project provided special leadership skills to the traditional and elected leaders running the Trusts, who needed to provide visionary leadership in future projects. (Focus group discussion)

I gained a lot from training on good governance ...as a Board member I was able to put the knowledge into practice and applied it in handling critical issues at board meetings ...it enlightened me a lot (Board member);

I learnt how to manage my profits, how to sustain my business so that it does not suffer ... how to market myself ... where I can go to seek assistance. (Workshop Participant)

Learning was not confined to workshop participants only, the project Director had this to say:

As the Director of the project I have benefited immensely from working with the community, Kellogg and D'Kar Trust. I had been told that in D'Kar things are impossible, I have seen that things are possible to do with the community ... there is need for persistence, and understanding and patience.

And this was echoed by university staff:

The College has benefitted by engaging the services of many highly qualified consultants to run workshops, produce modules, which are now owned by the college and can be used to improve its curriculum. (Ba Isago staff)

I have widened my knowledge on how communities differ in involvement of different projects. (Training facilitator)

Addressing the MDGs

Several MDGs were met by the Roma in Lesotho project:-

MDG 1—Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger—The elderly were provided with skills such as in financial management, saving and using the pension for the development of income generation projects, better home gardening techniques.

All the projects addressed MDG number 1—reduction of poverty and hunger, linking to MDG number 2 -Education and MDG number 6—HIV and AIDS. However, other MDGs were addressed, arising largely from the needs of the communities in the different countries and reflecting the varied range of development challenges which the African continent faces (Oyewole 2010).

In terms of poverty, in addition to income generating skills, issues of freedom and capability for agency (Sen 1999) were addressed. The latter feature includes knowledge or skills to act independently for productivity or personal welfare consumption.

MDG 6—Halt the spread of HIV/AIDS and other diseases—provide the elderly with basic knowledge competencies, assessment techniques and advice in terms of HIV/AIDS and other basic health needs that they can use to make their increasing household care responsibilities more effective, particularly those for Orphans and Vulnerable Children and other family members infected or affected by HIV and AIDS.

HIV/AIDS and its multiple impacts are a major concern. Lesotho has the third highest HIV/AIDS prevalence rates in the world, at approximately 23% though this

increases to 30% for the 15–50 age range (Lesotho.gov 2004). There are several orphan headed households in the Qacha's Nek district which, the project revealed, are not necessarily known to the authorities. In other households families have lost their 'breadwinner' and children often do not have funds for school fees or regular meals.

Botswana's Zooming project also had an HIV/AIDS prevention and care component.

MDG 7—Ensure environmental sustainability—provide the elderly with guidance on better home gardening, care of livestock and other farming needs of their households.

MDG 8—Ensure the development of global partnerships.

In Lesotho, there were several partnerships between the NUL and other stakeholders:

- Ministry of Communications. Staff of Roma Post Office facilitated the use of post office land for holding the workshops.
- Ministry of Finance and Development Planning. Pension distribution team at Roma Post Office collaborated in synthesizing the pension distribution procedure with the organization of the pension-day workshops.
- Nedbank head Office Maser and Roma branch. Contributed to work shop on using the pension for saving and investing in household development. Financial support sponsorship of Stakeholder dissemination event.
- Thusanang (NUL) a university-organized, Netherlands funded charity that has provided free food parcels for the Roma elderly since 1970. Financial support for incidental expenses. Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security. Provided the site for the demonstration "keyhole" garden for the elderly, to be built adjacent to the Post Office. Local officer gave seeds and plants for demonstration garden.
- Lesotho Mounted Police Service Roma police station. Implemented the workshop on the safety and security of the elderly
- Popa Ha Maama Burial Society. Helped with provision of tent for workshop,
- NUL Office of Student Affairs. Lent chairs for workshop,

The pilot project proved very popular with pensioners, staff and students in terms of raising awareness, new knowledge, and information on knowledge about health service entitlements, use of local banking services and rights of the elderly to their safety and security. But, as shown when hospital referrals as a result of health checks done at the workshops required referral to the local hospital this was very disappointing since the local hospital/clinic did not have medication that pensioners were entitled to.

In Botswana the Oodi project had local and international partnerships with the stakeholders represented at the workshops, and SIDA, (which expired due to donor fatigue) while the Zooming approach had links with Ba Isago University and Kellogg Foundation.

11.4.3 Challenges of Community Service and Engagement

There were also challenges, particularly in relation to how far the university was raising expectations for ongoing support against a concern to avoid setting up a dependency relationship between community and university. The responses were similar across all the case studies. In Botswana, for instance, there were still indications that the dependency mindset had not disappeared completely. Some participants were finding it difficult to break old habits of waiting for things to happen for them:

We needed information, new knowledge about running a business ... we expected money to enhance our businesses or start one ... for the garden a lot of items are needed, such as electricity for pumping water, tractors and ploughs, forks for digging the ground ... we need farm implements. (Focus group discussions)

In all the communities there was evidence that the knowledge and understanding gained from the training had a direct effect and made a difference for some participants. The information gained enabled some participants to immediately start their small businesses using the insights gained from workshops. However, a change in mindset is a process that would occur over a period of time.

11.5 Conclusions

It was concluded, on the basis of the cases studied, and action plans, that community service and engagement take place in different forms in African universities. In all the four partner institutions the reward systems for faculty involved in community service work were not clearly stated. In addition, staff observed that the recognition of community service work in the strategic plans and policy of the partner institutions did not appear to be fully recognized in the organization structure of the institutions.

Indeed, globally there is growing interest in developing community engagement as a university strategy to meet national and regional development needs—as evidenced in the UNESCO 2009 World conference on *Higher Education: The New Dynamics of HE and Research for Societal Change and Development*. However, the findings from these case studies indicated that the current university approach is usually ad hoc, poorly documented and uncoordinated, making it difficult to market, disseminate or promote institutional activities to the nation or funders.

11.6 Recommendations to Promote Best Practice

The stakeholder feedback phase consisted primarily of reporting back on project findings and discussion of recommendations arising out of the comparative analysis. These recommendations centered on ideas for institutional improvement.

There are baseline requirements for implementing an effective institutional engagement mission. They are summarized here as mission and leadership; faculty involvement, promotion, tenure and reward systems; policy; budget allocation and organizational structure.

A centralized, coordination strategy for each institution is therefore recommended. In the process of institutionalizing community engagement the project partners also felt that it was important to emphasize how CE work enhances the teaching and research core missions of universities. University policy should therefore be used to encourage staff to use CE as an integrating thread to university work.

Centralized coordination would require a dedicated management position for third mission work. Associated activities would then include regular curriculum review to ensure relevance to national development priorities, and recognition of staff and student involvement through credit and promotion structures.

Community engagement consultation strategies should be built into policy frameworks to reflect initiatives such as needs analyses, university dissemination and marketing of their work and regular consultations with external agencies and ministries to ensure a holistic and collaborative contribution to development.

One suggestion for ensuring institutional implementation of policy change was that universities should request their government to provide ring-fenced funding that was specifically targeted at the community service or engagement mission as an institutional policy.

References

- Bringle, R. G., & Hatcher, J. A. (2007) Civic engagement and service learning: implications for higher education in America and South Africa. *Education as Change*, 11(3), 79–89.
- Charles, D., & Benneworth, P. (2009) *Benchmarking the regional contribution of universities*. Newcastle University: HEFCE.
- Hall, M. (2010) Community engagement in South African higher education in Kagisano no. 6 *Community Engagement in South African Higher Education* (pp. 1–52). Auckland Park: Jacana Media.
- Inman, P., & Schuetze, H. G. (2010) Introduction. In P. Inman & H. G. Schuetze (Eds.), *The Community Engagement and Service Mission of Universities* (pp. 2–12) Leicester: NIACE.
- Keith, N. Z. (2005) Community service learning in the face of globalization: rethinking theory and practice, *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, Spring, pp. 5–24.
- Lazarus, J., Erasmus, M., Hendricks, D., Nduna, J. & Slamati, J. (2008). Embedding community engagement in south african higher education. *Education, Citizenship And Social Justice*, 3, 57–83.
- Lulat, Y. G. M. (2005) *A history of African higher education from antiquity to the present*. Santa Barbara CA: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Nampota, D. (2011) Emerging issues on the ‘process’ and ‘outcomes’ of community service from the experiences of the eight country case studies, in J. Preece (Ed.), (2011) *Community service and community engagement in four African universities*, Gaborone: Lentswe La Lesedi pp. 107–120.
- NUL (2007) *National university of Lesotho strategic plan 2007–2012*, Roma: NUL.
- Oyewole, O. (2010) Africa and the global knowledge domain, in D. Tefera & H. Greijn (Eds.), *Higher education and Globalisation: challenges, threats and opportunities for Africa*

- (pp 19–32). Maastricht, Maastricht University Centre for International Cooperation in Academic Development (MUNDO).
- Preece, J. (2011). Universities, community service and African Contexts. In Preece (Eds.), *Community Service and community engagement in four African Universities* (pp. 37–48). Gaborone: Lentswe la Lesedi.
- Schuetze, H. G. (2010) The third mission of universities: community engagement and service, in P. Inman & H. G. Schuetze (Eds.), *The Community Engagement and Service Mission of Universities* (pp. 13–32). Leicester: NIACE.
- Sen, A. (1999) *Development as Freedom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Stringer, E. (2004) *Action Research in Education*. Columbus: Pearson.
- UNESCO (2009) World Conference on Higher Education, <http://www.unesco.org/en/higher-education/>.
- University of Botswana (2007) *Strategic Plan 2007–2012*. Gaborone: UB.
- Wade, A., & Demb, A. (2009) A conceptual model to explore faculty community engagement, *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, Spring 5–16.

Further Reading

- Government of Botswana (GOB) (2004) *Poverty reduction strategy*. Gaborone: Government printers.
- Government of Nigeria (2004) *National policy on education*. Abuja: Federal Government of Nigeria Press.
- University of Calabar (2002) *Strategic Plan 2007–2012*. Calabar: UNICAL Press.
- University of Malawi (2004) *University of Malawi Strategic Plan*. Zomba: University of Malawi.

Chapter 12

Capacity Building for Sustainable Development in D'kar Community

Wapula N. Raditloaneng and Morgen Chawawa

12.1 Introduction

The Dutch Reformed Church and other Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) over the last ten years have played an active role in providing social welfare to the San in D'Kar Community. Furthermore, a number of activities were undertaken by community members as part of capacity building for sustainable development. These include training sessions on courses listed below: Principles of Business Management; Records and Bookkeeping for Small Businesses; Poultry Management; Good Governance for Board of Trustees; Traditional Leaders, Restaurant Hotel Management; Hotel Management; Cooperative Management; Restaurant Management; Educational visit to a poultry farm in Botswana; Women, and Leadership and Economic Empowerment; Leadership and NGO Governance Training for Church Leaders and D'kar Elders Leadership and Board Management; Leadership and Strategic Planning for Businesses; Tourism Business Opportunities in Botswana; Customer Care and Marketing; Project Management, Opportunities in Tourism and Techniques of Game Farming. The trainees were councillors, staff and Village Development Committees. Thirty four participants attended the training sessions 2nd to the 4th November 2010, and 10th–13th November 2010.

The chapter further makes a link between capacity building and sustainable development. One of the key reasons for the existence of poverty is lack of capacity by communities to design and engage in sustainable development projects. It should be noted however that not all problems associated with poor performance in

W. N. Raditloaneng (✉)
Faculty of Education, Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana,
Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: Raditloa@mopipi.ub.bw

M. Chawawa
Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana
e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

entrepreneurship development are attributed to lack of capacity. However, based on the training needs assessment, it was observed that most of the previous efforts had failed due to lack of capacity to sustain successful enterprises.

12.2 The Dutch Reformed Church

D'kar KURU Development Trust was formed by the Dutch Reformed Church to provide social services to the San Community that developed around the Church farm. The San were running away from the white farmers who had taken over their land. The Church provided a sanctuary for them but it struggled to provide jobs and much needed social services such as water, roads, schools, and health care. Soon the Government of Botswana had to step in to fulfil this role. The fear of government interventions continues up to this day.

The D'kar community resides on a farm originally owned by the Dutch Reformed Church. The church initially played a very active role in developing the plot but efforts were pulled back by gaps in donor support. Lack of continuity is a factor in residents reverting to alcohol and substance abuse as a result of having no work to occupy their lives. Working as a Trust-Kuru Family has given impetus to renewed donor support and it is now up to the communities in the area to take advantage of the training to rid themselves of poverty.

12.3 The D'kar Church Farm

KURU Family of Organisations. Kuru Development Trust was founded as a multi-purpose development institution and registered officially with the Botswana Government as a charitable organization in 1986 after lengthy discussions with people in western Botswana and other parts of southern Africa.

12.3.1 Capacitating Community Based Organisations CBOs

Kuru, now known as the Kuru Family of Organizations (KFO), is a broad-based San support organization that engages in a wide variety of development activities. Its work ranges from doing capacity-building among community-based organizations to assisting local people in income generation and agricultural projects. Starting first in D'kar in western Botswana, Kuru expanded to other communities in Ghanzi District and in North West District (Ngamiland).

Kuru was the first non-government organization to work directly with San in Botswana besides faith-based institutions. In the 1990s Kuru staff initiated an Early

Childhood Care and Education Program (ECCE), part of which was devoted to establishing and running preschools.

D'kar Trust has been involved in empowering the local community with development projects over the years.

