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# Complementary functions of formal and non-formal education in Lesotho.

Ramoshebi Ishmael Maboe Moletsane  
*University of Massachusetts Amherst*

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COMPLEMENTARY FUNCTIONS OF FORMAL AND  
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN LESOTHO

A Dissertation Presented

By

Ramoshebi Ishmael Maboee Moletsane

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

August 1977

Education

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COMPLEMENTARY FUNCTIONS OF FORMAL AND  
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN LESOTHO

A Dissertation Presented

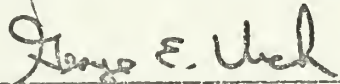
By

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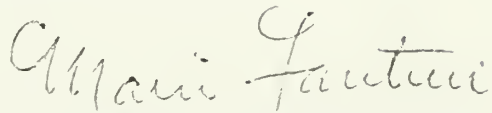
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Dr. George E. Urch, Member



Dr. Billie G. Murphy, Member



Dr. Mario Fantini, Dean  
School of Education

DEDICATED

To my beloved, late

Paternal Grandfather, Chief Retselisitsoe Alfred Moletsane

and

Maternal Grandfather, Rev. Rapululu John Kabi

## A C K N O W L E D G M E N T S

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I express my thanks to: the former UNESCO Chief Technical Advisor in Lesotho, Dr. Dwight H. Allen; the former Dean of the School of Education in the University of Lesotho, Dr. Peter Hunter; the authorities of the Kingdom of

Lesotho; the authorities of the United Nations Development Program in Lesotho; the administrators of my program in the Institute of International Education in New York and the administrators of the Center for International Education in this University.

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Lastly, I thank Mrs. Caroline Couin, without whose help and services this work would have been incomplete.



ABSTRACT

COMPLEMENTARY FUNCTIONS OF FORMAL AND  
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN LESOTHO

(September, 1977)

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The study has identified, in the country of Lesotho, three areas of education that have a strong bearing on the lives of the people. They are formal, non-formal and indigenous education. An attempt has been made to find out how these three areas relate to each other in terms of their structure, content and contribution to the national goals of that country as specified in the National Plans.

"Education" here means more than classroom learning experiences as it is often regarded in Lesotho. Any learning experience, whether acquired inside of or outside of a classroom, is considered education.

Findings of the study are based on library research, interaction with top government officials such as the

Prime Minister of Lesotho as well as other nongovernmental people interested in or directly involved in the affairs of the educational system of Lesotho. Government reports and personal experience played a major role during data collection.

The study is divided into five sections. Chapters I and II outline the problem, the approach to the study and the geo-historical setting of the country. Chapter III focuses on the two National Development Plans--the First (1969/70-1974/75) and the Second (1974/75-1979/80). Here an analysis is made of how far the education provided in Lesotho since independence assists in the achievement of the set national goals. Chapter IV describes and analyzes education in Lesotho, and the three areas of education mentioned earlier, formal, non-formal and indigenous, are scrutinized. Chapter V, the fourth section, describes several exemplary efforts in other developing countries of groups of peoples who have managed in some aspects to practice complementarity of formal and non-formal education as an attempt to make education reach more people and assist in speeding up development. The last section, Chapters VI and VII, focus on Lesotho. Here the study specifically identifies facilities and resources that can benefit disadvantaged people outside the formal schools as well as those inside the classroom. The end of this section recommends several ways in which formal, non-

formal and indigenous education could reduce the isolation they have maintained for so long. Suggestions are made on how each educational sector can draw from the other to be more effective.

To achieve maximum complementarity of the three areas of education suggested involves the utilization of facilities and resources within the government ministries, the society, voluntary local organizations and the primary institutions such as chieftainship. The study concludes that such an approach would make it possible for education to reach many more people than was ever possible in the past. In so doing many Basotho, especially the rural folk who form eighty-five percent of the population, would have their skills enhanced and improved in various ways. Education would thus make a significantly larger contribution to the achievement of Lesotho's national goals as delineated in its planning documents.

This kind of approach to education would definitely meet problems. Foreseeable constraints are mainly financial and socio-political, and many of them have been faced by formal educational systems in the past. Despite these constraints, the investigator is convinced that education in Lesotho will change for the better and the country would have a brighter future in the area of education to the extent that complementarity of all three areas of education can be implemented as suggested in this study.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### Background

Over the past decades Western formal education has been looked upon by most people as the main tool not only to acquire knowledge but also to achieve status, power and personal comfort. Basotho were no exception. Even today the majority of population still bear this notion towards education.

However, long before Western education was introduced in Lesotho, people had their own indigenous educational system which was modified and/or severely eroded by the modern foreign colonial educational system. Today many people in the country, both local people and expatriates, have voiced their concern about the entire educational system. The government and people of Lesotho have begun to question the relationship between what is learned at school (formal education) and those learning experiences and skills acquired outside the classroom (non-formal) education. The concerns go further in questioning the present educational system and its relevance towards the achievement of national goals.

## The Problem

Many prominent Basotho both in high and low positions, are aware that there are problems in the present educational system. They complain of bad effects of the system inherited from the British colonial era and the missionaries. Some of the reasons brought forward are quite sound and they can be substantiated. The major complaints are that:

1. The colonial government was mainly interested in training Basotho to be efficient clerks, proficient in English language and not competent in their administrative duties--to be "on their own" later during independence.
2. Training which was given to Basotho did not go far enough to make them function without foreign supervision--mainly British--even after attaining their independence.
3. Basotho, who were trained during colonial government, were mainly prepared for lower echelons of the civil service; top posts were reserved for foreigners, especially British citizens.
4. Education, as introduced by missionaries through their schools, emphasized Christian religion and morals at the expense of the national and societal values of the Basotho; besides missionaries were more interested in converts than in developing and promoting skills that could help them to be self-reliant.

5. The country would not have been forced to depend on importing skilled labour, at both high and middle level echelons, if from the beginning--or long ago--provision had been made to seriously train Basotho in these areas, including technological skills.

Lesotho is ten years old--as its independence was declared in 1965. Remarkable changes have been made in various specific areas in an attempt to have an educational system that answers the needs of the country by assisting in the implementation of national goals. However, the major stumbling block is the strong and resistant influence of the colonial era and the missionaries. For example, almost all schools are still run by missions. The government has recently gained an upper hand through its commitment to salaries of all teachers at all levels. Among many changes made in the past few years of independence the following are significant since they introduced a new approach to the education of the Basotho people:

1. Curriculum development for primary schools and certain subjects in secondary schools.
2. Automatic promotion at both the primary and secondary level.
3. Seven years in primary education instead of eight years.



4. Phasing out seven mission teacher training colleges and substituting for them, one national teacher training college.
5. Expansion of the two technical schools in the country.
6. Nationalization of the local university.

All these changes and reforms are said to be for the "good" of the nation. Whenever a change is introduced the rationale stated is that it is an attempt to relate education to the needs of the country.

What has to be established through this study is to find out what role the government and the people of Lesotho expect education to play. This will be a big step forward to discover how theory and practice merge in this area. Furthermore, if it is established that education is now playing its proper part, the question to be answered through the study is: "How effective is it?" If it does not, factors which lead to its failure, shortcomings and discrepancies will be identified and thoroughly analyzed.

Since most people (both government and non-government, nationals of Lesotho and expatriates) have already shown great concern over the role of education and its lack of orientation to the needs of the country, the other main task of the study will be to document suggestions of how this problem could be overcome.

In summary, the problem is perceived in two major areas. The first area is to analyze the present education

provided in Lesotho and discover how far it is able to address the needs of the country as specified in the national plans. The second area will be a thorough exploration of areas whereby formal and non-formal education could be exploited through complementarity to contribute significantly in the achievement of national goals and the acceleration of development. There are signs that complementary and supplementary functions of both full-time, formal education and part-time, non-formal education have not yet been tapped enough to make education in Lesotho a useful tool in the country's national development.