Most of the target groups have no means and ability to run and sustain the projects on their own. There is need for fundraising and identification of donors to help the D'kar community with training and capacity-building, planning and running their projects in a sustainable manner. This has been very difficult as most of the beneficiaries did not have fundraising and proposal writing skills. More so, recent years have seen economic down turns in many countries due to global economic recession, leaving vulnerable communities with limited donor funding. Competition for development funding has been growing hence the need for creative and effective fundraising and proposal writing skills.

12.3.2 Pre-school Training

The Bokamoso Preschool Program, as it is known, does in-service pre-school teacher training. It also assists in the development of curricula and materials for use in the schools. The preschool program works in communities without schools and establishes play groups for children (W. Le Roux 1999). The type of approach employed by the Bokamoso teachers and their trainers can be characterized as holistic, covering a variety of skills and building on the knowledge of the teachers and the children with whom they interact. The program emphasizes creative play, telling of stories, arts and crafts work, and exchanging of information about the natural and social environment. Classes are given in mother tongue San languages, including Nharo, the language spoken by many western Botswana San. The parents of the local children are also involved extensively in the preschool program, which has helped to institutionalize the program and has contributed to its sustainability over the long term.

To sustain projects entail fundraising by writing grant proposals that can earn funding for the Trust communities. A module on fundraising and proposal writing was used to train Kuru members. The two part module was expected to empower learners to develop their skills in terms of opportunity seeking, identification of community development needs and high impact and sustainable projects, attracting funds and developing professional skills of writing proposals over a three day period. It was expected that at the end of the training, participants would use their knowledge and skills as the initial step to empower the community to raise funds on their own.

The trainees were introduced to several processes and requirements of fundraising and grant proposal writing. The trainer further carried them through Stage 2 of the Entrepreneurship & Small Business Development course for the beneficiaries of the Kellogg Foundation Project at D'kar Trust from Wednesday 11rd to Friday 13th August 2010.

12.3.3 Entrepreneurship Skills Training

Having started on the entrepreneurial skill, this module therefore took learners to another level of managing businesses. This is with the assumption that the Business Ideas raised during the previous week's workshop would be adopted and taken of the ground. An: Entrepreneurship Motivational Talk was done to motivate learners and give them confidence to convert their ideas into real projects that could be marketed, costed and priced. Book keeping was also emphasised as key to successful record-keeping.

12.4 The Role of NGOs in D'kar over the Last Ten Years

This part of the book covers the history of KURU Family of Organisations. Kuru Development Trust was founded as a multipurpose development institution and registered officially with the Botswana Government as a charitable organization in 1986 after lengthy discussions with people in western Botswana and other parts of southern Africa. Kuru, now known as the Kuru Family of Organizations (KFO), is a broad-based San support organization that engages in a wide variety of development activities. Its work ranges from doing capacity-building among community-based organizations to assisting local people in income generation and agricultural projects. Starting first in D'kar in western Botswana, Kuru expanded to other communities in Ghanzi District and in North West District (Ngamiland). Kuru was the first non-government organization to work directly with San in Botswana besides faith-based institutions. In the 1990s Kuru staff initiated an Early Childhood Care and Education Program (ECCE), part of which was devoted to establishing and running preschools. KURU is made up of a number of NGOs that specialise in providing services to the settlements where the San form a significant part of the population.

12.5 The Work and Impact of NGOs

The last ten years have witnessed the role of NGO in empowerment of the San about self determination, access to quality education and indigenous rights. A lot of work has been done through multi-stage action research project to unveil the history, present conditions of the San and their future.

Self-determination is about making informed choices and décisions and creating appropriate structures for the transmission of culture, knowledge and wisdom for the benefit of each of our respective cultures.—Coolangatta Statement Article 3.5

In recent years, a handful of regional surveys exploring the status of San groups across southern Africa have clearly demonstrated that San communities have the

lowest socio-economic indicators of any group in southern Africa, are the victims of severe social stigma and participate only marginally in mainstream institutions. Evaluations of indigenous rights and human rights issues for San communities, both before and after the passing of the UNDRIP in 2007, have found that there is a tremendous gap between international ideals and local realities. These works have explored various aspects of rights issues including education, health, gender, intellectual property rights, and land rights.

In international documents addressing indigenous peoples rights, education is recognized as central to the issue of self-determination. This is usually interpreted by governments and other parties to mean the right to access mainstream/formal education, as provided by the state. However, focusing entirely on access to formal education sidesteps the key relationships between education, language, culture and self-determination. My research is grounded in this field that defines the right to education broadly as the right of indigenous communities to determine their own methods of social reproduction.

Most San communities live in more than one country; many of these live on both sides of the border between Botswana and Namibia. These and other countries, identifying where common cultural, historical or socio economic factors lead to common configurations in access to indigenous rights, and in particular in approaches to education and indigenous knowledge. Equally important are the differences between the two—profound differences in cultural composition, historical trajectory, and current political and economic structures of these neighboring countries.

For example, both countries are profoundly affected by the legacy of apartheid, which colors all discourse having to do with minority rights in southern Africa. Mother tongue education is a particularly sensitive area. However, Botswana was never under an apartheid government (they and played an important role in resisting that regime) while Namibia is a former South African colony. These differences result in dramatic differences in policies involving mother tongue education, for example.

Educational Rights This central aspect of my study links education to broader social realities, including actual opportunities for livelihood in areas where Sam communities live, and access to political and other legal processes. What skills do San communities need in order to gain access to their rights? To participate in decision making processes? To survive? Are these skills available through the formal education system, or are other options necessary? This research will integrate an exploration of indigenous knowledge, and how it relates to economic and subsistence opportunities for San communities.

- **Implementation of international mechanisms.** The UNDRIP and other mechanisms for indigenous rights are generally considered the responsibility of governments. What characteristics lead to an interpretation of the UNDRIP as something that a country must act upon, vs. something that is not a governmental concern? What legal mechanisms allow indigenous communities and local NGOs to take legal action when indigenous rights are violated? How does the general interpretation of “indigenous” and its associations impact legal decision-making processes?

- **Access to decision-making processes.** Decisions that affect the rights and livelihood of San communities are made at many different levels. These include policy decisions, legal cases, decisions by international donors about where to funnel resources, and by local NGOs about what areas to target. What are these formal and informal decision making mechanisms, and do San communities affected by them have access to these discourses? This study will also examine the role of international corporations and organizations, and the ability of communities to negotiate their rights with these powerful development actors.

12.6 D'kar San Community

D Kar is a disadvantaged community which has over the last ten years had donors supporting community projects with the ultimate aim of reducing poverty. However, projects were not sustainable beyond the duration of donor funding. It was observed that as Botswana experienced donor fatigue from graduating from a list of the world's poorest countries to a middle income one, donors came, worked and left the D Kar community.

Not much was achieved in terms of sustaining previous income generating projects. The planners of the partnership between Kellogg and Ba Isago observed that there was a need to change the mindset and give time to developing it over a couple of three years before expecting any meaningful sustainable income generating projects.

Kellogg and Ba Isago university worked on a different strategy to change the mindsets, train and groom the community members towards sustainable income generation projects. As the project was monitored over the last three years, different levels of impacts were observed and these are the focus of this chapter.

One of the most important short term impacts of NGO work is the training received by the D'kar community. The training was done through the efforts of NGOs and Kellogg Foundation throughout the three years. However, the results of training need to bear fruit before the contents become obsolete. Business Plan Formulation and using the plan to fundraise for setting up an enterprise are some of the key contents of important training received.

A training workshop was held for Business Plan Formulation course for the beneficiaries of the Kellogg Foundation Project at D'kar Trust run from Tuesday 17rd to Thursday 19th August 2010.

D'kar Trust has been running many projects to improve the self-sustenance of the local people through job creation and income generating projects. Various national surveys indicate that the job generating capacity of the economy has either been static or has declined during the last few years. Keeping in view the rising problems of unemployment in the country, the Government's desire to lay special emphasis on creation of self-employment opportunities at the micro level has grown stronger.

12.7 The Role of Women

Botswana like other African countries is a patriarchal society where women are mainly expected to be submissive and be led by men. Patriarchal tendencies often render women's role as invisible in the public domain.

The Kellogg Foundation Project for D'kar Development Trust facilitated by BA ISAGO University College provided women in D'kar with a number of training programs to build their skills in tie and dye cloth production. The main objective of the training was to give the women special skills to make clothing materials through tie and dye which they would sell to tourists and create jobs for themselves. This activity is designed to alleviate poverty in the community and enhance self-sufficiency in the homes of target group. A Fabric paint project existed in D'kar for the past 10 years under Kuru D'kar Trust but it failed to make a positive impact on the community because of lack of involvement of the beneficiaries. As a result, there were only two women left in the project. It has now attracted fifteen women who are happy with the current leadership, which allows them to make important decisions on the project and the products made.

12.7.1 Women in D'kar

Trained women in D Kar are key actors in community development projects, craft production and in performing household chores. Their often forgotten role in community development is illuminated in this chapter and how they were able to learn, work on batik and face challenges of starting their own businesses, and identifying markets for their products. Women also learned during the various training programmes such as: bookkeeping and record keeping for small businesses, small business management.

12.7.2 Community-based Natural Resource Management

There are a wide variety of enterprises involved in Community Based Natural Resources Management, which are both instruments and objectives for economic development. Crafts organisations and tourism ventures are the most common enterprises for their use of natural resources. Opportunities for veld and non-timber forest products are being explored, but it is a challenge to find internal and external markets and develop appropriate harvesting and processing techniques. Crafts co-operatives, for the Basarwa especially, provide a small but important source of cash using an indigenous skill base. Jewelry using ostrich eggshells and pods, leatherworks and wood carvings are highly marketable for sale to tourists. In/Xai-/Xai, !Kokoro Crafts is a loosely structured co-operative which acts as a middleman, buying crafts and selling them for the artisans. The structure is simple and

accessible, and its purpose straightforward. Used as a starter activity, the process of decision-making and handling of earnings could be observed prior to complex tourism ventures. Furthermore, crafts groups usually have a higher percentage of female participants—in/Xai-/Xai, 75% of the !Kokoro Crafts members are women—and provide a crucial source of income for female-headed households.

Tourism activities can take many forms; a community can sub-lease its wildlife-offtake quota to a hunting safari, tender resource-use rights to a photographic tourism company or operate its own cultural or eco-tourism. The first two options yield the most overall earnings for the least amount of work. However, they do not offer much autonomy, long-term employment growth or managerial opportunity and bring into question the idea of Community Based Natural Resources Management.

Instead, communities such as/Xai-/Xai and D'kar have opted to take an active role in their development by self-operating eco-tourism based on local culture and traditional knowledge. The choice involves a great deal of mobilisation, training and hard work, but for/Xai-/Xai and D'kar, employment creation for both men and women, pride in their unique identity and ability to make decisions and manage their own enterprise are worthy of the cost.

12.7.3 Veld Products Gathering

Veld Products Research and Development and Thusano Lefatsheng are local NGOs supported by SNV who have been exploring CBNRM opportunities in veld products. Utilising veld products is not as systematic and lucrative as wildlife utilisation, as government regulations are not yet definitive and harvesting, processing and marketing techniques are still being forged. However, both NGOs have been buying harvests of sengaparile (Devil's Claw), truffles, thatch grass and herbal teas and assisting communities develop monitoring systems and explore new products.

12.7.4 Enterprise Development

A training workshop was held for local community members of D'kar Settlement Village on Bookkeeping/Record Keeping for Small Business who are target beneficiaries of the Kellogg Foundation Project at D'kar Trust run from Wednesday 1st to Thursday 2nd September, 2010.

(Ba Isago Training Reports 2010).

Examples are given of how international NGOs join together to identify intermediaries to provide additional assistance to the Sustainable Communities assistance recipients. They avail funds for capacity support grants to be distributed in support of the programs.

The first purpose of the Capacity Building for Sustainable Communities Program is to assemble a collection of capacity building service providers to work directly with the FY2010, and FY2011 HUD Sustainable Communities Regional

Planning and Community Challenge grant recipients, HUD Preferred Sustainability Status Communities, and EPA Sustainable Community Technical Assistance recipients and Brownfield Area Wide Planning grant recipients.

The second purpose of the Program is to build a national coalition and leadership network of the Sustainable Communities Grantees. The purpose of the network will be to facilitate the exchange of successful strategies, lessons learned, emerging tools and public engagement strategies, and approaches for avoiding or minimizing pitfalls.

The identified intermediary organizations must demonstrate significant knowledge, skills, and experience and a cohesive plan for delivering the specific skills and tactics necessary to build the capacity of Sustainable Communities Grantees to fulfill the goals of the Sustainable Communities program. Similarly in Kellogg Foundation embarked on capacity building programmes during the last three years which included implementation of Agenda 21 of the Earth Summit.

The three year duration of training and retraining work of NGOs with Ba Isago University within the poor San community of D Kar in Botswana was meant to equip the poor with inventive entrepreneurship skills. NGOs have served as gap fillers in partnership with the Government of Botswana for the San Community. Although the project had not been summatively evaluated at the time of writing this book, what became clear is that the trained San were able to make some products as a starting point towards developing show-casing the fruits of their training, and a changed mindset and skills for sustainable entrepreneurship development. Specific topics covered include project management, monitoring and evaluation, marketing management, customer care, and Principles of Small Business Management.

12.7.5 Project Cycle Management (P.C.M.)

Participants were given a handout as a supplement to the comprehensive Training Tool Kit for the training and covers two aspects only.

Project management is the way in which projects are planned and carried out following a sequence of agreed strategy which leads to an idea for a specific action that is formulated, implemented, monitored and implemented with a view to reviewing the strategy and further action. This approach has the following advantages when applied well:-

- It assists those implementing a project to be *clear and realistic when coming up with objectives* for their project since they are able to draw clear distinction between the objectives and the means of achieving them. This ensures that the sustainability of the project is already thought through from the beginning.
- It ensures that the *quality of the project is enhanced* in all the various components of the project cycle and that the proposed initiatives are responding to the really felt needs and identified problems and that there is ownership of the project by the beneficiaries and the stakeholders.

- It helps to *choose appropriate technologies* for use in the proposed initiative especially locally renewable resources; indigenous knowledge and respecting the socio-cultural values of the people involved.
- It provides for *a consistent approach to planning and discipline* when considering what is required in implementing a project and serves as an important reminder of what needs to be checked during implementation to ensure that the aim of the project is not forgotten during implementation.

A series of workshops were held in October and November of 2010 for all the three levels 1 to 3: on Monitoring and Evaluation, Principles of small Business Management, Project Cycle management, and Customer Care. The workshop on Monitoring and Evaluation was held at D'kar Village, Gantsi, 27th–28th October, 2010. (Ba Isago Training Report, October 2010.)

One of the workshops was run from 2nd to 4th November, 2010. The workshop was facilitated by a Project Management expert, who was also a national expert familiar with the local context on community mobilisation, community based income generation and project planning, design and implementation.

The course material used during the training was derived from *a Project Design-The Project Cycle Management Approach Toolkit* designed and developed by Community Development Resource Services (CDRS), South Research, Ba Isago University College—Botswana. This is a very useful toolkit structured as a basic guide to designing projects according to the European Commission- EuropeAid Project Cycle Management Handbook. The facilitator localised the context to suit the context in terms of examples relating to the horticultural project currently running at D'kar. A supplementary handout prepared by the facilitator covered *Advantages of Project Management and Monitoring and Evaluation*.

The workshop was delivered using participatory methodologies linking the content to the practical work of the trainees. Lectures were linked to practical examples of the ongoing horticultural project taking place in the community. Structured learning exercises based on participants practical knowledge was chosen as a primary approach in view of the adult learning principles in view of the level of trainees participating. Additionally, demonstrations and group work were employed to involve the participants in addition to the brainstorming and buzz group and presentations that followed.

12.7.6 Objectives of Capacity Building

The Project Cycle Management course is designed to help participants acquire knowledge and skills on Project Cycle Management and the Logical Framework as planning and implementation tools. This training was to assist the community members appreciate the various areas involved in the development processes of initiatives being undertaken in their community.

The training started with defining what a project is, and the distinction and relationship between a project and a programme. This was applied to the existing projects known to the participants. Then a short presentation on Project characteristics was made to show that a project contains the following: a start and finish time, a life cycle, a budget, a set of activities that are interrelated, use of the resources mobilised, clear responsibilities and defined roles and relationships; the life cycle of a project highlighting the beginning to an end and all the steps that a project goes through for it to be viable and sustainable.

Participants were introduced to the various steps of the Logical Framework Approach covering the following steps:-

- stakeholder analysis
- problem analysis
- objective analysis
- strategy analysis
- project plan matrix
- activity planning
- budgeting
- monitoring and evaluation.

The course also helped participants to identify how to choose the most appropriate strategy; acquainting themselves with the Project Planning Matrix; reviewing the role of indicators and means of verifications and how to prepare an Activity plan and a Budget.

12.7.7 Training Workshop Outcomes

The first day started with a group of 17 participants to the training workshop. The majority of participants were women who were 10 against 7 men. More participants joined the training later on bringing the total number to 24 participants.

The first day covered the following topics:

- Introduction to Project Cycle Management;
- Characteristics of a project;
- Steps of the Project Cycle Management and Advantages of Project Management.

The course started with some introductions. Each participant gave their names and their roles and responsibilities in the community. This was followed by the facilitator asking the participants to give their expectations for the workshop before the group agreed on some ground rules for the workshop. The facilitator then outlined the workshop objectives and outcomes. Some of the expectations matched with the workshop objectives.

The presentation that followed made emphasis on defining what a project is and the stages involved in the life cycle of a project with more emphasis on

Programming (planning), identification, appraisal, financing, implementation and evaluation and how these stages are interrelated. Participants were then divided into two (2) groups. One group was tasked with working on how their horticultural project started, what prompted them to embark on a horticultural project, project viability and what they want to achieve. The second group worked on outlining activities carried out to come up with a horticultural project, how they monitor project implementation and what they would like to see happening in D'kar in the next five (5) years in terms of poverty reduction and employment creation based on the horticultural project they are undertaking. Group presentations followed with some very useful contributions from the participants. From the plenary presentations, it was clear that the participants had understood the concepts introduced earlier in the day.

A presentation on Introduction to Project Cycle Management (PCM) followed after a short break. This session introduced participants to the steps of the Logical Framework Approach (LFA). The day ended with the facilitator explaining what would be covered in Day Two and emphasising that it will begin with more details and deliberations on the steps so introduced. Participants were given a Take Home Exercise to research on the needs and interests of stakeholders using the explanations of the morning.

12.7.8 Day Two Course Coverage

The day covered characteristics of PCM; stakeholder and problem analysis; Objective and strategy analysis; and project monitoring and evaluation. The day began with a recap of Day One, with participants relating what they have learnt in the previous session. The facilitator then made some presentations on the characteristics of PCM with questions from participants. Discussions followed on stakeholder and problem analysis. The participants were then divided into two groups. Group One was asked to identify key stakeholder needs and interests based on stakeholder socio-economic and political characteristics, interests and expectations, potentials and deficiencies and how best to involve the stakeholders in the project. Group Two, on the other hand did an exercise on problem analysis, identifying major problems, selecting a starter problem and establishing a hierarchy of cause and effects in a problem tree. Group presentations followed.

Objective and strategy analysis were introduced followed with some demonstrations on working out an objective tree on the basis of the problem tree. The last topic for the day was on Project monitoring and evaluation based on the importance of monitoring project implementation and the need for evaluation; what do we evaluate and why we evaluate, based on project relevance, efficiency, effectiveness and impact as well as measuring impact on the basis of Knowledge, Attitudes, Practices and Skills (KAPS). The day ended with a short introduction on topics for Day Three. Attendance was higher with a total of 26 participants.

12.7.9 Day Three Course Coverage

The third day covered the Vertical and Horizontal logic in Project Planning Matrix (PPM), Project indicators and means of verification and Budgeting and the Budgeting process. The facilitator took participants through what they have learnt in the previous sessions during a recap. A short presentation on project monitoring and evaluation followed. Participants were taken through an introduction to the Logical Framework Matrix with some demonstrations on the construction of the vertical logic of a project (project indicators, means of verification and risks and assumptions). Group exercises on the vertical and horizontal logic were carried out with some group presentations.

The next topic was on project budgeting highlighting the stages involved in drawing up a project budget and the importance of budgeting. The last topic was on the stages of organisational growth. The ended with workshop evaluations based on timing of the workshop, venue, food, learning from others, training materials, the trainer and exercises carried out.

12.7.10 Marketing Management

Marketing Management who are target beneficiaries of the Kellogg Foundation Project at D'kar Trust run from Wednesday 27th to Thursday 28th October, 2010.

12.7.11 Course Structure

The course material used for this training was designed and developed by the course facilitator himself and the after effect result brought about a high level of down to earth and practical outline of course material that all levels of communities, which had been able to adapt without difficult.

A Marketing Management course is very important because it would help anyone taking part in this training on how they can reach their potential customers. Marketing Management course was designed to help all participants to acquire knowledge and skills on how best they can sensitize the community about the products they are producing. The main delivery approaches were lectures and assimilations of practical examples, structured learning exercises based on practicals than theory, demonstrations, illustrations and practical involvement of participants in undertaking the recording tasks, and group/class discussions.

The course started from giving them an appreciation of what a business is all about and why making it a success was important for any business. Then, when any business has success in mind, profitability becomes another crucial element any business person has to attain and marketing is that element in the business that would bring desired results which is profit because, now their products are known

by the people. Without marketing, no business person is able to determine the profitability of their business. The participants were then taken through the practical aspect on how best they could sell their business.

In conclusion, the marketing course was highly appreciated by the participants and even invited me to come and assist with the marketing of their products.

12.7.12 Day One Course Coverage

The trainer started the training with a question, on how well participants understood or had ideas about marketing. Each participant was issued with a printed booklet of training content. Then the essence of business was covered and why businesses are important in the economic development of any business person. The presentation made emphasis on the fact that success in any business entity relied on marketing efforts. The functioning and composition of the marketing environment and orientation to markets were covered making them understand that as a business you should be able to know who yourself, that is your capabilities and pitfalls, the variables for Micro environment. Customers, suppliers, and competitors form the Market environment and lastly the Macro environment which consists of a number of variables:- international, economic, social, physical, technological and political.

12.7.13 Day Two Course Coverage—(Group discussion) Practical Approach

On the second day, participants covered the last part of the presentation, before forming groups of two for group discussions, “On how best can we market our products especially the vegetable garden-vegetables” as they were going to be ready for sale in two or three weeks time. The groups formed presented and all the marketing instruments they came up with were applicable in terms of reaching out to people or sensitizing people about the products they were or would be selling. After their presentation, the facilitator made a summary and still emphasized on the importance of marketing.

Topic 1: The nature of marketing

Topic 2: Marketing Concepts

Topic 3: Orientation to Markets

Topic 4: Composition and Functioning of the Marketing Environment

Topic 5: SWOT Analysis

Topic 6: Market Research

Topic 7: Market Segmentation

Topic 8: Marketing Instruments

12.7.14 Key Issues Raised

In addition to the numerical feedback, see *List of Annexes*, there are some comments made by the participants as part of the evaluation and are summarized below:-

- More group work.
- Good facilitation.
- Good Training Manuals
- Trainer explained very clearly.
- Facilitator should come back again
- Insufficient participation from fellow mates.

Photograph: Marketing Course Group



12.7.15 Customer Care

Customer Care course participants who are target beneficiaries of the Kellogg Foundation Project at D'kar Trust run from Tuesday 26th October, 2010. The course material used for this training was designed and developed by the course facilitator himself and the after effect result has brought about a high level of down to earth and practical outline of course material that all levels of communities have been able to adapt without difficult. A Customer Care course is very important because it will help anyone taking part in this training on how best they can deal and treat their customers so that they can retain them.

Customer Care course was designed to help all participants to acquire knowledge and skills on how they can make their customers happy hence satisfying their needs. It was made clear in the introduction that for every business or organization to be successful it should understand the importance of customers, both internal and external customers. And another important aspect was on how they should carry themselves in the presence of customers and dealing with the

customer's grievances. The participants were also taken through the practical aspect on how to answer a telephone, take a telephone message and put a customer on hold etc.

12.7.16 Day One Course Coverage

The trainer started the training by defining what Customer Service is. And went on to ask the participants what kind of service to they normally get from different organizations or companies. Each participant was issued with a printed booklet of training content. The presentation made emphasis on the fact that success in any business entity relies on customers who come to seek services from the organization, and the business entirely rely on their customers for their survival. The topics covered were:

Topic 1: Definition of Customer

Topic 2: Basic Elements of Customer Service

Topic 3: Body Language

- Main aspects of Body Language

Topic 4: Telephone Manners

- Basic rules for answering a Telephone
- Taking a telephone message for a Co-worker
- Telephone procedure for putting a customer on hold.
- How to transfer a call

Topic 5: How to Reduce Stress at work

Topic 6: How to get a Difficult Customer on your Side

Topic 7: Good Customer Service Habits to Develop

Topic 8: Do's and Don'ts of Customer Service

The participants were also made aware that customer service does not end after giving the customer what they want, it's about fulfilling the less obvious customer needs. It was also said in the presentation that service providers should know who their customers are, they should expand their definition of customer service and develop a customer friendly attitude.

Participants were also made aware of their body posture which is part of the main aspects of body language- constant flow of non-verbal communication. And they also went through a practical aspect of answering a telephone call, taking a telephone message for a co-worker, putting a customer on hold and transferring a call.

12.7.17 Workshop Group Photograph: Customer Care Course Group Photo



12.8 Monitoring and Evaluation

Participants were taught how to monitor and evaluate their real or imagined income generation projects and any other similar projects.

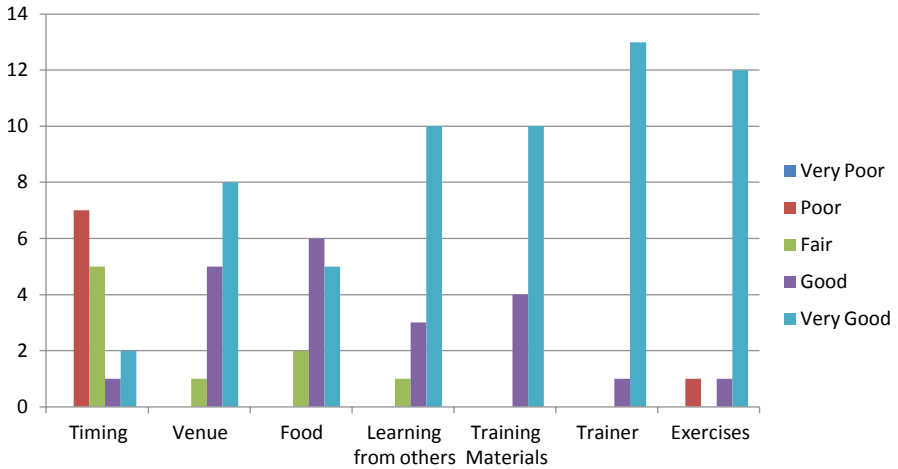
Monitoring This is the on-going measurement of progress of implementation of the activities to ensure that all the components of the project are being implemented as planned. This is done throughout the life cycle of the project implementation by the different responsible persons for the project. This is usually done by the implementers.