#### Basic Facts Related to Education in Lesotho

The following facts have a strong relationship to education in Lesotho:

1. Before missionaries, commercial traders and the British colonial government personnel resided in Lesotho, some form of education already existed within the society of the Basotho. Western education, introduced by the three above mentioned groups, had a great impact on the Basotho and their evolution.
2. In Lesotho and in many other developing countries, both Basotho and expatriates have understood education to mean formal schooling, mainly. Non-formal or out-of-school education has remained neglected until recently. Vocational education received hard treatment.

3. The attainment of diplomas and certificates through formal schooling has been a major tool for social status and upward mobility. People do all they can to send their children to schools to achieve certificates in order to qualify for status and better jobs in the society.
4. Numerous non-formal education agencies exist in Lesotho and they continue to grow in numbers. Since they are not coordinated, there is a lot of waste in terms of human and financial resources. Secondly, they are not yet given their proper place in the education sector. As a result, they have not been able to contribute significantly to the education of the Basotho.
5. Changes that have been introduced during secondary curriculum development do not necessarily mean that education now addresses itself to the needs of the country.
6. The Five Year Development plan has specific objectives for the education and training sector. However, these objectives are never spelled out clearly for teachers and the nation as a whole. Unless teachers are well informed about the national plan, implementation of the plan will be handicapped since teachers are a critical factor.
7. Missionaries have continued to play a vital role

in running the schools in the country. Though there are indicators that the government may take them over one day, parents seem to entrust education of their children to the mission schools rather than to the staterun schools.

#### Need and Justification for the Study

Lesotho has limited resources. It cannot afford to continue spending huge sums of money for an educational system which does not meet the needs of the country. The table below illustrates the increased expenditure on education over a period of half a decade. In 1970, it was 16.99 percent, but by the end of 1974, it had reached 21.67 percent of the national expenditure. According to government sources, at the end of the fiscal year 1974-75, the cost of education had escalated to R4,064,750 (1R=\$1.15).

Table 1. Recurrent Expenditure on Education as Percentage of National Recurrent Expenditure 1971-1974 (in R000's)

Time Period	Expenditure on Education	National Expenditure	Percent
1970-71	2,081.5	12,251.4	16.99 (17%)
1971-72	2,227.7	12,440.5	17.91 (18%)
1972-73	2,786.0	13,926.8	20.00 (20%)
1973-74	3,015.0	13,915.8	21.67 (22%)

Source: Five Year National Development Plan (1964/65-1969/70), the Government of Lesotho, Page 176.

There are two main conclusions that could be drawn from the data in Table 1. First, between 1970 and 1972, the growth rate of expenditures was one percent. Thereafter, it rose to two percent. Secondly, even when national expenditures decreased in 1973-1974, the budget for education continued to increase.

Education is an important factor in the development of the country, as reflected by the recurrent expenditure figures shown in Table 2 of the Second Five Year Development Plan. The table (their number 4.2) shows education as a priority and a great investment. A comparison of various ministries will make the picture even more clear with education receiving 26 percent of the total budget.

Table 2. Comparison of Ministerial Distribution of Recurrent Expenditure 1969/70 and 1974/75 (in thousands of Rand)

Ministry	Actual 1969/70	Percent	Revised Estimate 1974/75	Percent	Change in Percent
Agriculture	970	8.5	1,652	9.2	+ 0.7
Health	998	8.7	1,276	7.1	- 1.6
Education	2,244	(19.6)	4,703	(26.1)	+ 6.5
Finance	910	8.0	1,304	7.2	+ 0.4
Commerce & Industry			212	1.2	
Justice	373	3.3	420	2.3	- 1.0
Interior	743	6.5	752	4.2	- 2.3
Prime Minister	871	7.6	668	3.7	+ 1.2
			925	5.1	

Source: Second Five Year Development Plan 1975/76-1979/80  
Page 28 (PDO).

Figures clearly show that education expenditure is far higher than any other Ministry in the country. It should, however, be realized that education is a long-term investment. Approximately more than three-fifths of its numerous components are tertiary and consumable rather than productive. Perhaps this is compensated for later by services of the products, i.e., developed human resources. It is proper that education should be accountable to its costs.

Since very little has been done in this area of complementarity of formal and non-formal education in Lesotho, the study lays a basic foundation for future research. It is hoped that government educational planners will find the study helpful in their efforts to plan a system which not only provides an education for most of the people but an education which benefits both those in school and out of school. Furthermore, the strategies suggested in the study could be a basis for education carried out by government planners and any other people interested in complementary/supplementary functions of formal and non-formal education.

In summary, the objective of this study is divided into the following four action areas:

1. To find out what the expectations of the people and the government are towards the educational system and how it attempts to meet those expectations;

2. To analyze the educational system and discover factors which lead to success or failure of the system to meet the expectations of the Basotho;
3. To propose positive steps and strategies that could improve the relevance of education to meet the educational needs of the country as specified in the national plan;
4. To detail a plan of how formal and non-formal education can complement/supplement each other as an attempt to contribute significantly to the achievements of national goals.

#### Definition of Terms

In the context of this study, the following terms will bear the meaning described under each one of them:

1. National goals:

An outline plan of what the country intends to achieve in development over a period of time, e.g., a Five Year Plan. It is in such a plan where priorities and strategies of implementation are spelled out by the government.

2. Development:

Change introduced for the betterment of a society in its social, political, economic and educational spheres. Development is taken as a comprehensive concept, including a broad range of economic, political, social and humanitarian ideals.

3. Formal education:

This is an organized, structured and institution-alized form of learning in schools in which specific skills are acquired by individual students from teachers and books. There are special curriculum, time lines, specific methods of instruction, methods of evaluation leading to grading and awarding of certificates.

4. Non-formal education:<sup>1</sup>

Any organized, systematic educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population, adults as well as children.

5. Informal education:

It will mean an unsystematic form of learning experience acquired without going to formal school or participating in a non-formal education program. Individuals learn on their own if motivated, through exposure and interaction.

6. Manpower:

Various categories of the labour force that exist in the country, both skilled and unskilled.

7. Migrant labour:

Though universally upheld to mean movement from



one country into another, it will at times be used to include movement from rural to urban areas.

8. Colonial era:

The period between 1868 when the country voluntarily asked for protection from the British until 1966 when it became independent from the mother country rule.

9. Employment:

In the context of this paper it means any activity which generates income either for an individual or a group of individuals through application of a skill resulting in profitable production. Such an operation may be either self employment or master-servant employment in agriculture, handicrafts, small industries, tertiary and/or secondary activities.

10. Urban/Rural Areas :

In this study urban areas are the nine towns ranging from six to ten thousand people. These urban areas are administrative and business centers in Lesotho. The rest of the country will be regarded as rural.

Approach to the Study

Several approaches were used in collecting data.

The first major source was specific government documents which pertained to policy and planning in Lesotho. Among

utilized documents the following vital government papers were secured:

1. The First Five Year National Development Plan 1969/70-1974/75
2. The Preview of the Second Development Plan 1974
3. The Second Five Year National Development Plan 1974/75-1979/80
4. Census Statistical Reports 1966 and 1976
5. Quarterly Statistical Bulletins 1975 and 1976.

Library research was the second method used in acquiring more information for this study. The Five College libraries in Massachusetts, Amherst, and libraries in African countries that the investigator visited (Lesotho, Botswana, Swaziland, Nigeria and Ghana) were a great resource. The resource centre in the Center of International Education at the University of Massachusetts (Amherst) is included in this category.