Evaluation This is the timed review of the project implementation aimed at making critical observations relating to the implementation which will inform the implementers on whether to continue with the chosen methodology or review the design of the implementation. Evaluation also reviews the implementation in order to check whether the project is assisting in achieving **K.A.P.S.** (**K**nowledge; **A**ttitudes; **P**actices; and **S**kills). This is done mid way or at the end of implementation and is usually done by people not involved in the implementation of the project to allow for objectivity in the review.

12.9 Workshops Evaluation

Overall, all participants were pleased that they attended this course and were very happy with the training as judged from their verbal comments as well as from evaluation forms. The following is a diagrammatic representation of what they said in their evaluations:

12.9.1 *A Diagrammatic Representation of the Workshops Evaluations*



12.10 Observations of Challenges to the Training Programme

The facilitator realised and came up with the following observations throughout the whole training:

- The community was not actively involved in the project implementation due to the fact that there is lack of consultation between the management, the board of trustees and the community resulting in the community not buying in to the idea of Trust ownership.
- Participants lacked knowledge and skills in project management and implementation.
- There appeared to be a Board of Trustees that was non-existent and non-operational and thus leaving the running of the Trust to the management (staff), who were also employees.
- There was lack of potential market for the horticultural project which raised questions as to the sustainability of the project.

12.11 Sustainable Development

Sustainable development include, amongst others, requires continuation of efforts made earlier.

12.11.1 Recommendations

Considering the above points, the consultant recommends that:

- (i) They should ensure that they use all assistance available to them to build sound business plans, i.e visit LEA, Department of Youth and Culture etc
- (ii) They should make out clear personal objectives which they would wish to achieve from these workshop. Thus they ought to make maximum use of this training and other opportunities that arises thereof.

12.12 Conclusions and Recommendations

12.12.1 Conclusions

All the training workshops went well, with more numbers coming on daily basis. And students were very excited with the contents because it would help them make a difference in running their organization.

Following the training, it was hoped that some of the alternatives to be explored would be informed the content of the training sessions and gaps would be filled on the basis of the participants' needs.

The course on PCM was highly commended and the need for more trainings on project management was raised up as this could lead to the general Trust membership getting involved in the Trust projects implementation.

Workshop evaluation reports indicated that participants were happy about the training and were of a view that more courses should follow to strengthen their capacity.

12.12.2 Recommendations on all the Training Sessions

The facilitator was pleased with the outcomes of training workshop and would like to make the following recommendations:

12.12.3 Time Allocation

- More time to be allowed and allocated so that participants could be involved in more practical exercises and demonstrations. The duration of the course was very short as participants had to attend to their daily activities(gardening) before they could come for training which only had to last up to lunch time.
- There was a need for market exploration in order to sell project products.

- More training sessions on project management and leadership and governance to be facilitated to enhance capacity building of the members of the Trust.
- More funding proposals to be submitted to ensure project sustainability.

The facilitator was pleased with the outcome of the workshop and recommended the following for better delivery of the subject when presented the next time:-

- Certainly more time needs to be allowed to do the practical demonstrations after the theory is completed.
- The training can also be video recorded and be used as a reference.

Some issues were raised by the participants and are summarised as recommendations below:

- There is need for more consultation and transparency between the Trust management and key stakeholders within D'kar community.
- Participants should be allowed to decide what best suites them because donors do not allow independence on decision making on identification of projects suitable to the needs of beneficiaries (community).
- There is need to ensure that the training content is also applied in the work of the Trust and its various projects.

References

Ba Isago Training University College Reports for the Kellogg Foundation Traditional and Youth Leadership Capacity Building programme in D'Kat San Coomunity, Ghanzi District, Botswana. (2010).

Further Reading

- Blumenthal, B. (2003). *Investing in capacity building: A guide to high-impact approaches*. New York: Foundation Center. Call Number: 608 BLU.
- Brothers, J., & Sherman, A. (2011). *Building nonprofit capacity: A guide to managing change through organizational lifecycles*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers. Call Number: 608 BRO.
- Connolly, P. M. (2005). *Navigating the organizational lifecycle: A capacity-building guide for nonprofit leaders*. Washington: BoardSource. Call Number: 608 CON.
- Connolly, P. M. (2007). *Deeper capacity building for greater impact: Designing a long-term initiative to strengthen a set of nonprofit organizations*. New York: TCC Group. Subject File: 608. Also Online.
- Firstenberg, P. B. (2003). *Philanthropy's Challenge: Building Nonprofit Capacity Through Venture Grantmaking*. New York: Foundation Center. Call Number: 408 FIR.
- Foundation Center. (2012). *Foundation grants for capacity building, management & technical assistance*. New York: Foundation Center Annual.
- Grantmakers for Effective Organizations. (2004). *Funding effectiveness: Lessons in building nonprofit capacity*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. Call Number: 608 GEO.
- Stevens, S. K. (2001). *Nonprofit lifecycles: Stage-based wisdom for nonprofit capacity*. Long Lake: Stagewise Enterprises, Inc. Call Number: 608 STE.

Chapter 13

Building Partnerships for Sustainable Community Development

Wapula N. Raditloaneng, Morgen Chawawa

13.1 Introduction

The partnership of Ba Isago University College and the W.W. Kellogg Foundation to address poverty of the San Community in D'kar Church Farm must be understood in the context of the history of displacement of the San that was initiated by the British Government in 1957 when its Colonial of Bechuanaland forced the San off their hunting grounds because they had offered commercial farmers the right to occupy this part of the country. This invariably displaced the San people who found sanctuary in D'kar under the Dutch Reformed Church farm. The San found themselves clustered on some farms in unnatural groupings, without access to their old hunting grounds and routes. Some were separated from their families and animosity was rising between all groups.

The businesses of lifelong learning, community engagement as part of the major ingredients in education for sustainable development globally calls for building sustainable partnerships that can see the concepts not as dreams but implementable actions for the dreams to come true. Millennium Development Goals as ratified in 2004 have a goal that speaks to the importance of partnerships. Signed up to by all country members of the United Nations, MDGs 8 has provided an added impetus to refocus and re-align partnership issues around development needs around the MDG targets: MDG goal 8: Develop a global Partnership for Development. Local, regional and global partnerships are crucial to build for prudent management of scarce resources to promote lifelong learning, poverty reduction programme strategies for sustainable community development and engagement even without donor support. As a member of the UN, Botswana has pledged to continue to cooperate

W. N. Raditloaneng (✉)

Faculty of Education, Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana, Gaborone, Botswana

e-mail: Raditloa@mopipi.ub.bw

M. Chawawa

Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana

e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

with other nations for mutual benefit. In particular, it will work with its neighbours to increase the degree of regional integration in trade and other policies, with a view to improving the competitiveness of the region as a whole. It will also continue to work with its neighbours to promote peace and an equitable international economic order (1997).

Cognisant of the above, this chapter provides examples of Government of Botswana Departments that were invited to inform the people of D'kar on some of the social services and economic empowerment programmes that were available for the people. Apparently many people in D'kar were not aware of what opportunities were being offered by the Government of Botswana. So the meetings that were conducted by the Kellogg Foundation project were highly informative, and were appreciated by the residents of D'kar. In this chapter, we share the details of the government programs and how the community could benefit from them.

13.2 Overview of Partnerships

A **partnership** is an arrangement where parties agree to cooperate to advance their mutual interests. Since humans are social beings, partnerships between individuals, businesses, interest-based organizations, schools, governments, and varied combinations thereof, have always been and remain commonplace. In the most frequently associated instance of the term, a partnership is formed between one or more businesses in which partners (owners) co-labour to achieve and share profits and losses. For example, business partners share both profits and losses of their enterprise.

A partnership is a nominate contract between individuals who, in a spirit of cooperation, agree to carry on an enterprise; contribute to it by combining property, knowledge or activities; and share its profit. Partners may have a partnership agreement, or declaration of partnership and in some jurisdictions such agreements may be registered and available for public inspection. In many countries, a partnership is also considered to be a legal entity, although different legal systems reach different conclusions on this point. Various countries such as Germany, China, Netherlands, Australia, Hong Kong, United Kingdom, The USA, and Italy have diverse partnerships with different mandates.

Partnerships exist within, and across, sectors. Non-profit, religious, and political organizations may partner together to increase the likelihood of each achieving their mission and to amplify their reach. In what is usually called an alliance, governments may partner to achieve their national interests, sometimes against allied governments who hold contrary interests, such as occurred during World War II and the Cold War. In education, accrediting agencies increasingly evaluate schools by the level and quality of their partnerships with other schools and a variety of other entities across societal sectors. Partnerships also occur at personal levels, such as when two or more individuals agree to domicile together, while other partnerships are not only personal but private, known only to the involved parties.

Partnerships present the involved parties with special challenges that must be navigated unto agreement. Overarching goals, levels of give-and-take, areas of responsibility, lines of authority and succession, how success is evaluated and distributed, and often a variety of other factors must all be negotiated. Once agreement is reached, the partnership is typically enforceable by civil law, especially if well documented. Partners who wish to make their agreement affirmatively explicit and enforceable typically draw up Articles of Partnership. It is common for information about formally partnered entities to be made public, such as through a press release, a newspaper ad, or public records laws.

While partnerships stand to amplify mutual interests and success, some are considered ethically problematic. When a politician, for example, partners with a corporation to advance the corporation's interest in exchange for some benefit, a conflict of interest results. Outcomes for the public good may suffer. While technically legal in some jurisdictions, such practice is broadly viewed negatively or as corruption.

Governmentally recognized partnerships may enjoy special benefits in tax policies. Among developed countries, for example, business partnerships are often favored over corporations in taxation policy, since dividend taxes only occur on profits before they are distributed to the partners. However, depending on the partnership structure and the jurisdiction in which it operates, owners of a partnership may be exposed to greater personal liability than they would as shareholders of a corporation. In such countries, partnerships are often regulated via anti-trust laws, so as to inhibit monopolistic practices and foster free market competition. Enforcement of the laws, however, is often widely variable. Domestic partnerships recognized by governments typically enjoy tax benefits, as well.

Ferroni and Castle (2011) argue for the importance of public-private partnerships (PPP) with a special focus on agriculture, a sector often affected by many shortfalls globally. Within the agricultural sector is the problem of lack of or inadequate access to technology for improved productivity. Despite all the challenges to the agricultural sector, PPs are a popular type of collaboration cutting across many spheres of life such as the medieval church building, tertiary education institutions, defense, road management and the Olympics. Pharmaceutical companies. With the protestant revolution, many churches started questioning the relevance of the Catholic doctrines and their application to matters of spirituality. Tertiary education intuitions globally partners for purposes of licensing, accreditation, and bench making for design of various programmes.

PPS are therefore popular and can take many forms, with or without profit, unlike the private sector that goes only where there is a commercial incentive.

In matters of defense allies get together to wage war or offer requisite help against a common enemy. Multilateral and bi-lateral trade negotiations have resulted in Multi National Corporations setting up satellites and communication, including road management is an important factor in sustaining the dictates of the partnership. The World Cup, Olympics and other sporting programmes require partnership for financial and other forms of psycho-social support for such programmes to succeed. With the scourge of HIV/AIDS, one of the biggest challenges to longev-

ity of the human race and human life, the importance of partnerships for prevention, management and cure of the pandemic through vaccines and psycho-social therapy cannot be emphasized. While there is no cure for the dreaded AIDS opportunistic infection, great breakthroughs have been made, through partnerships, in improving quality of life for the HIV/AIDS affected and infected.

13.3 Networking and Building Partnerships

Ferroni and Castle (2011) argue for PPPs and articulate important factors that must be taken into account for successful operations of multi-partner collaborations, basing their arguments and experiences in working with a variety of programmes such as nutrition and ICT.

As a nation, Botswana is conducive to the notion of international trade and foreign investment. In cooperation with the private sector, the benefits of available technologies (ICT) can be harnessed in a very conducive environment. Ministries of Trade and Industry (MTI), and Communications, Science and Technology (CST) are responsible for trade policy and strategy. Trade arrangements have been established through the SADC Free Trade Protocol, Southern African Customs Union (SACU) of five countries; Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa and Swaziland with regional markets. The Cotonou Agreement which accords products from Africa, the Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) access to the EU, and the African Growth and Development Act (AGOA) for duty free and quota free access to the US.

Having a conducive environment and policies for global partnerships, foreign policy, good governance at home and good trade relations with its neighbours and the rest of the world means that Botswana has a strong chance of global partnership developments and benefits. It is highly possible to accelerate the pace of export growth and attract foreign Direct Investment inflows (Botswana MDG Status Report, 2004).

Botswana and the UN family partnership dates back to 1966 (47 years) when Botswana gained political independence. The partnership covers peace and security issues, refugees, and peace keeping operations, economic and social development. The UN has served Botswana well in development issues such as poverty eradication, the well-being of women, the HIV/AIDS pandemic, youth programmes, child survival and nutrition (Botswana and the UN, p. 4).

Similarly, the D'kar community also developed partnerships with different types of partners over the last ten years within the main national agenda of building global partnerships with Botswana. The Ghanzi area is found in western Botswana and is typical of the heart of the Kalahari with low shrub and tree savannah. The ecology of the area is delicate. Grass of low productivity can support only a limited density of livestock and wildlife. It is vulnerable to bushfires and overgrazing can cause prolonged deterioration of the veld. One of the important features of the Ghanzi area is its underground limestone ridge, which provides for a relatively accessible source of water. For this reason, it became prized cattle ranching area when bore-

hole technology became available. The D'kar Development Trust collaborates with a number of like-minded partners listed hereunder. Most of these organizations also fall under the Kuru Family of Organisations. Mobile technology is widely used even in Gantsi because of the partnership between the several stakeholders in the D'kar settlement.

13.4 Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs)

There are several factors to take seriously into account in the formation of PPPs. Firstly, the choice of suitable partner must be taken serious. To take this serious means that those intended to form partnerships must have some outputs, complimentary skills and resources likely to generate significant outputs that can benefit those in it. Ferroni and Castle further argue that, even where similar interest and outputs are likely to be generated, there must be proper priority goal setting, clear and detailed contacts, discussion of any manor blockers early in the partnership, and transparency. Utility of such partnerships cut across all sectors. Training in D'kar over the last three years was possible partly because of the partnerships that the community had with different donors. While the partnership lasted, for the smooth running of the partnership, it was not possible to avoid training the stakeholders on governance practices.

13.5 Bokamoso Board and Governance Practices

The facilitator led discussion on Governance practices in formal non Profit Organisations The participants were asked to outline Bokamoso Trust's Governance Structure, and the below structure was realized fig 13.1:

The facilitator asked the Board how they relate with the coordinator and the staff. The board indicated that they get power from the Constitution of the Trust. This point was further elaborated on governance issues within Bokamoso Trust.

13.5.1 Decision Making and Leadership Style in Organisations

Leadership is described as process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task. Other in-depth definitions of leadership have also emerged.

Leadership is "organizing a group of people to achieve a common goal". The leader may or may not have any formal authority. Studies of leadership have produced theories involving traits, situational interaction, function, behavior, power,

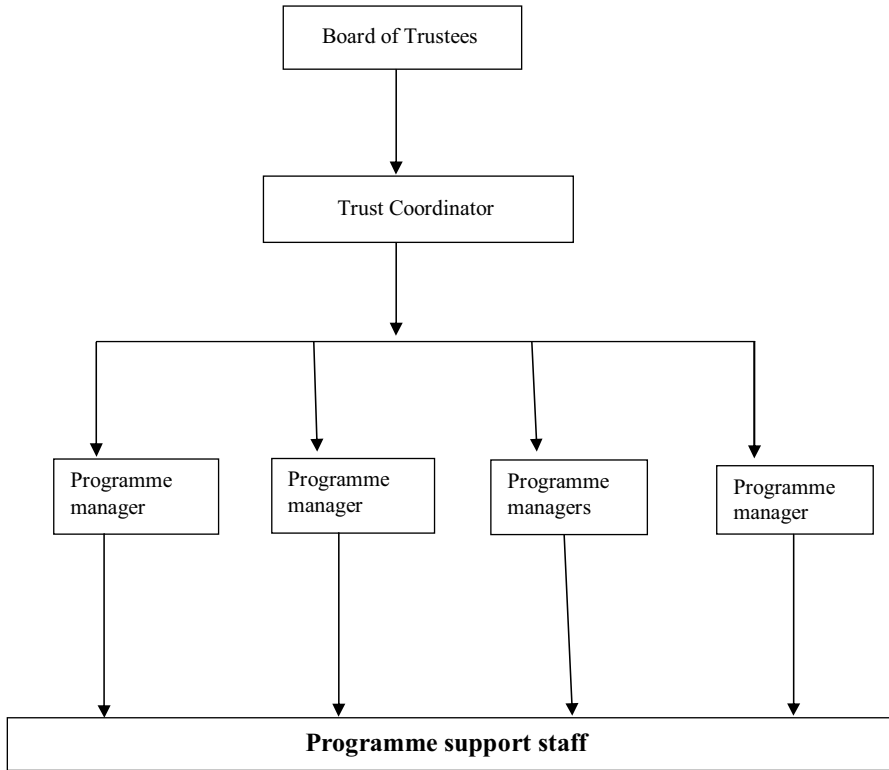


Fig. 13.1 Bokamoso Trust Governance Structure. (Source: Bokamoso Trust Handbook)

vision and values, charisma, and intelligence, among others. Somebody whom people follow: somebody who guides or directs others.

The participants were engaged to identify leadership style practiced within San modern San organisations. The participants had to classify Bokamoso leadership style under the following conventional styles, which they believed were relevant to them, based on what they had experienced.

Democratic Leadership This is the kind of leadership style where everyone is given an opportunity to and their views and get a hearing. The democratic leadership style consists of the leader sharing the decision-making abilities with group members by promoting the interests of the group members and by practicing social equality. This has also been called shared leadership.

Autocratic Leadership Under the autocratic leadership style, all decision-making powers are centralized in the leader, as with dictators. Leaders do not entertain any suggestions or initiatives from subordinates. The autocratic management has been successful as it provides strong motivation to the manager. It permits quick decision-making, as only one person decides for the whole group and keeps each decision to him/herself until he/she feels it needs to be shared with the rest of the group.

Laisser' Faire A person may be in a leadership position without providing leadership, leaving the group to fend for itself. Subordinates are given a free hand in deciding their own policies and methods. The subordinates are motivated to be creative and innovative.

Advantages and disadvantages of each of the above leadership styles were explained to the participants in details. The participant discussed the relevance of each style after which it was concluded that Democratic leadership style is the best and recommended for Bokamoso, but asserted that there remain elements of lazes' faire practice due legacy from the traditional practices of egalitarianism.

13.5.2 A Critical Look at the Constitution as Main Governance Document

It is expected that all board of Trustees of the organization should read and understand the constitution of their organizations. To have power to make decision the board must know their mandate and terms each incumbent board member must serve. The participants were taken through the constitution so as to have deep understanding of their role and responsibility as the board.

It was noticed that the constitution is written in advanced and higher level legal language which makes it difficult for board to understand.

Important elements of Bokamoso Constitution were read and explained to the board in simple and non-legal language in Setswana and Naro for everyone to understand.

- **Peace Corps volunteer**—Sharing information and participating in meetings with residents of D'kar Community
- **Komku Trust**—The Trust is responsible for the mobilization of youth and women in D'kar and the Basarwa Settlements to attend meetings
- **San Museum**—capturing and providing the history of D'kar Community
- **European Union**—Provides community capacity building programme and funding of community based organizations (CBOs)
- **African Development Foundation**—Game Farming Business for tourism
- **HIVOS**—Community Development funding initiatives to support the Kellogg Leadership Capacity Building Programme
- **Norwegian Church Aid**—Community Development Funding
- **The Naro Language Project**—Promotes the San languages and availing information in native languages. This service provides the San community with literacy skills in their mother-tongue increasing self-esteem and strengthening the motivation for participation of the San community in the works of the Trust.
- **Kuru Family of Organisations: The Vision and mission of the KFO are as follows:-**

Vision: The San peoples of Southern Africa will achieve permanent control of their lives, resources and destiny.

Mission: To develop a network of modern and professional development organisations with competent and responsible San leadership, facilitating a development process with the marginalised communities to independently make informed decisions and to implement their own viable responses to their situation.

As described above, the D'kar community has been able to build local, regional and global partnerships for sustainable development of the San people.

13.6 Measuring Impact of Community Development Programmes

In 2012 before the end of the Ba-Isago/Kellogg Foundation partnership in D'kar, all stakeholders in the three year long program were asked some evaluation questions on how the overall programme benefitted them. The evaluation of the Kellogg Foundation and Ba-Isago programme sought to establish the following:

Youths from the community that went through the training programme and in what economic activities are they currently engaged following this training?

Paraprofessionals have been produced by this project and what impact are they having in their communities?

People from the minority groups that benefitted substantially from the training. In what ways and how have their lives been affected by the project?

The extent to which the project improved the livelihoods of the communities.

Skills—social and life that have been developed.

13.6.1 Evaluation Questions Posed and Answers

a) How many youths went through the training program and in what economic activities are they currently engaged following this training?

From the documents/reports availed to the Consultant/evaluator and interviews with the staff members of the Trust, 34 were trained against a target of 30. One youth indicated that he had done the orientation course on Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs) and that he was going to be sponsored for go for the BOCODIL training.

b) How many paraprofessionals have been produced by this project and what impact are they having in their communities?

The training sessions that were undertaken in 2009 did not produce para-professionals but leaders, with effective communication skills. Another vital aspect of trainings was the Look-and-Learn trip to Masendu in Zimbabwe. A group of 25 people representing the three Trusts went on this trip. The Village Development Workshop that was held on 10 and 11 June was a reflection discussion on the trip and a way of sharing experiences with the rest of the community. During the workshop, the Project Coordinator led presentations, showed pictures on a projector and asked members of the visiting team to give testimonies of what they saw. All the

testimonies showed a high level of appreciation of what was happening in Masendu and a realization that such efforts could be replicated in D'kar if the community got their act together.

Thus members agreed that the Trusts would have to realign the current strategic plan to take on board some of the issues and views they had 'looked-and-learnt' from Masendu.

It is noteworthy that some of the initiatives they wanted to embark on were not new but had been 'parked' due to a lack of wherewithal—essentially how to proceed. But after coming from Masendu, they were all fired and eager to embark on the projects—starting village banks, establishing village motels (*votes*), making leather products, arts and culture promotion centre, tourist chalets and developing a fully-fledged library. One board member from Komku Trust felt that *“from what we saw in Masendu we want to develop D'kar village to become the second town after Ghanzi”* A woman from Bokamoso Trust admitted that *“The trip to Masendu was an eye-opener”*.

c) Have people from the minority groups benefited substantially from this training? In what ways and how have their lives been affected by the project?

These trainings are essentially earmarked for the San community under the rubric of the D'kar Trust. In view of the encouraging perceptions learnt from the Look-and-Learn tours, the communities now have increased awareness of the tangible benefits of participatory development, which they can apply to their own setting. A number of respondents, expressed the desire to embark on the village banks as a way of getting seed money for their own projects. One young man had this to say *‘I think Kellogg Foundation should consider funding individual projects ... community projects are ok but they don't last’*. Similar sentiments were expressed by a number of youths. This essentially shows that whilst people engage in community projects, they also have their self-interests at heart and would want assured income to fend for their families and equally minimise the problem of free-riders.

d) To what extent did the project improve the livelihoods of the communities?

It is my submission that it is too early to ascertain the full extent of the project's impact in improving livelihoods. I believe that the positive efforts are noticeable but need to be observed on how long they can be sustained. I believe that this can be possible at the end of the project. I believe that the positive developments are good enough to kick start a snowball effect.

e) What skills—social and life have been developed?

Some members felt that their involvement in project activities had enabled them to appreciate the processes in project planning and management, running a business, policy making and strategic planning among other skills.

There were two elderly male respondents who felt sidelined in the project. They indicated that they were not acquainted with KDT/Kellogg operations as they were not kept abreast of all developments. One of them intimated *“May be because I am illiterate that's why the staff and everyone do not tell me anything”* Upon further probing when I asked him if he was being left out. He indicated that *“we are not being informed about what is happening. Some board members talk too much and*

shut us up when we try to talk and say 'you will talk later'. I wish to be recognized as a board member with a right to talk and be heard"

However, in total contrast, some of the younger board members highlighted that *"everyone was being given an opportunity to participate in board meetings but some were slow in catching up with the debates and activities. If the concerned members decided to keep quiet, it was their wish"* This brings to light a generation gap where members of the different generations were at different wavelengths. For the other elderly members who were abreast with the project's activities, it would be a matter of elite capture—the inevitable tendency by the elites (even at their own local level) to monopolise activities and claim to speak on behalf of the others.

On further reflections with the officer who helped with interpretations, it would be prudent if the members of staff slow down when dealing with the elderly and ensure that they take them on board when making decisions or indeed make them feel that they are part and parcel of the whole process.

13.7 Key Findings of the Evaluation

The D'kar Trust invited managers of the Kellogg Foundation project in Masendu Ward, Bulilima-Mangwe District, Zimbabwe. The two-day visit was earmarked to share the Masendu success story with the D'kar residents. During this visit, the residents of D'kar were given a four-hour presentation on how Kellogg Foundation had worked with the residents of Masendu Ward and the incredible leadership transformation that had been witnessed in that community—a clear testimony of the Kellogg Philosophy in operation.

There was a two-and-half day workshop on Strategic Planning and the Role of Community Based Planning Process in Building Ownership and Community Commitment. This was a new and profound experience for the residents of D'kar, who may have in the past undertaken the same process but at a highly mechanical level.

The evaluation established that there were detailed discussions on Community Visioning, which were part of drawing up the Strategic Plan. This indeed was new experience for most members of the community.

Through the sterling efforts of the Project team saw the building of new alliances with other development partners such as the European Union (EU) and the African Development Foundation (ADF) to support the work that Kellogg Foundation had started in D'kar. Through funding from the European Union (EU), some members of the project staff trained colleagues of Bokamoso, Komku and D'kar Trusts on preparing proposals for EU funding. One of the Trusts has been funded under the EU Capacity Building Programme for 2010/11 (EU Partnership Project document/handbook)

Members of the Trust agreed on a reciprocal visit to Masendu, Zimbabwe. Preparatory meetings were held with the adults of the D'kar Community to discuss and justify the need to visit the Masendu Project in Zimbabwe on a ***"Look and Learn Tour"***. The tour was eventually conducted in April 2010.

The Project team highlighted that they held meetings with Management Teams of the three Trusts to discuss their role as managers and facilitators of development learning processes. The meetings exhibited a high level of excitement and enthusiasm, as the staff exhibited their appreciation of the new approach to the leadership capacity building programme, introduced by the Kellogg Foundation.

13.7.1 Lessons Learned from the Evaluation

The consultant observed members of the community contributing to the discussion. There was so much excitement, that one feels enthused to partake in the participatory process.

In all capacity building efforts, participation in decision making is critical and internally generated efforts go a long way towards sustainability of the project.