The investigator subscribes to three important local newspapers in Lesotho.<sup>2</sup> These publications, written in the vernacular, provided the public's opinion towards education and other related topics. Two of the newspapers (Moeletsi oa Basotho and Leselinyana) are independent, while the third, (Mochochonono) is completely run by the government. Often it was possible to ascertain the governmental stand in opposition to the public's opinion in educational issues through these two sets of newspapers. Africa Report, one of the leading magazines on African events, was a valuable resource.<sup>3</sup>

The Center for International Education at the University of Massachusetts has been involved in non-formal education for the last six years. Its staff has travelled widely; its student body come mainly from third world countries. It has been frequented by visitors from different parts of the world who are interested in the future of non-formal education in relation to existing formal systems. Interaction with these people was beneficial.

International bodies such as USAID, FPA, UNESCO, ACOSCA, RTI and the American Council for Education provided me with reading material or opportunities that enabled me to gather more information on formal and non-formal education.<sup>4</sup> Seminars, research work, workshops and consultancy were some of the major educational activities the investigator participated in through these organizations.

Visits made to Lesotho, Botswana, Swaziland, Ghana, Nigeria--and also here in the United States--during the period of data collection provided opportune moments to interview government officials and several key people. Questions were unstructured and open-ended. These questions inquired mainly as to the role of formal and non-formal education in the achieving of the national goals of those countries. An attempt was made to find out how countries used the complementary functions of formal and non-formal education.

In Lesotho visits were made to archives, libraries and research was undertaken through reports of various

ministries as well as the local university. Numerous schools and several different projects in rural developments were visited in order to gain first-hand information.

Finally, the author has drawn on his own experience in the educational processes of Lesotho. He has been involved with primary and secondary schools, the Institute of Extramural Services and the School of Education of the local University, workshops and workcamps in the rural areas, and agricultural and other community development projects in the southern region of the country. This experience has contributed first-hand information.

#### Limitations

1. The distance between Lesotho, the basis for this study, and the United States of America where the study is undertaken, is, of course, a handicap.
2. In any newly born state such as Lesotho, changes develop rapidly. By the time the study is over, some conditions will certainly have changed!
3. Available materials for analysis of the educational system from relevant ministries may be neither adequate nor forthcoming.
4. Unreliable figures from various reports are bound to affect findings and conclusions.
5. Field experience to back up this study will be missed.

## Handling and Processing of Data

1. Analysis of data began by a review of the First Five Year Development Plan (1969/70-1974/75).

The following key questions were addressed:

- a. What were the national goals?
  - b. Were these goals achieved in regard to the expectations of the government and the people of Lesotho?
2. The second step in processing data was to focus on the whole educational system of Lesotho. This included a descriptive analysis of indigenous, formal and non-formal education in the country. The questions addressed in this area were:
    - a. What are the expectations of the Basotho and their government towards education?
    - b. Has education been able to cope up with these expectations?
    - c. If "Yes", how could more improvements be made?

If "No", what factors led to the failures?

3. The Second National Development Plan (1974/75-1979/80) has outlined areas which will give emphasis in the future with regard to the achievement of national goals. An analysis of how the present educational system could contribute to the process of carrying out national goals was

undertaken. Strategies of the part education should play were scrutinized and suggestions were made where investigation rendered it necessary.

4. Government reports, statistical bulletins and reports by education commissions were studied and the following vital points were sought:
  - a. An assessment of how the national plans were met and implemented;
  - b. What the contribution of education was in the achievement of national goals;
  - c. The opinions of the government officials as to how effective education has been in the implementation of the national plans in the last five years.
5. The public opinion of the Basotho was extracted mainly from the three major local newspapers written in the vernacular. It was through the analysis of education-oriented articles in these papers that the expectations of the people were ascertained.
6. The development of human resources was found to be a key factor in Lesotho's national goals. This area, more than any other, seemed directly affected by the educational system. Comparative analysis of how productive the formal system was without the complement of the non-formal education element was

undertaken. Later an exploration of how human resource development could be maximized through complementary/supplementary functions was made.

7. The following indices were utilized as measurements of the educational system's productiveness.
  - a. Rate of passes in the primary education;
  - b. Rate of passes in both junior and senior secondary schools;
  - c. Drop-out rates;
  - d. Primary and secondary education teaching force;
  - e. The relation of primary, secondary and vocational schools and institutions of higher learning to the surrounding villages.
8. Still in the area of human resources, a descriptive analysis of the total labor force, including migrant labor, was carried out. An exposition of how these figures affect the implementation of national goals was undertaken. It tested the ability of the country and its capacity to absorb skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labor to its maximum benefit. The exercise on labor force was concluded by weighing the statistics of the migrant labor force against in-country employment opportunities.

## Organization of the Study

The study has been developed into six chapters as follows:

Chapter I: Introduces the problem, the need for the study, definition of terms, the approach that was used, limitations and methods of processing collected data. The chapter also includes curriculum issues and some basic facts related to education in Lesotho

Chapter II. Sets the historical and geographical background of the land and the people of Lesotho. The chapter pursues the same economic aspects of the country and how they are affected by available human and non-human resources within the country. The role of education as an investment is looked into at the conclusion of the chapter.

Chapter III. Reviews the First and the Second National Development Plans. An attempt is made to find out what the country expects of the present educational system and whether the expectations are met. An analysis of how far effective the educational system is, begins from this chapter and continues into the next chapter.

Chapter IV. Starts by a descriptive analysis of the present formal education. Under the section,



non-formal education, indigenous education as a root for the modern non-formal education is discussed. The concluding section ends with a review of the present non-formal education and what role it plays in the achievement of national goals.

Chapter V. Consists of a selection of fourteen countries--twelve developing and two developed. The chapter reviews the experiences of these countries in their attempts to implement complementarity/supplementarity of formal and non-formal education. Seven of the developing countries are African. This chapter goes further to consider lessons that Lesotho could learn from these countries.

Chapter VI. Identifies physical facilities and other resources which could be of use by both formal and non-formal education. Such facilities and resources could facilitate complementarity between the two sectors of education, thus making education more efficient. The chapter goes further to identify various types of clientele which would benefit from the proposed complementary-supplementary approach.

Chapter VII. The final chapter makes specific recommendations and specifies how they could be implemented. Constraints, too, are reviewed as are the advantages of providing for the complementary functioning of formal and non-formal education.

## NOTES: CHAPTER I

<sup>1</sup>Adopted definition of non-formal education from "Attacking Rural Poverty" (Page 8) by Philip Coombs and Manzoar Ahmed.

<sup>2</sup>Three local Sesotho newspapers are Leselinyana la Lesotho, Moeletsi oa Basotho and Mochochonono.

<sup>3</sup>Africa Report: A magazine on Africa produced by Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey.

<sup>4</sup>International Bodies:

USAID: United States Agency for International Development;

FPA: Family Planning Association;

ACOSCA: Africa Cooperative Savings and Credit Association;

UNESCO: United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization;

RTI: Research Triangle Institute in North Carolina.

## C H A P T E R   I I

## THE SETTING: LESOTHO, THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE

## Historical Background

The Kingdom of Lesotho, in Southern Africa, became a British colony in 1868. The British protection was the result of a request by Chief Moshoeshoe I in response to the political problems that faced the country at the time. The Basotho had had endless battles with their neighboring African tribes as well as with the Boers.<sup>1</sup> The latter had driven Basotho to the mountainous area of the country, which is a physical feature that for years protected Basotho from being conquered by any other nation, prior to British protection.

The country has always been surrounded by a hostile society of Dutch-speaking origin. The situation has remained unchanged. Lesotho's political and economic history has been very much influenced by its position of being locked in by a country, not only hostile, but also different in socio-political ideology.