13.7.2 Lessons from Project

The participatory nature of the project allows it to make a meaningful contribution to the D'kar community's efforts in uplifting their livelihoods. The Look-and-Learn tours closely follow David Kolb's experiential learning where aspects of learning and experience need to be integrated (see Cole 1993).

The generation gap seems to be rearing its head and needs to be cautiously managed. The youths catch up quickly on all new innovations and have so much to learn from their elderly counterparts. On the other hand, the elderly are not as agile in taking up new challenges and concepts. However, there is a need to strike a balance between the two age groups so that both experiences will not be subsumed.

The Kuru Family of Organisations Annual Report (2009) conceded that the year 2009 was full of challenges as major management and staffing changes took place. There was a major restructuring as members of staff were reduced from 33 to 20 (*op cit* p. 28). Whilst this was a management decision, most of the locals and indeed those laid off did not understand the rationale for this action and view it suspiciously. This action undergirds the need for close participation and involvement of all concerned and affected—a virtue well embraced by the BAISAGO and Kellogg partnership.

13.8 Conclusions and Recommendations

BA ISAGO as an institution has played a vital role in the development efforts of the D'kar community. The flexibility of BA ISAGO is commendable. BAISAGO's willingness to adopt Kellogg Foundation's participatory and zooming approaches

exhibits its intellectual and professional disposition to collaborate with all like-minded organizations in issues of mutual interest.

The road to capacity building is long and winding. It requires a long gestation period for the full benefits to be realized. The harmonious relationship between the D'kar community and BAISAGO/Kellogg Foundation needs to be nurtured and valorised through continued funding. This will certainly allow the minority San community to build a sustainable future.

The D'kar Board and its staff must be congratulated for providing excellent visionary leadership to the community and working closely with all other stakeholders to ensure the viability of this project. The community must also be praised for the support they have given to the programme in general and their continued participation.

The evaluation has shown that this project has enormous potential for successful replication in other districts and indeed in the whole region, where minority tribes may be experiencing minimal development and lack of interest in their general welfare.

Within the learning scenario, as other authorities have established, all is not characterised by dark and gloom. Brodtrick (1998) looks at organisations like babies. There are long periods during which you try to make them learn new things and there seems to be no improvement at all. Just when you are ready to give up, suddenly they have learnt the new thing and are doing it.

BA ISAGO as an institution of higher education needs to continue with the different aspects of learning like additive (just adding new knowledge or skills to an existing repertoire) and supplantive learning (calls into question previous ways of ways of acting or prior knowledge and replaces them). The same can be said of the training sessions that will be conducted, use of various methods like VARK (Visual, Aural, Read/Write and Kinaesthetic)—reflects the sensory modalities that are used for learning information or people's preference for taking in and putting out information in a learning context.

For a people who have been confined to their locality for a long time, marginalized and with a strong donor dependency, the need to see how other people manage their development efforts should continue. Look-and-Learn tours will go a long way in de-mystifying the development mantra.

Whilst people continue to engage in community development, the need for individual projects cannot be ignored. The idea of financing individual projects should be pursued. Organisations like CEDA (they fund and support the development of viable and sustainable citizen businesses and empower citizen through the provision of Financial Services in Botswana) and LEA (provides development and support services to the local industry needs of small scale businesses, encompassing training, mentoring, business plan finalisation, market access facilitation, and facilitation of technology adaptation and adoption) should be involved to bolster the income generation capacity of individuals and their entrepreneurial skills.

This evaluation noted with satisfaction the vital role of the community leaders in marshalling their development agenda. There is therefore a strong need to expose community leaders to better practices elsewhere and design strategies that

would increase community involvement in the promotion of local development. More training and capacity building initiatives of more community members and their subsequent active participation in the project would be strategic in helping them gain appreciation and understanding of community development challenges. Other local notables, village and district heads should be incorporated in steering the development ship to ensure sustainability.

To improve their livelihoods, community members need adequate exposure and receive training in business management skills. Supportive follow-up mechanisms will also need to be put in place to ensure that funds availed to members are put to good use and maximize their utility.

The development and effectiveness of D'kar Trust is inextricably linked to the development of the appropriate infrastructure, not just in terms of equipment and material but the construction of infrastructure for the betterment of all.

The trip to Masendu in Zimbabwe awakened the development zest for the D'kar community. A number of practical activities can be undertaken between now and when the project ends. Typical cases, which were also highlighted at the Village Development Workshop for Developing Strategic plans (10–11 June 2010), include renovation of the classroom block and the development of a fully-fledged library would sustain the interest especially people were primed/excited in the aftermath of the visit to Masendu in Zimbabwe.

The partnership between Kellogg Foundation and BA ISAGO will be strengthened with the presence of the Project Director on the ground leading the team close to the scene of action. It is my considered view that necessary resources will be availed so that activities will be timeously executed.

The dependency syndrome' hitherto witnessed in the D'kar community is a sad development. In order for the communities to fully support projects and meaningfully engage, there is need to capacitate the local communities' livelihoods. These capacity building efforts will go a long way if they are internally generated and demand driven.

The leadership training programme went well and the participants interacted and contributed adequately to the presentation. Underlying issues relating to the training and applicable D'kar were presented and discussed. The training achieved its basic objective on the reasons as to why good governance principles need to be upheld both at the community and trust level. However, it becomes apparent that the team working spirit and leadership skills were lacking on the part of the major stakeholders of D'kar Trust.

The workshops were very successful as witnessed by the high attendance and the workshop objectives were achieved. Most of the participants showed lots of understanding in the area of leadership with high level of participation and participants though they have learned much especially on the area of advocacy. The workshop evaluation report suggests that participants found it good to excellent in all assessable areas.

References

Brodtrick, O. (1998). Organisational learning and innovation: Tools for Revitalizing Public Services. *International Review of Education*, 64, 1

Further Reading

- Bellman, G. M. (2001) *Getting things done when you are not in charge* (2nd ed). San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Bennis, W.. (2003). *On becoming a leader. Rev. ed.* Cambridge: Perseus
- Bennis, W., & Burt, N. (1985). *Leaders strategies for taking charge*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Bennis, W. & Goldsmith, J. (2003). *Learning to lead: A workbook on becoming a leader* (3rd ed). Cambridge: Perseus.
- Caroselli, M. (2000). *Leadership skills for managers*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Chapman, E. N. (1989). *Leadership: What every manager needs to know*. Chicago: SRA Pergamon
- Cihak, H., & Joan S. H. (2002) *Leadership roles for librarians*. Buffalo: William S. Hein & Co.
- De Pree, M. (1987). *Leadership is an art*. East Lansing: Michigan State University Press
- Evans, G. E., Patricia, L. W., and Bendik R. (2000) "Leadership." *Chap. 13 in Management basics for information professionals*. New York: Neal-Schumann
- Feroni, M., & Castle, P. (2011). Public-private partnerships and sustainable agricultural development. *Sustainability*, 2011. www.mdpi.com/journal/sustainability
- Gordon, T. (1977) *Leader effectiveness training, L.E.T.: The no-lose way to release the productive potential of people*. New York: Wyden Books
- Harrell, K. (2003). *The attitude of leadership: Taking the lead and keeping it*. Hoboken.: John Wiley & Sons.
- Harvard business review on what makes a leader. (2001). Cambridge: Harvard Business School Press
- Gertzog, A., ed. (1989). *Leadership in the library/information profession*. Jefferson: McFarland
- Kouzes, J. M., and Barry, Z. (2002). *Posne. The leadership challenge. 3d ed.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Murphy, E. C. (1996). *Leadership IQ: A personal development process based on a scientific study of a new generation of leaders*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Pearce, T. (2003) *Leading out loud: Inspiring change through authentic communication. Rev. ed.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Presidential Task Group on a Long Term Vision for Botswana. (1997). *A long term vision for botswana—towards prosperity for all*. Gaborone: Government Printers.

Chapter 14

Lifelong Learning and Development in Botswana

Wapula N. Raditloaneng, Morgen Chawawa

14.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises all the conclusions drawn in each of the 13 individual chapters to carve the way forward in lifelong learning and development. This final chapter of the book, the authors argue that lifelong learning is relevant for articulating the Human Rights based approach to poverty and poverty eradication through university engagement as part of the broad agenda of Education for sustainable development. The third mission of universities provides the infrastructure for universities to be relevant, effective and efficient in paying back, through serving communities, the price communities paid for the elites to be at a comparative advantage. Until the ivory tower gap is closed by universities particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa, the global social development programmes through lifelong learning remain an unfinished agenda.

The book is made up of 14 chapters compressed into 3 parts as follows:

14.2 Part One: Lifelong Learning

Part A of this book has chapters that focus on lifelong learning, policy development for poverty eradication and participation. The first part (Part A) has 4 chapters that focus on the social purpose of lifelong learning. The Introduction Chap. 1 on Lifelong Learning: Meaning and Scope has provided definitions of what counts as

W. N. Raditloaneng (✉)

Faculty of Education, Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana, P/Bag 00702,
Gaborone, Botswana

e-mail: Raditloa@mopipi.ub.bw

M. Chawawa

Botho University, Gaborone, Botswana

e-mail: chawawa@yahoo.com

lifelong learning, meaning and scope using a variety of perspectives. Several conclusions can be drawn from this chapter:

Lifelong learning covers formal, informal and non-formal modes of delivery that all human beings go through from the cradle to the grave. Lifelong learning is also a very personal and individualistic experience that is never alike for any two or more people. Botswana lifelong learning policy context is premised on an education subsystem still lacks equality. Although literacy levels are very high (68–70%) the San have not been able to be lifelong learners with skills that put them on the same platform with the rest of the ethnic groups in Botswana. Their marginalization and disadvantages in all fronts have put them in a position of helplessness, therefore making them worthy of a group to study. Key issues here are widening participation in education programmes across a lifespan, and measuring that education offered is of top quality and relevance to promote lifelong learning in a broad sense.

Within the Botswana context, two major aims of lifelong learning are to improve Botswana for better life and access to the corporate world and to develop educational and training programmes responsive to the needs of the ever-changing economy. The Economic Diversification Drive as espoused in the 2013 State of the Nations Address suggests that lifelong learning for poverty eradication cannot be overemphasized.

Specific objectives of lifelong learning are to promote community and human development, and to promote an environment that helps people to be able to cope with the challenges and demands of change.

Lifelong learning takes place everywhere; therefore it cannot be straight jacketed to the confines of a classroom. A variety of delivery modes are in existence to promote lifelong learning globally.

In Botswana, the main ones are. a) Basic education and training: Examples include, but are not limited to Adult Basic education, Formal learning, Non Formal learning, Pre-primary learning, Primary learning, and Secondary learning and Out of school education.

- a. Continuing Education: Examples include, but are not limited to Continuing education and re-entry of the adult learners, learning by special needs groups, Vocational/technical education and training, and learning that takes place in Tertiary institutions.
- b. Extension workers' education and training: Examples include, but are not limited to Extension education, Training of trainers for extension work, extra mural studies and Life skills training.
- c. Open and Distance education: Examples include Open and distance education, Leisure education, Community education Environmental education and tourism.

All the above modes of delivery promote lifelong learning. In all the above modes of delivery facilities that promote lifelong learning include libraries, ICT, partnerships and availability of initial funding to start businesses.

Chapter 2 of the book focuses on Lifelong learning, poverty and community engagement. Lifelong learning and its dimensions including other interventions are essential for people to make a transition from poverty to non- poverty in all fronts.

There are different types of poverty and those that are emphasized here include poverty as income insufficiency, social deprivation and injustice. Poverty (income, capability, participatory and consequential) is usually typified in low indicators of good quality of life, gender inequality, and a cycle of transmission from one generation to another.

Some of the destitute poor are socialized to give up and fail to make an efforts to rid themselves of poverty while others are resilient enough to engage successfully in poverty reduction programmes under the auspices of the state and non- state actors. The life histories of the poor in two areas—one urban and one rural, suggest that identities are crucial for people to make a transition from poverty to non- poverty. The success of poverty reduction programmes depend on the ability of participants to make a break through financial, educational and other identified challenges.

Poverty is not an equal offender, hence it is more rampant amongst groups, including the San, that are educationally, economically, and socially disadvantaged. Poverty is caused by natural disasters that are not easily controllable and human causes often compounded by social injustice and deprivation. Poverty is also associated with illiteracy, gender-based violence, and different forms of socio- cultural abuse. University community engagement and conducive policy contexts are some of the strategies for African universities to pay back to their respective communities through local, regional and international partnerships.

Both lifelong learning and community engagement are tools for developing new ways of conceiving poverty and better ways of managing it.

Chapter 3 is about Botswana's National Policy on poverty, and strategies for poverty reduction. These are discussed with a special focus on Lifelong learning and how Botswana made a gradual transition from poverty reduction to poverty eradication. The main focus is on poverty reduction programmes, both past and present. The initial focus was on ways to reduce poverty. Since the last five years, a gradual shift has been made to strive towards total eradication of poverty to make a significant impact in the lives of the victims. Poverty is more rampant amongst groups, including the San, that are educationally, economically, and socially disadvantaged. Poverty is caused by natural disasters that are not easily controllable and human causes often compounded by social injustice and deprivation. Poverty is also associated with illiteracy, gender-based violence, and different forms of socio- cultural abuse. University community engagement and conducive policy contexts are some of the strategies for African universities to pay back to their respective communities through local, regional and international partnerships.

Both lifelong learning and community engagement are tools for developing new ways of conceiving poverty and better ways of managing it. It can be concluded that a variety of state and non- state based responses to poverty have been tried. Those that worked have been retained and modified while those found unsuitable were replaced with more relevant ones within a given context.

Chapter 4 is on Entrepreneurship Development Training and Lifelong learning: The chapter hi- lights the interface between poverty and sustainable environmental education. A conclusion drawn is that until human populations can use environmental resources in a sustainable way, the need for environmental education has

to continue for positive results. Environmental problems aggravate poverty; hence they need to be tackled to avoid poverty related to improper use of environmental resources and bad conservation practices.

A properly done SWOT analysis at a micro level can lead to success. A variety of entrepreneurship skills are needed for success. The skills are applied in different context as the business environments and incidents dictate. A more robust macro level analysis—PESTEL, is also proposed as important to gauge success of any programmes geared towards promoting lifelong learning, poverty eradication and community service and engagement. PESTEL requires an analysis of the PESTEL is an acronym for the Political: Economic: Social: Technological: Ecological and Legal structures in place as an environmental scan to gauge the potential for success of human social programmes for promotion of third mission, lifelong learning for poverty eradication.

This part of the book is about enhancing the contribution of the third mission of universities to poverty reduction and lifelong learning serves as part of the global agenda of Education for Sustainable Development (ESD). ESD is about bringing change in several areas such as access to education, credit, employment structure, paid and unpaid work, ability to earn or obtain a source of livelihood for human pride and dignity. ESD adopts a rights based approach to education as a basic human right for bridging gaps and realizing social justice. about The Third Mission of universities must contribute to lifelong learning for positive behavioral change in the lives of the poor in Sub-Saharan Africa and particularly the D'kar community which is the focus of the case studies used to showcase best practice in community service and engagement. The global development route must be change for the betterment of the lives of communities with lifelong learning as promoted through the third mission of universities.

14.3 Part Two

Part two of the book focuses on the human dimensions of poverty taking into account business development training and, environmental issues, poverty within the San community, reducing poverty by inventive entrepreneurial skills, and youth and women's empowerment.

Chapter 5 is on lifelong learning and small business management skills. The importance of capacity building through training is stressed as crucial for developing entrepreneurship skills for poverty eradication. Both men and women were taught skills of an entrepreneur and how to invent goods and market them for sale to earn income and use that as a source of livelihood. They were also equipped with entrepreneurship skills such as marketing, customer care and service, small business, what counts as an enterprise, business planning, book keeping, etc. It was also concluded that while some entrepreneurs have influence and grooming by parents or guardians from early childhood, others have to be trained for success. People can be trained to acquire the requisite skills and do a SWOT analysis of themselves or

organisations to determine the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats to their business idea or real environment.

This part of the book focuses on application of lifelong learning to environmental education problems, poverty reduction within the San community through inventive entrepreneurship. The youth in Gantsi are also discussed taking into account their quest for leadership roles and strengthening of traditional leadership. The book is informed by Sen and Nussumbas functionings and capabilities as articulated in the Social Justice theory, with a lot of emphasis on functionings and capabilities.

Functionings are ‘beings and doings’, that is, various states of human beings and activities that a person can undertake. Examples of the former (the ‘beings’) are being well-nourished, being undernourished, being housed in a pleasantly warm but not excessively hot house, being educated, being illiterate, being part of a supportive social network, being part of a criminal network, and being depressed. Examples of the second group of functionings (the ‘doings’) are travelling, caring for a child, voting in an election, taking part in a debate, taking drugs, killing animals, eating animals, consuming lots of fuel in order to heat one’s house, and donating money to charity.

Capabilities are a person’s real freedoms or opportunities to achieve functionings. Thus, while travelling is a functioning, the real opportunity to travel is the corresponding capability. The distinction between functionings and capabilities is between the realized and the effectively possible, in other words, between achievements, on the one hand, and freedoms or valuable opportunities from which one can choose, on the other.

The ability to act and engage in programmes to reduce poverty is a lifelong desired goal for the world to be a better place than it is for the poor.

Chapter 6 is on Lifelong learning and entrepreneurship development training as one of the drives towards poverty eradication, with a special focus on the San community of D’kar in Botswana. The chapter on *Reducing Poverty by Inventive Entrepreneurship Skills* builds on the discussion in Chap. 6 by suggesting inventive entrepreneurship as a way of reducing poverty amongst the San. The process of producing Batik cloth is discussed as one of the training programmes to capacitate D’kar women to produce cloth for sewing and sale. By the end of the training session, the first cloths were produced and ready to be worn or converted into goods for sale. This is aligned to the training and Education drive of the Government of Botswana.

Poverty in Botswana: The “Why Poverty” film and documentary by Steps International was broadcast to reach over 5000 million viewers around the world to kick start national and global debates on poverty in the twenty-first century. Eight one hour documentaries dealing with a variety of aspects of poverty were broadcast week of November 25th—30th 2012 through 70 broadcasters (The Voice, Friday November 23rd 2012, p. 6). This documentary is expected to spark debates on whether women were better at getting out of poverty than men and other questions related to “Why poverty”, as well as experiences of women and men in India and other parts of the world.

14.4 Corruption as a Cause of Poverty

As mentioned earlier, poverty in Botswana is caused by a range of human and natural problems. Amongst the human problems that have been identified since the last 10 years are allegations of corruption especially by senior civil servants and other in the high ranks of governance structures. Land grabbing, embezzlement of public funds and looting by members of parliament, cabinet ministers and top civil servants have been reported to various courts, including corruption courts, in relation to grabbing land for personal gains, allegations of bribery, and personal enrichment. Amongst the top stories were the BAMB corruption allegations, BMC failure to serve farmers, BDC allegations of wrongly tenders to Chinese companies, a Can manufacturing company worth millions of pula, and Serala-BTC deal involving, amongst others, a failure to declare person interest in the award of tenders under the auspices of BTC. While it is not the intension of the book to conclude whether or not corruption has been established, such allegations were very commonly made in 2012 (2012; Parliamentary Committee Report on the BDC (November 2012) with headings such as “BDC fat cats...”; “Fungyue lawyers says Matambo to blame for BDC mess”. “Another BDC embarrassment”. “Khama must act on BDC”.... (p. 12)

14.5 Poverty Eradication Strategy

“A total of P4, 6 million was used in poverty eradication events in Phuduhudu, Sehunou, and Struizendam” Minister of presidential affairs said this is parliament (p. 3, The Patriot, Sunday, November 18, 2012). Over 400 public officers participated per event in the three areas: Diphuduhudu spent P949, 080, Sehunou/Motseghaletau P1, 1,509,788; and Struizendam P2, 191, 396. The last PITSO was held in Dikhukhung in 2012. The Struizendam Poverty Eradication Workshop was held 1st to 3rd November themed “Towards dignity for all” (2012)

Botswana like other African countries is a patriarchal society where women are mainly expected to be submissive and be led by men. Patriarchal tendencies often render women’s role as invisible in the public domain. Women need to be targeted for training so that they can rid themselves of poverty, which has a woman’s face. Trained women in D’kar are key actors in community projects, craft production and in performing household chores. Their often forgotten role in community development is illuminated in this chapter and how they were able to learn, work on batik and face challenges of starting their own businesses, and identifying markets for their products.

On setting up sustainable partnerships, Kuru, now known as the Kuru Family of Organizations (KFO), is a broad-based San support organization that engages in a wide variety of development activities. Its work ranges from doing capacity-building among community-based organizations to assisting local people in income generation and agricultural projects. Starting first in D’kar in western Botswana,

Kuru expanded to other communities in Ghanzi District and in North West District (Ngamiland). Kuru was the first non-government organization to work directly with San in Botswana besides faith-based institutions. In the 1990s Kuru staff initiated an Early Childhood Care and Education Program (ECCE), part of which was devoted to establishing and running preschools. KURU is made up of a number of NGOs that specialize in providing services to the settlements where the San form a significant part of the population.

On sustainable environmental education, the emphasis is that poverty reduction and environmental sustainability go together. D'kar is a disadvantaged community which has over the last ten years had donors supporting community projects with the ultimate aim of reducing poverty. However, projects were not sustainable beyond the duration of donor funding. It was observed that as Botswana experienced donor fatigue from graduating from a list of the world's poorest countries to a middle income one, donors came, worked and left the D'kar community.

Not much was achieved in terms of sustaining previous income generating projects. The planners of the partnership between Kellogg and Ba Isago observed that there was a need to change the mindset and give time to developing it over a couple of three years before expecting any meaningful sustainable income generating projects.

Kellogg and Ba Isago University College worked on a different strategy to change the mindsets, train and groom the community members towards sustainable income generation projects that engage different actors. As the project was monitored over the last three years, different levels of impacts were observed and these are the focus of the last part of this chapter.

The human dimensions of poverty: Sub-Saharan Africa, including Botswana, is confronted with poverty, general ignorance, illiteracy and inadequate access to education for gainful employment. A lot of progress has been made in widening universal access to education in Botswana. There are issues of quality that the country must resolve for reduction to be a robust force in poverty eradication as desired. In this part, it can be concluded that poverty is a global problem that disproportionately affects human populations by gender, race, ethnicity, and class. Poverty eradication is an overdue human rights issue. How poverty is tackled using lifelong learning through university engagement needs to be transformed for significant outputs.

Poverty eradication as one of the components of development should mean, amongst others, a lifelong search for new ways of eradicating poverty, and phasing off of obsolete programmes that do not make any significant impacts in the lives of affected communities. This includes access to employment, including self-employment and any project that can give people opportunities to earn or obtain a sense of livelihood, through a transformed entrepreneurship mindset. Lifelong learners must go through a changed entrepreneurship mindset to rid themselves of poverty. The entrepreneurship mindset is a resilient one that does not give up, stays focused on the ultimate goal, until the battle against poverty is won for a world without poverty.

Chapter 6 on Environmental Education Issues and poverty reduction suggest that sustainable use of environmental resources is very important for sustainable development. In conclusion, sustainable use of environmental resources is important for conservation for poverty reduction.

Chapter 7 discusses poverty with a special focus on the San. While it is appreciated that poverty is a global problem, it disproportionately affects people of different genders, countries and ethnic groups. The San are amongst the hardest hit by poverty in Botswana.

Chapter 8 is on Youth and Traditional Leadership in D'kar Community:

The D'kar community has got a predominantly young unemployed population (18–29 years). This population needed to be targeted for present and future leadership roles. Part of the role of Ba-Isago-Kellogg project was to capacitate the youth to develop leadership skills and takeover responsible roles for developing their community.

The chapter adopts a classical view of leadership and provides a rationale for leadership training within the D'kar community. The youth are usually perceived to be future leaders. This chapter covered the leadership and governance issues that were raised during workshops with D'kar Community leaders and youth. Several leadership styles and governance issues were discussed. The leadership skills have been combined with governance skills because it was observed that the Board of Trustees of D'kar KURU Development Trust, which is the only institution that is responsible for providing social services to the residents of D'kar is made up of members who have not had any elections since the Trust was formed.

The youth, to be effective and efficient leaders, need to develop or polish their traditional leadership skills to succeed in taking their community to greater heights in poverty reduction and improved health to curb corrupt practices, and the spread of HIV/AIDS which is one of the fatal health problems in Botswana. The Ba- Isago/ Kellogg project provided training for youth to lead in advisory capacity during the duration of the partnership and beyond.

Chapter 9: The Kellogg Foundation Guidelines on Community Development:

This chapter discusses the Kellogg Foundation Guidelines that paved the way for community development and engagement programmes through BA ISAGO University College in Botswana. draws from the work of the Kellogg Foundation Project for D'kar Development Trust facilitated by BA ISAGO University College under which women in D'kar attended a number of training programs to build their skills in tie and dye cloth production. The main objective of the training was to give the women special skills to make clothing materials through tie and dye which they would sell to tourists and create jobs for themselves. This activity is designed to alleviate poverty in the community and enhance self-sufficiency in the homes of target group. A Fabric paint project existed in D'kar for the past 10 years under Kuru D'kar Trust but it failed to make a positive impact on the community because of lack of involvement of the beneficiaries. As a result, there were only two women left in the project. It has now attracted fifteen women who are happy with the current leadership, which allows them to make important decisions on the project and the products made.

The process of capacity building is discussed in the context of three major actors: The Dutch Reformed Church, NGOs role over the last ten years, women and their role in income generation, and the Kellogg Foundation capacity building programme. The chapter gives highlights of some of the actual activities that were undertaken by community members as part of Capacity building for sustainable development and they include the list below: Principles of Business Management; Records and Bookkeeping for Small Businesses; Poultry Management; Good Governance for Board of Trustees; Traditional Leaders, Restaurant Hotel Management; Hotel Management; Cooperative Management;

Restaurant Management; Educational visit to a poultry farm in Botswana; Women, and Leadership and Economic Empowerment; Leadership and NGO Governance Training for Church Leaders and D'kar Elders Leadership and Board Management; Leadership and Strategic Planning for Businesses; Tourism Business Opportunities in Botswana; Customer Care and Marketing; Project Management, Opportunities in Tourism and Techniques of Game Farming. The trainees were councillors, staff and Village Development Committees.

The chapter further makes a link between capacity building and sustainable development. One of the key reasons for the existence of poverty is lack of capacity by communities to design and engage in sustainable development projects. It should be noted however that not all problems associated with poor performance in entrepreneurship development are attributed to lack of capacity. However, based on the training needs assessment, it was observed that most of the previous efforts had failed due to lack of capacity to sustain successful enterprises.

Botswana like other African countries is a patriarchal society where women are mainly expected to be submissive and be led by men. Patriarchal tendencies often render women's role as invisible in the public domain.