Although the nation originally consisted of several distinctly different clans and tribes, the country today is blessed with a fair amount of social unity and one main language, Sesotho. Both Sesotho<sup>2</sup> and English are

official languages; the great majority of people can speak enough English to communicate with outsiders. Almost everybody can speak Sesotho, a phenomenon which has tended to blend the nation through the years.

Like many other African nations, Lesotho has practiced a form of socialist democracy since its origin. Chieftainship, matrimony and extended family institutions have played a vital role in this Agrarian Society.

In the 'fifties almost the whole of the continent of Africa had undergone political consciousness, which ended in the independence of several countries. This wave began in and was much stronger in North West Africa. In the early 'sixties, Lesotho experienced this change also, and in 1966 she became politically independent from the United Kingdom. In 1976, Lesotho celebrated her tenth anniversary and was able to review her progress since 1966.

Religion has been one major characteristic of the Basotho. It is historically reported that Basotho prayed originally to God with their late ancestors as mediators. This continued until 1833, when Christianity was introduced by missionaries from Western Europe. Today the whole country is under the strong influence of Western religion and values. There exist three main denominations, Roman Catholic, Lesotho Evangelical and Anglican, and many minor denominations.

## Geographic Background

Physical Features. The country is small and mountainous, with an area of 11,716 square miles. Lesotho is often referred to as the "Switzerland of Southern Africa"<sup>3</sup> or the "Roof of Africa"--the country contains the highest peak in the region.<sup>4</sup> She is entirely landlocked and according to geographical records, is one of the few countries in the world which is completely surrounded by another state.

Lesotho can be divided into four main regions. The Lowlands comprise 17.14 percent of the total surface, and it is in this area where the major population sector resides. The foothills, lying between 6,000 feet and 8,000 feet make up 15.57 percent of the total surface of the country. The Orange River Valley covers 9.47 percent of the country. Finally, the mountains, covering more than half of the country make up 57.82 percent of the land area of Lesotho.

The climate is extreme with very cold winters and very hot summers. Rains come mainly in summer, between November and March. In general, rain falls in thunderstorms. Statistical records show that snow falls about eight times annually--most of it falling in June and July.

The country is mainly a grassland with very few indigenous trees. Because of the cold, poor, shallow soils

and high mountains, trees have not done well. Overstocking and certain human activities such as walking have caused excessive soil erosion. Bush and poor Karroo vegetation have, therefore, encroached in most areas where original vegetation has been destroyed.

Population. The first population census was conducted in 1875 and figures stood at 127,523.<sup>5</sup> Today, the population of Lesotho is officially estimated at 1,213,960.<sup>6</sup> For the last ten years, the average growth rate recorded is 2.27 percent a year,<sup>7</sup> which is quite high according to accepted international standards.

In August 1976, the government of Lesotho and the International Labour Organization, jointly conducted a national seminar on Family Welfare and National Planning. It was in this seminar that vital statistics on various aspects of Lesotho population were disclosed. For example, it was found that the preliminary figure given for the 1976 census was 1,214,000 persons, and this implied a population of about 1,327,000 by 1980. This is a considerable increase on the already pressured little country with a limited amount of cultivatable land, meager resources and few attractive or satisfactory job opportunities.

Table 3 shows the growth of population figures over the last several decades.

The majority of population consists of the descendants

of the original Bantu inhabitants of Lesotho. There are few Whites, Asians and Coloureds. They came either as traders, missionaries or government civil servants.

Table 3. Population Statistics of Lesotho, 1911 - 1976

Year	Males	Females	Total	Males per 100 Females
1911	204,241	222,196	426,437	91.92
1921	260,169	282,909	543,078	91.96
1936	317,309	343,237	660,546	92.45
1946+	247,661	316,193	563,854	78.33
1956	383,241	410,398	793,639	93.38
1966	465,784	503,850	969,634	92.44
1976	586,870	627,090	1,213,960	93.59

Source: Lesotho Government and ILO, National Seminar on Family Welfare and National Planning, August 1976, Page 29.

Settlements are concentrated and mostly rural. There are nine urban towns which act as administrative centres for the nine districts into which the country is divided. Kinship and family ties influence the location of households and villages. There is a very strong tendency for families to live--or gravitate--together, which is traditional with the Basotho. The average size of a household is about five persons.



The preliminary figures of the 1976 census indicate that there are more females than males--627,090 and 586,870, respectively. The official sex-ratio record is given as 93.6 males per 100 females. Later on in this study, it will be illustrated how disadvantaged women are--even though they are a majority in the country!

Two surveys conducted in 1967/68 and 1971/72 by the Bureau of Statistics show that 40 percent of the total population consists of persons under the age of 15 years and seven percent of the population comprises those aged 65 years and above. This reflects a serious problem of almost half of the total population's being composed of dependents. As the report of the National Seminar on Family Welfare and National Planning puts it: "The higher the rate of population, the higher the dependency ratio."<sup>8</sup>

### The Economy

Agriculture. Agriculture forms the background of the country, since it is the major source of income for 85 percent of the population. Crop production and livestock rearing provide for both home consumption and sales for cash income.

Because of poor, shallow soils, steep slopes, rugged mountains and rocky hillsides, only 15 percent of the entire surface of the land is cultivatable. Under the

section on population, it has been indicated that the population explosion is beginning to put pressure on the arable 15 percent of the land.<sup>9</sup> Three-quarters of this land is in the lowlands and the foothills and this is where villages are concentrated. The result is that today not everyone who qualifies for land possesses it. The shortage of land increases annually.

Although agriculture is the largest productive sector in the country, it has been reported by the Information Service in the Ministry of Agriculture, that crop production is declining. The striking decrease in crop yields over the last twenty years is attributed to several factors which might be social, economic, scientific and/or political.

Some of the reasons are recorded below:

1. Climate conditions can be adverse. Periodic droughts, hail, frost and unreliable torrential rains at the wrong times during the ploughing or planting season, all make agriculture very risky.
2. The shortage of suitable farm labor is acute since able-bodied men have left for schools, urban areas within Lesotho itself and also to the neighboring South African mines, firms and farms where there are employment opportunities. Most work is carried out by elderly men, women of various ages and inexperienced boys.

3. The land-tenure system has been somewhat a handicap. Land is communally owned and controlled. Each person has fragmented pieces of farmland. The law prohibits the fencing of land, and a farmer cannot easily rotate his crops as he or she wishes. After harvesting, stalks on the fields belong to the community and they form part of the communal grazing area. This factor contributes to delays in important decision-making by a farmer, since he or she has to wait until the society has used the stalks on the fields before planting the next crop.
4. Despite remarkable attempts by the Agricultural Extension Unit and many other voluntary agencies interested in farming, agricultural education has not yet succeeded. Methods of cultivation remain too simple and unscientific in most areas. A majority of farmers farm for home consumption only.
5. Lack of cash has contributed to the uneconomic subsistence crop farming as most farmers cannot afford to pay for the necessary inputs: fertilizers, good certified seeds, equipment, drought oxen or tractors for ploughing and cultivating.
6. Credit facilities and development funds are limited. Where they prevail, like in the selected project areas, they prove inadequate or badly distributed.

Agricultural crop statistics of 1950-1972 show that crop production has declined substantially. This is illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4. Crop Statistics, 1950-1972  
Yield (200 lb. per acre)  
One bag equals 200 pounds

	1950	1960	1970	1971	1972
Maize	5.3	3.7	2.3	3.6	2.4
Sorghum	4.0	3.8	3.1	4.1	3.8
Wheat	4.5	3.8	2.4	3.1	2.7
Peas	4.5	3.3	1.8	1.6	1.4
Beans	1.5	1.6	1.0	1.1	1.0

Source: Lesotho, Government Authorities  
Agricultural Censuses 1950, 1960, and 1970.

It is apparent from the table that production of grains used as staple food (maize, sorghum and wheat) has declined considerably. For example, maize has fallen from 5.3 to 2.3. And during this 20-year period, it became harder and harder to purchase mealie-mealie from the Republic of South Africa because of prices which were raised tremendously in January of 1977. This placed the entire country in a difficult economic situation. Perhaps a thorough educational campaign would be one approach to the problem.

Government records show that 70 percent of the popu-

lation in Lesotho own livestock, whose production accounts for 40 percent of the total production of the agricultural sector to the GDP. The main livestock population consists of sheep, goats and cattle.

Poultry and pigs have gained ground substantially in the last ten years. Exports of mohair, wool and other livestock products contribute about three million rand annually.

This section of farming faces several problems which have tended to handicap its progress. Several of these are:

1. The climatic and physical features of the country are not conducive to animal husbandry. For example, droughts affect both the grazing pastures or any attempt to raise fodder crops; rugged topography cannot suit dairy cows, etc.
2. Overstocking has led to serious overgrazing and soil erosion problems. Education by extension personnel has not convinced farmers of the repercussions resulting from pastoral mismanagement and overstocking.
3. Originally the Basotho possessed livestock for social reasons more than for economic ones. Thus far it has been difficult to adopt proper methods of controlled breeding and to get the people to agree to rear only a certain number of

livestock. The Agricultural Extension Service has tried to convince them--but in vain.

It is these problems, plus others, which have led to the present decline of agricultural productivity.

Human Resources. Lesotho's main potential resource is its people, and the fact has often been emphasized by the government's top officials, economists, educators and planners. Unskilled labor is abundant and underutilized. The rate of disguised unemployment and plain unemployment is likely to be very high because of the lack of job opportunities and entrepreneurship initiative.

Employment opportunities within the country are very limited. Industries are few and most are too young to absorb any substantial numbers of employees. That leaves the government as a major employer. Other social services and para-statal bodies employ hundreds of people annually but this is just a drop in the ocean. The population statistics show that 9,000 additional men and women join the labor force annually. In the meantime, signs of unemployment in both rural and urban areas are already clear and apparent.

Women form a potential human resource in the country. A large proportion of men--estimated at 60 percent of the labor force (about 120,000 people)--work in the Republic of South Africa as cheap migrant laborers, leaving thousands of women on their own to tend animals, farm the land, and take complete care of the family.

As Frederick Harbison states in his book, Human Resources as the Wealth of Nations, under-utilization of human resources is one of the most outstanding weaknesses in the developing countries. Lesotho is no exception. According to Harbison, increase of labor forces in these countries outpaces the generation of employment opportunities. This has been proved by Lesotho's failure to reach its goal of creating 10,000 jobs during the implementation of its First Five Year Development Plan (1970/71-1974/75). Harbison goes further to say that:

There are many manifestations of under-utilization of human resources. Open unemployment, underemployment, undisguised unemployment or mal-employment are among the obvious.<sup>10</sup>

Mal-employment would include misplaced professional people: for example, certified teachers working as civil servants, medical doctors performing administrative jobs, and uncertified university graduates teaching in the secondary schools, etc. These are typical problems that face Lesotho as a developing country; under-utilization of human resources is an acute problem.

Mining. Despite several attempts to prospect for substantial deposits of minerals, there has been no outstanding success. The only known mineral which has been exploited in the last decade is the diamond. Unfortunately the only available record (1966-1972) of diamond exports reflects a great decline.

According to Table 5, discovered diamonds have decreased from nineteen to nine carats, while the value fell from 816 thousand rand to 196 thousand rand within a period of six years.

Table 5. Exports of Diamonds  
1966-1972

Year	Weight (thousand Carat)	Value in Rand
Average 1966-1969	19.0	816,000
1970	16.5	652,000
1971	6.8	212,000
1972	9.0	196,000

Source: Lesotho, Department of Mines and Geology  
Annual Report, 1972.

During an interview with the personnel of the Ministry of Mines, a strong statement was made, that traces of coal deposits existed in the country. It was difficult to assess, at the moment, how far economic the deposits might be.

Water Resources. Abundant clean water flows from the mountains of Lesotho during rainy seasons. Unfortunately, frequent droughts and seasonal unreliable rainfalls also affect the sources. In the highly populated lowland areas, water for domestic purposes is insufficient; while in the rugged mountainous area, there are substantial water re-



sources, particularly Malibamatso and the Orange Rivers.

Since 1969, the country has tried to explore possibilities of producing hydroelectricity from the two rivers mentioned above. The study on this potential was completed in 1971. However, the latest reports showed that the project would not take off because of a disagreement between Lesotho and its potential customer, South Africa.

Manufacturing Industries. Lesotho National Development Corporation (LNDC), which is a para-statal body, was established in 1967. The activities of this corporation have been very significant. Through the efforts of LNDC, jointly with foreign investors, several small industries have been opened in two areas in the country, Maseru and Maputsoe. Industries include the making of pots, candles, furniture, electrical appliances, as well as cloth printing, spinning, carpet weaving, tire treading and a variety of handicrafts.

What greatly lacks in Lesotho at present is processing of Lesotho's own raw materials which could bring forth significant income and provide jobs for a few thousand persons. Raw materials include meat, hides, wool, mohair, fruit, grain and abundant building materials (stone, sand and soil for brickmaking). This is a sizeable untapped resource.

Tourism. Lesotho has a beautiful mountain scenery which attracts tourists from outside the country. In the past, South Africans were major tourists to Lesotho. Today, tourists come from as far away as Western Europe and the

United States. Tourism is growing so fast that hotel building has been one of the construction goals of the government and LNDC. Besides sight-seeing, tourism in Lesotho provides visits to historical places, river fishing spots, horseback riding, traditional settlements, sports and a flight over the famous Maletsunyane Falls in the mountains.

Transportation and Communication. Basic transport is by road and air. Only 125 miles in the lowlands, along the main road from south to north, is tarmac. The rest of the country is reached and served by gravel roads, most of which are not accessible during rainy days.

Donkeys, mules and horses play a vital role in transportation of people and goods in the mountainous areas. It is reported that there are about 200,000 horses, donkeys and mules in the country.<sup>11</sup>

Civil aviation is at its early stage. The main airport has only three flights a week between the capital of Maseru and the international airport in Johannesburg, South Africa. Domestic flights take place daily on thirty-one small airfields and airstrips within the country--mostly in the mountains.

The telephone network is government controlled. It fairly covers lowlands. Mountainous areas are served by radio transmission operated by the police and the Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs.

Electricity is mainly supplied from South Africa to

serve the seven urban areas located in the lowlands. This fact increases the degree of dependence of Lesotho on South Africa, a factor which hinders the national goal of economic independence.

Migrant Labor. Lesotho has been associated with this necessary evil as far back as 1911. Quite a number of reasons have been brought forward by the Basotho as to why they have continued to migrate to South Africa. First, people have been compelled to leave Lesotho for economic reasons. Lesotho has very few industries to absorb the relatively abundant labor force--both semi-skilled and unskilled. As a result, most workers have no alternative but to leave for the neighboring country, which has more job opportunities than their home. Other migrant laborers do so to supplement meager income made from agricultural activities at home. Thirdly, there is a controversial reason given by some people that young men leave for the sake of status and adventure. Still another controversy is raised by the suggestion that many migrant laborers spend years in the Republic of South Africa to escape family obligations, political upheaval or legal prosecution.