This chapter concentrates on the work of the Kellogg Foundation Project for D'kar Development Trust facilitated by BA ISAGO University College under which women in Dkar attended a number of training programs to build their skills in tie and dye cloth production. The main objective of the training was to give the women special skills to make clothing materials through tie and dye which they would sell to tourists and create jobs for themselves. This activity is designed to alleviate poverty in the community and enhance self-sufficiency in the homes of target group. A Fabric paint project existed in D'kar for the past 10 years under Kuru D'kar Trust but it failed to make a positive impact on the community because of lack of involvement of the beneficiaries. As a result, there were only two women left in the project. It has now attracted fifteen women who are happy with the current leadership, which allows them to make important decisions on the project and the products made.

Trained women in D'kar are key actors in community projects, craft production and in performing household chores. Their often forgotten role in community development is illuminated in this chapter and how they were able to learn, work on batik and face challenges of starting their own businesses, and identifying markets for their products.

The three year duration of training and retraining work of NGOs with Ba Isago University within the poor San community of D'kar in Botswana was meant to equip the poor with inventive entrepreneurship skills. NGOs have served as gap fillers in partnership with the Government of Botswana for the San Community. Although the project had not been summatively evaluated at the time of writing this book, what became clear is that the trained San were able to make some products as a starting point towards developing show-casing the fruits of their training, and a changed mindset and skills for sustainable entrepreneurship development.

This chapter covers the history of KURU Family of Organisations. Kuru Development Trust was founded as a multipurpose development institution and registered officially with the Botswana Government as a charitable organization in 1986 after lengthy discussions with people in western Botswana and other parts of southern Africa. Kuru, now known as the Kuru Family of Organizations (KFO), is a broad-based San support organization that engages in a wide variety of development activities. Its work ranges from doing capacity-building among community-based organizations to assisting local people in income generation and agricultural projects. Starting first in D'kar in western Botswana, Kuru expanded to other communities in Ghanzi District and in North West District (Ngamiland). Kuru was the first non-government organization to work directly with San in Botswana besides faith-based institutions. In the 1990s Kuru staff initiated an Early Childhood Care and Education Program (ECCE), part of which was devoted to establishing and running preschools. KURU is made up of a number of NGOs that specialise in providing services to the settlements where the San form a significant part of the population.

D'kar is a disadvantaged community which has over the last ten years had donors supporting community projects with the ultimate aim of reducing poverty. However, projects were not sustainable beyond the duration of donor funding. It was observed that as Botswana experienced donor fatigue from graduating from a list of the world's poorest countries to a middle income one, donors came, worked and left the D'kar community.

Not much was achieved in terms of sustaining previous income generating projects. The planners of the partnership between Kellogg and Ba Isago observed that there was a need to change the mindset and give time to developing it over a couple of three years before expecting any meaningful sustainable income generating projects. This chapter also covers the work of the Dkar KURU Development Trust before 1986. It was formed by the Dutch Reformed Church to provide social services to the San Community that developed around the Church farm. The San were running away from the white farmers who had taken over their land. The Church provided a sanctuary for them but it struggled to provide jobs and much needed social services such as water, roads, schools, and health care. Soon the Government of Botswana had to step in to fulfill this role. The fear of government interventions continues up to this day.

Kellogg and Ba Isago University College worked on a different strategy to change the mindsets, train and groom the community members towards sustainable income generation projects. As the project was monitored over the last three years, different levels of impacts were observed and these are the focus of this chapter.

Chapter 10 is on the Kellogg Foundation Guidelines on Community Development:

The Kellogg Foundation Guidelines on community development are based on the assumption that development is essentially about building the capacity of communities to make their own economic, social and spiritual decisions. The process is targeted at selected sites and communities, where careful experimentations of change processes can be undertaken and documented, in order to generate new insights and knowledge that can be shared with other sites and communities across the sub-region. The aim of the approach is to help build local capacity for self-drive—particularly in youth, women and families. The capacity to self-drive is developed through supporting rural communities to learn to self-start, self-assess, and self-correct. The approach further aims to build the leadership systems and the capabilities needed to provide local people with a favourable environment, as well as the confidence and resources to lead their own social and economic transformation. The emphasis is thus on local communities' ability to initiate, implement and assess programs and initiatives that serve their own needs and thereby reinforce their self-drive mindset.

This chapter, in conclusion further provides the Ba- Isago and Kellogg Foundation partnership and guidelines and how these were applied to the ITMUA case study project since 2009 when Kellogg started working with the community. Community development poses challenges of understanding the demographic characteristics of the poor and making an input to the betterment of their lives.

In practice, the third mission of universities—community service for development—provided the space to address such challenges of developing the D'kar community in a way that refocused its research and teaching missions to transform and revitalize the relationship between higher education and national development needs through the Ba Isago and Kellogg Foundation.

14.6 Part Three: University Community Development and Engagement

Part three of the book is on the last 4 chapters that focus on University community development and engagement.

Chapter 11: Community service, lifelong learning for poverty reduction in selected African universities:

In this chapter we discuss two projects that typify community service and engagement for poverty reduction. First is the experience of BA ISAGO University College training project in partnership with Kellogg Foundation in the implementation of the Community Based Planning Programme that was based on the ZOOMING APPROACH in the DKAR Community and its surrounding resettlements areas, which are occupied by the minority San Tribe. The ZOOMING APPROACH is a participatory and interactive engagement approach to local development, developed and refined by the WKKF's Africa Programme on the basis of lessons and

experience from its work in the region. Another project given as an example of best practice is the ITMUA project which studied two cases of community engagement.

The main argument posed in this chapter, using the four university projects mentioned above, is that community service is, compared to teaching and research, (first and second missions) expected of university academics. However, this third mission of universities and their engagement with communities is usually underdeveloped because of the growing attention paid to teaching and research in promotion applications.

The ITMUA regional collaborative project which informs this chapter consisted of an African partnership network of four universities. The network was funded by the British Academy African Partnerships (BAAP) programme 2006–2009. The network conducted small scale case studies, in association with the University of Glasgow, into the effectiveness of non-formal education (NFE) for poverty reduction. The ITMUA project built on those findings to explore the potential role of NFE (as a key aspect of community service) in higher education on a wider scale.

The chapter discusses community service, student and community learning for poverty reduction by illuminating examples that promoted best practices from the ITMUA project discussed earlier in **Chap. 2**. ITMUA was a Pan-African action research study funded by the Association of African Universities between 2010 and 2011 involving the University of Calabar in Nigeria, Universities of Botswana and Malawi and the National University of Lesotho. The aim was to explore the extent to which university community service missions were addressing, and could be developed to address, national priorities in relation to the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that were agreed in the year 2000 by most countries around the world as global targets to be reached by 2015.

The ITMUA project aimed to investigate ways in which community service can complement teaching and research activities in responding to diverse communities and national development needs. In this chapter we discuss two projects that typify community service and engagement for poverty reduction. First is the experience of BA ISAGO University College training project in partnership with Kellogg Foundation in the implementation of the Community Based Planning Programme that was based on the ZOOMING APPROACH in the DKAR Community and its surrounding resettlements areas, which are occupied by the minority San Tribe. The ZOOMING APPROACH is a participatory and interactive engagement approach to local development, developed and refined by the WKKF's Africa Programme on the basis of lessons and experience from its work in the region. Another project given as an example of best practice is the ITMUA project which studied two cases of community engagement.

The main argument posed in this chapter, using the two university projects mentioned above, is that community service is, compared to teaching and research, (first and second missions) expected of university academics. However, this third mission of universities and their engagement with communities is usually underdeveloped because of the growing attention paid to teaching and research in promotion criteria applications.

Chapter 12 builds on Chap. 11 by focusing on Capacity Building for Sustainable Development in D'kar Community: Three key actors have been very instrumental in building capacity of the San over the last decades: The Dutch Reformed Church, Women and Non Governmental Organisations. The D'kar community resides on a farm originally owned by the Dutch Reformed Church. The church initially played a very active role in developing the plot but efforts were pulled back by gaps in donor support. Lack of continuity is a factor in residents reverting to alcohol and substance abuse as a result of having no work to occupy their lives.

The chapter gives highlights of three key actors in capacity building, and some of the actual activities that were undertaken by community members as part of Capacity building for sustainable development. The Dutch Reformed Church, NGOs including Kellogg Foundation, and women.

The Dutch Reformed Church served the D'kar community very well in setting up KURU Development Trust. This chapter covers the work of the D'kar KURU Development Trust before 1986. It was formed by the Dutch Reformed Church to provide social services to the San Community that developed around the Church farm. The San were running away from the white farmers who had taken over their land. The Church provided a sanctuary for them but it struggled to provide jobs and much needed social services such as water, roads, schools, and health care. Soon the Government of Botswana had to step in to fulfill this role. The fear of government interventions continues up to this day.

The D'kar community resides on a farm originally owned by the Dutch Reformed Church. The church initially played a very active role in developing the plot but efforts were pulled back by gaps in donor support. Lack of continuity is a factor in residents reverting to alcohol and substance abuse as a result of having no work to occupy their lives. Working as a Trust-Kuru Family has given impetus to renewed donor support and it is now up to the communities in the area to take advantage of the training to rid themselves of poverty.

The chapter further illuminates the work and Impact of NGOs over the last ten years in D'kar San Community through the KURU Family of Organisations. Kuru Development Trust was founded as a multipurpose development institution and registered officially with the Botswana Government as a charitable organization in 1986 after lengthy discussions with people in western Botswana and other parts of southern Africa.

The capacity building training can be classified as leadership and management training, business management and technical training. The list of courses covered were:

Principles of Business Management; Records and Bookkeeping for Small Businesses; Poultry Management; Good Governance for Board of Trustees; Traditional Leaders, Restaurant Hotel Management; Hotel Management; Cooperative Management;

Restaurant Management; Educational visit to a poultry farm in Botswana; Women, and Leadership and Economic Empowerment; Leadership and NGO Governance Training for Church Leaders and D'kar Elders Leadership and Board Management; Leadership and Strategic Planning for Businesses; Tourism Business Opportunities

in Botswana; Customer Care and Marketing; Project Management, Opportunities in Tourism and Techniques of Game Farming. The trainees were councillors, staff and Village Development Committees.

The three year duration of training and retraining work of NGOs with Ba Isago University within the poor San community of D'kar in Botswana was meant to equip the poor with inventive entrepreneurship skills. NGOs have served as gap fillers in partnership with the Government of Botswana for the San Community. Although the project had not been summatively evaluated at the time of writing this book, what became clear is that the trained San were able to make some products as a starting point towards developing show-casing the fruits of their training, and a changed mindset and skills for sustainable entrepreneurship development.

The chapter further makes a link between capacity building and sustainable development. One of the key reasons for the existence of poverty is lack of capacity by communities to design and engage in sustainable development projects. It should be noted however that not all problems associated with poor performance in entrepreneurship development are attributed to lack of capacity. However, based on the training needs assessment, it was observed that most of the previous efforts had failed due to lack of capacity to sustain successful enterprises.

Working as a Trust-Kuru Family has given impetus to renewed donor support and it is now up to the communities in the area to take advantage of the training to rid themselves of poverty.

Chapter 13 is on Building Partnerships for Sustainable Community Development:

This chapter uses examples of Non-State Actors partnerships with the San and Government of Botswana Departments that were invited to inform the people of Dkar on some of the social services and economic empowerment programmes that were available for the people. The ultimate goal of capacity building is to eradicate poverty. Apparently many people in D'kar were not aware of what opportunities were being offered by the Government. So the meetings that were conducted by the Kellogg Foundation project were highly informative, and were appreciated by the residents of D'kar. In this chapter, we share the details of the government programs and how the community could benefit from them.

MDGs as ratified in 2004 have a goal that speaks to the importance of partnerships. Signed up to by all country members of the United Nations, MDGs 8 has provided an added impetus to refocus and re-align partnership issues around development needs around the MDG targets:

MDG goal 8: Develop a global Partnership for Development.

Local, regional and global partnerships are crucial to build for prudent management of scarce resources to promote lifelong learning, poverty reduction programme strategies for sustainable community development and engagement even without donor support.

This chapter provides examples of Government of Botswana Departments that were invited to inform the people of Dkar on some of the social services and economic empowerment programmes that were available for the people. Apparently many people in D'kar were not aware of what opportunities were being offered by

the Government. So the meetings that were conducted by the Kellogg Foundation project were highly informative, and were appreciated by the residents of D'kar. In this chapter, we share the details of the government programs and how the community could benefit from them.

MDGs as ratified in 2004 have a goal that speaks to the importance of partnerships. Signed up to by all country members of the United Nations, MDGs 8 has provided an added impetus to refocus and re-align partnership issues around development needs around the MDG targets:

MDG goal 8: Develop a global Partnership for Development.

Local, regional and global partnerships are crucial to build for prudent management of scarce resources to promote lifelong learning, poverty reduction programme strategies for sustainable community development and engagement even without donor support.

Overall, this last section of the book contributes to a better understanding of initiatives in community service and engagement for poverty reduction. Development cannot be achieved without sustainable use of human, natural and non-human resources. It is therefore imperative that any efforts to bring about development must address all issues and design robust and requisite interventions. Amongst the issues to address are environmental issues, educational challenges, amongst others.

Community development through lifelong learning requires short term and long term goals to ensure that the already socially, economically and educationally disadvantaged groups, especially the San, are targeted to redress the ethnic based disparities aggravated by geographical location, issues of social status, class and gender.

References

Botswana Guardian, November 16th 2012.
Struizendam Poverty Eradication Workshop. Botswana Daily News, October 29th, 2012, no. 204, p. 4. Gaborone: Government Printer.

Further Reading

Republic of Botswana: Presidential Address. Gaborone: Government Printers.