It cannot be denied that migrant labor contributes substantially to the national income through remittances and deferred pay. By June 1976, the average deferred pay for three previous years amounted to R7,743,193.<sup>12</sup> This is the amount of money transferred by mining companies at the request of the Lesotho government to be banked in Lesotho

for the citizens. They claim it when they return home at the end of their contracts. In the same month, remittance money sent home to families by individual workers amounted to R3,381,944. These statistics reflect financial operations of miners only. Statistics for Basotho employed in South African firms and farms are not available.

The number of people that leave Lesotho to seek employment in South Africa increases year after year. This human resource erosion is reflected by the following table.

Table 6. Migrant Labour Figures

Year	Total
1921	47,141
1936	101,273
1946	127,000
1956	154,782
1966	117,000
1976	140,000

Source: P. Smit, Lesotho Geographical Study, 1967, p. 13.

The table of the number recruited and employed by the South African mines might illustrate this problem of human erosion more clearly. (See Table 7, Page 40.)

Despite the contribution it makes to the GNP, migrant labor has caused irreparable harm to the country in many ways. It affects agricultural production as described under

the section on agriculture. Socially, families have been disrupted by long periods of separation and this has led to instability of the society in general. Several health problems have developed or increased due to increasing migrant labor movements, e.g., lung diseases contracted in the mines themselves. Lastly, hundreds of thousands of Basotho have died in the mines through gas explosions, falling rocks, tribal fights, etc. All this is crowned by the most unsatisfactory treatment they receive from South African whites.

Table 7. Recruitment and Employment of Basotho Labour in the South African Mines  
1969 - 1974

Year	Average Monthly Employment
1969	83,000
1970	87,000
1971	93,000
1972	99,000
1973	110,000
1974	104,000
1975	113,000

Source: Lesotho, Department of Labour, Second Five Year Development Plan, page 14.

#### Education

Like other societies, the Basotho have had their own authentic educational system which was based on cultural

values, tradition and ideology. Informal education, apprenticeship, traditional schools, tutoring, and literature, etc., all played a very important role.

The arrival of missionaries from Western Europe in 1833 brought drastic changes to the concept of education in Lesotho. Education became completely associated with school buildings, formal school attendance, specific clientele, curriculum, teacher versus pupil situations and specified time lines.

Today, Lesotho has a complex educational system comprising both formal and out-of-school education. This will be pursued later in the study. By 1975 there existed 4,228 primary schools attended by 222,480 students, while 62 secondary schools accommodated 15,820 students. There are also vocational schools, a technical college, a National Teacher Training College and a small National University with 523 students in the academic year 1975/76.

Literacy ranks high among African countries, being estimated at 48 percent in Lesotho. Table 8 illustrates a remarkable increase of school enrollments at different levels over a period of five years from 1971 to 1975.

Education is not compulsory. Children begin schooling at the age of six years. Lesotho advocates universal primary education, but is caught between well-intended wishes and practice. However, in policy statements, it has been made explicit that education is one of the vehicles needed by the country to provide skills if it is to develop.

Table 8. School Enrollments in Lesotho  
1971 - 1975

Level	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
Primary	171,454	175,355	187,459	218,038	222,400
Secondary	7,816	11,936	13,412	14,908	15,823
University	NA	368	342	459	538*

Source: Lesotho, Bureau of Statistics, Maseru,  
\*The University became nationalized in 1975.

At present many people send their children to school voluntarily and the competition is very high. The following factors seem to motivate Basotho to send their children to school:

1. Future investment for individual families. As Edwin Mphahlele put it: "You must go to school, my son, and come and look after me and your brother and your sister..."<sup>12</sup> Parents send their children to school with a great hope and desire that formal schooling will provide them with good jobs and high salaries. They expect their children to support them financially later in their old age. Elderly sons and/or daughters are looked upon as a source of income once they are schooled and the children, in turn, feel obliged to assist their parents by catering for younger brothers and sisters in the family.

2. Employment opportunities. The British colonial era still has its effects even today. When referring to employment, people think mainly of white collar jobs in the government offices. Formal education is regarded and used as a tool for individual advancement and socio-economic upward mobility. This is one of the major reasons why Basotho educate children.
3. Counteraction of migrant labor. Since there are no industries in Lesotho to employ the ever increasing skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers, most people have crossed the borders into the Republic of South Africa. Numerous restrictions on ones life and unsatisfactory conditions of service for Blacks in South Africa make it difficult to live and work in that country. Yet, since Basotho have no choice, they go in great numbers. Basotho greatly detest to see their male labor force flow into South African mines. When one has gone high enough in formal education, one avoids the possibility of ending up in the mines.
4. Upward mobility and social status. Those who have been to school and succeeded in attaining a certain higher range of academic level progress much easier on the economic ladder. Besides,



they are respected by society. Parents aspire to see their children enjoy these privileges of socio-economic upward mobility and status for their sake and their children's sake, too. They encourage their children to go to school and study hard to attain a high academic level.

5. Escape from rural life into urban areas. Rural areas lack many services which people today aspire to. Having formal education, especially post-junior secondary and higher education, qualifies many rural people to obtain jobs in the civil service. This automatically enables them to stay in urban areas. In the facilities in education, health, entertainment and standard of living in general urban living is more attractive. Most Basotho educate their children so that they can share the good fortune of becoming civil servants and enjoying the better urban life.

It is this kind of educational system with which the study is concerned--in particular, how it contributes to the achievement of national goals.

## NOTES: CHAPTER II

<sup>1</sup>Boers: great grandfathers of the present generation of South African Whites; today known as Afrikaaners.

<sup>2</sup>Sesotho is the language spoken by Basotho in Lesotho.

<sup>3</sup>P. Smit, Lesotho Geographical Study, Communications of the Africa Institute, 1967, page 1.

<sup>4</sup>The highest peak in Lesotho is Thabana Ntlenyana at the altitude of 11,425 feet above sea level.

<sup>5</sup>P. Smit, Lesotho Geographical Study, Communication of the Africa Institute, 1967, page 12.

<sup>6</sup>Lesotho Government Quarterly Statistical Bulletin, Bureau of Statistics, Vol. No. 3, November 1976, page 2.

<sup>7</sup>"National Seminar on Family Welfare and National Planning," Lesotho Government and International Labor Organization Report, August 1975, page 23.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid., page 4.

<sup>9</sup>Lesotho First Five Year Development Plan, 1970/71-1974/75, page 9.

<sup>10</sup>F. Harbison, Human Resources as the Wealth of Nations, (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1973), page 19.

<sup>11</sup>Lesotho: A Development Challenge, The World Bank Country Economic Report, 1973, page 53.

<sup>12</sup>E. Mphahlele, The African Image (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1962), page 56.

## C H A P T E R   I I I

REVIEW OF THE FIRST FIVE YEAR NATIONAL  
DEVELOPMENT PLAN  
(1969/70 — 1974/75)

No doubt the first national plan was an historical milestone. It laid the foundation for many more years to come. The first Five Year Development Plan had several targets intended "to improve the well-being of the people of Lesotho"<sup>1</sup> and those targets were stated as follows in the Second Five Year Development Plan:

1. A minimum of five percent growth per annum of domestic output (gross domestic product);
2. A marked increase in agricultural productivity;
3. Promotion of non-agricultural development with special emphasis upon small scale industries;
4. Creation of 10,000 to 15,000 new jobs;
5. Preparation leading to the full exploitation of the nation's water and mineral resources;
6. Radical and government-directed development in education and training related to the needs of the nation;
7. The structuring of public administration to make it more economical and development-oriented;
8. Systematic localization through an effective policy, primarily in the public sector;
9. A substantial improvement in social services in general and in health standards in particular;
10. Termination of dependence of the recurrent budget on external aid; and
11. Strengthening of economic relations with other African countries.

## Analysis

This analysis is intended to determine how successful the country has been in achieving the goals which were set forth in the First Five Year Development Plan. In all cases figures have been extracted from Government documents, which were the main source and the most reliable at the time of this study.

The Gross Domestic Product. Due to the lack of statistical data Government planners have only made estimates about the GDP. Figures available cover only 1969/70 to 1971/72. During that period, growth exceeded five per cent (per year) and it is believed that during the last five year plan, GDP may have increased up to or over twenty-seven percent overall.

In his statement during the tenth anniversary celebrations in October 1976, the Minister of Commerce stated that Lesotho's gross domestic product had increased from forty-one million Rand in 1966 to approximately seventy million Rand in 1976. This means that in ten years time, GDP has increased quite considerably.

However, the Five Year Development Plan review reports and government officials have not mentioned that inflationary rises might lower these success figures relative to the increase of GDP. According to the latest information the rate of inflation in this region of southern Africa has been estimated at ten percent.<sup>2</sup>

Table 9 is a summary of the Lesotho Gross Domestic Product reflected in the review of the First Five Year Development Plan:

Table 9. Gross Domestic Product of Lesotho  
1969 - 1972

Sector	1969/70	%	1970/71	%	1971/72	%
Agriculture	18.85	43.4	17.34	40.8	20.07	41.4
Mining and Quarrying	.98	2.3	.74	1.7	.22	.5
Manufacturing and Crafts	1.04	2.4	1.15	2.7	1.35	2.8
Electricity	.12	.3	.15	.3	.19	.4
Building and Construction	1.06	2.4	1.14	2.7	1.26	2.6
Commerce and Catering	5.20	12.0	5.98	14.1	7.76	16.0
Transporting and Telecommunication	.58	1.3	.64	1.5	.89	1.8
Banking	.78	1.8	.58	1.4	.68	1.4
Ownership of Dwelling	6.41	14.8	6.57	15.5	6.87	14.2
Community and Social Services	7.11	16.4	6.90	16.3	7.71	15.9
Other Goods and Services	1.30	3.0	1.27	3.0	1.45	3.0
Gross Domestic Product	43.43		42.46		48.45	

Source: Lesotho, Second Five Year National Development Plan (1975/76 - 1979/80), Page 11.

Government revenues. The overall budgetary picture has shown a considerable increase in both domestic revenue and recurrent expenditure. Government revenues are reported to have risen by approximately fifteen percent per annum during the last Five Year Development Plan. The recurrent expenditure is reported to have increased by approximately thirteen percent annually within the same period. (See Table 10 on Page 50).

The increase in government revenues is another indicator of the level of economic activity. Lesotho began to be independent in its recurrent costs from the year 1965. This was quite a break-through and a positive move towards economic development and self-reliance.

Imports. Government reports indicate that there has been a substantial increase in the value of imports into the country. The Second Plan states that during the period of the First Plan, imports rose from R23.9 million in 1969 to R82 million in 1974. However, Government reports do not clarify whether imports rose due to improved purchasing power or to shortages of needed goods in the country.

Agricultural productivity. Increase in agricultural productivity is one of the major targets of the country since it is the basic occupation of eighty-five percent of the population. Improvement of agriculture is a good measure of the country's progress towards self-feeding

Table 10. Government Revenues

	1969/70	1970/71	1971/72	1972/73	1973/74	1974/75	First Plan Total
Domestic Revenue	11,644	11,409	12,931	21,931	21,356	28,958	87,059
Recurrent Expenditure	11,186	12,013	12,166	13,636	15,688	17,406	70,909

Source: Lesotho, Second Five Year National Development Plan (1975/76 - 1979/80), Page 27.

and self-reliance, as well as of its ability to produce surplus for sales which would raise the country's GDP. Figures relating agricultural output to GDP at the current factor cost show that the agricultural sector has increased its share of GDP from 18.85 percent to 20.07 percent. The increase is not significant at all. However, several projects have been launched on the basis of the moderate success realized by projects carried out during the First Plan.

Two large projects begun then are Thaba-Bosiu and Senqu, both of which are supported by UNDP and the World Bank. According to official statements these are major projects. A third major project recently begun is the Leribe project. Altogether, these projects cover just over ten percent of the nation's total arable land. The authors of the Second Plan were aware that this percentage of the arable land covered is too insignificant or too low to have immediate impact on the overall increase of food productivity. They, therefore, observed:

...while increases in agricultural productivity will undoubtedly occur after the area projects have been operating for several years, the total area covered by projects is still too limited to have a major or significant impact upon national agricultural productivity.<sup>3</sup>

No one would disagree with the following statement which assesses agricultural output in the last five



years in these words:

Five years is too short a period in which to formulate and initiate several projects and observe a significant impact upon national agricultural productivity.<sup>4</sup>

Nevertheless, there is still much room for improvement as reflected by progress achieved in other small projects in places like Liphiring, Mpharane, Thaba-Phatsoa and Kolonyama where cooperative experiments in farming have been undertaken over the period of five years.

Tourism. Tourism is one of the most active sectors and has grown considerably. Official sources state that tourism has far exceeded its targets in the last Five Year Development Plan. Hotels and other relevant services have generated substantial foreign capital. New jobs have been created due to the fast expansion of this sector. Furthermore, tourism has reinforced other economic activities such as handicraft, pottery and sheepskin production.

Small industries. Several industries were opened at the two main industrial areas during the First National Plan period. Areas given priority over others were Maseru and Maputsoe. The criteria for choosing these two areas are stated to have been: 1) nearness to a railway station (South African); 2) suitability for marketing; and 3) business trend.

These industries include manufacturing of pottery, umbrellas, sheepskin products, candles, lamps, furniture,

and hand-loomed rugs. Other processes such as diamond cutting and tire re-threading also began operations during the first plan.

Creation of new jobs. In spite of the plan's expectations, this area has fallen far short of the anticipated new jobs. The situation was exacerbated by a number of factors, including:

1. the shortage of capital and of opportunities to have mushrooming industries;
2. the lack of enough natural resources that could be exploited to create more jobs;
3. the already saturated civil service;
4. the absence of a sound private sector.

This first plan projected creation of ten to fifteen thousand new jobs. The preview reported that only six thousand jobs were created in the formal sector<sup>5</sup> and only three thousand in the informal sector;<sup>6</sup> which makes a total of nine thousand.

The Bureau of Statistics Office presented the following table showing the increases by sector:

Table 11. Paid Employment by Sectors

	<u>June 1975</u>	<u>March 1976</u>
Manufacturing (including handicrafts)	1,134	2,496
Construction	1,125	1,703
Tourism (hotels and restaurants)	536	1,441
Commerce (wholesale, retail, etc.)	2,687	4,196
Non-Profit Services	889	995

Source: Lesotho, Bureau of Statistics, Quarterly Statistical Bulletin, Vol. 1, No. 3, Nov. 1976, Page 26.

The failure of the country to absorb its labor force has led to a great loss of human resources through out-migration of labor, mainly into South Africa. Other countries such as Botswana, Swaziland, South West Africa, Rodesia and Zambia have taken less significant numbers. But for South Africa, figures are alarmingly high. Basotho are particularly drawn to the mines; although recruitment in that area did decline in 1974 as a result of racial clashes which occurred in that year. Additional Basotho, numbering from thirty to seventy thousand, have crossed the border into South Africa to find employment in various other sectors of that country's economy. It is clear, therefore, that an increase of six to nine thousand new jobs over a period of five years has had no significant impact.

Development of mineral and water resources. No outstanding mineral deposits have been uncovered. Several studies are in progress. According to the first plan, the one diamond mine at Letseng-la-terai (in the Mckhotlong mountains) will begin production this year (1977).

According to officials of the mining section, other minerals that are being prospected include coal, clay and oil. Several concentrations of resources in the form of coal in the Taung area and oil in the Mahobong area have been detected, however, their economic viability is not yet fully known.

Water resources are plentiful in Lesotho, and in 1975 a study was completed. Several water-supply projects have

been undertaken based upon the study findings.

One major water project on which Lesotho banked its hopes for future economic independence was the Malibamatso Hydro-electric Scheme which failed due to misunderstandings and disagreement between Lesotho and South Africa.

Localization. In the public service, reasonably rapid localization is reported to have been achieved. More and more young Basotho have attained the required educational qualifications and have taken responsible positions in various government divisions and ministerial departments. According to the official reports, the civil service is virtually fully localized. The Government is fully aware, however, that certain technical and professional posts still necessitate the importation of expatriates.

In the private sector, the localization process has been less effective. Employers have not carried out programs towards self-reliance. The Government has promised that its administrative machinery will review and monitor such private localization programs.

Social services. Great success is reported in water supply projects for rural populations. The plan states that targets have been far exceeded. Health services have been improved, the review says, but the objectives have not been achieved yet. Nutrition programs are run by various agencies and in general, there has been great improvement.

Education. Too much cannot be said about education, since the subject is dealt with elsewhere in this study;

but no summary of the achievements of the plan would be complete without a brief summary in this evaluation.

Special achievements in education have been:

1. Improvement of science and mathematics teaching through courses held for teachers and conducted by the defunct University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland.
2. Review and improvement of secondary and primary school curricula.
3. The establishment of National Teachers Training College which aims at improving the training of quality teachers and teaching.
4. The expansion of seven vocational secondary schools.
5. The upgrading of Lesotho Technical Institute and Lesotho Agricultural College, both facilities now offering development-oriented courses.

### Summary

Summarizing the achievements of the First National Development Plan, the review in the Second Plan stated that the following lessons have been learned through experience in the last five years:

1. Planning tends to underestimate the time required to translate ideas into development projects, to negotiate funds and to begin implementation.
2. There is a need for a manpower plan on the basis of which young men and women can be encouraged to undertake training and education to meet the most urgent national needs.
3. It is necessary to identify major bottlenecks quickly and take steps to break such impediments to progress.

Place of Education  
in the First Five Year Plan

Education is one of the key factors in the development of a country. Besides being a human right, it is a vehicle expected to provide individual citizens with skills that will assist them to be more effective in understanding and in handling their environment. Frederick Harbison has stated that education prepares people to partake in different sectors with their skills.

Education is one of the means for developing the skills, knowledge and capacities of persons of a country for participation in the labour force.<sup>8</sup>

The achievement of national goals in a country is a process very much based on its human resources; and education plays an important part in developing such resources. Harbison has gone farther to define human resources as:

...the energies, skills, talent, and knowledge of people which are, or which potentially can or should be, applied to the production of goals or rendering of useful services.<sup>9</sup>

The Central Planning Office in Lesotho issued a document in 1975 which reviewed and analyzed the expected role of education during the first Five Year Development Plan. The document in parts, commented on what education was able to achieve.

Achievements versus the role of education. This section will review and look into the achievements of the

First National Plan in relation to the expected role of education in the implementation of national goals.

Education and agricultural productivity. Government reports have stated that agriculture has greatly improved in the country. However, there are indications that still more has to be done in the area of agricultural productivity. The following facts prove that serious steps have to be taken to improve this sector and also to utilize more effectively the available resources which are being under-utilized. During data collection in Lesotho, the following observations were made:

1. Many fields remain unplowed in the arable land. This observation is supported by the findings of several commissions on development of resources. For example, the Research Triangle Institute Commission to Lesotho (1976) reported that many gardens remain unplowed in villages. In a place called Liphiring, the agricultural representative and the author counted sixty-seven gardens in the whole village. Only sixteen of them had crops on them. Worse still, the only one Village Communal Garden had been neglected, too.
2. Most school gardens are neglected and very few schools show interest in any form of agricultural project.

One would expect that the agricultural extension workers, who are the products of the educational system

through the Agricultural College, to be more efficient in influencing the Basotho to depend on agricultural production and in discouraging them from migrating in great numbers to the mines and farms of South Africa. Almost three villages out of five have agricultural extension agents. Still, many fields remain untended all over the country. The same criticism applies to individual home gardens, village communal gardens and school gardens, both primary and secondary.

Approximately more than two-thirds of the land that was cultivated was not properly weeded. This definitely affects the productivity of the land. Other fields lay idle for various reasons, some of which are:

1. Lack of capital to buy necessary inputs and implements;
2. Absence of the owner;
3. Disputes among members of the society;
4. Carelessness or lack of motivation;
5. Biased interest towards stock farming or other non-agricultural income-generating activities.

These reasons, plus others, have resulted in striking, rapid deterioration of crop yields. The World Bank Economic Report on Lesotho supports this view. The tables on the following page show a record of five crop yields in 1950, 1960 and 1970.

Almost all primary schools and several secondary schools offer agriculture as a subject. The Ministry of



Education has emphasized the importance of teaching agriculture properly to cultivate the spirit of self-reliance and of the "Feed Yourself" motto. But if the majority of schools have neglected school gardens as it now appears, then education has not played its major role as expected. Besides, if more Basotho leave farming to migrate to urban areas and to South African mines, firms and farms, the country still has a great job to do in terms of educating its citizens. This is what education should have done in the last century.

Table 12. Production and Yields of Major Crops

Production (thousand metric tons)	1950	1960	1970
Maize	214	121	67
Sorghum	49	54	57
Wheat	50	58	58
Peas	8	12	5
Beans	1	1	9
Crop Yields (200 lb. bag per acre)			
Maize	5.3	3.7	2.3
Sorghum	4.0	3.8	3.1
Wheat	4.5	3.8	2.4
Peas	4.5	3.3	1.8
Beans	1.5	1.6	1.0

Source: The World Bank, Country Economic Report, Lesotho: A Development Challenge, Page 38.

Education and imports. From year to year, records have shown an increase in imports. Unfortunately, exports compare less favorably, and this is a sign of an imbalanced economy.

The First Plan has a table which illustrates the point that Lesotho's foreign trade has involved far more imports than exports. Though these figures are outdated, it is assumed that the situation has not changed very much. By 1968, the trade deficit between imports and exports was L20,558,000. It could be worse today due to inflationary rises.

Table 13. Foreign Trade (in thousand R)

	1961	1965	1966	1967	1968
Imports	6,120	17,525	22,917	23,800	23,938
Exports	<u>3,020</u>	<u>4,690</u>	<u>4,387</u>	<u>4,168</u>	<u>3,380</u>
Trade Deficit	3,100	12,835	18,530	19,632	20,558

Source: Lesotho, First Five Year Development Plan (1970/71 - 1974/75), Page 15.

Such an illustrative table is not available for the Second Plan. Only figures for maize imports and diamond exports are available in the 1976 Quarterly Statistical Bulletin. These figures cannot be compared and they cannot reflect the trade deficit which is another measure of whether a country exports or imports more goods.

It is the role of education, in the view of the Basotho and their Government, to produce people with skills that will make the nation self-sufficient, self-supporting and self-reliant. This feeling is reflected in the three local newspapers almost every month. The educational system has not been able to assist significantly in the national battle to reduce dependence on imported food, clothing and equipment, as well as on personnel in technological areas.

Education and tourism. Tourism has expanded very fast over the last five years. As a result, more opportunities for work in tourism and in related services have been created. For example, it is reported that in 1973 alone, about 75,000 tourists visited Lesotho and used hotel and restaurant facilities. This figure rose to 112,600 in 1974. The in-flow of tourists is increasing tremendously.

During the month of December only (1976), nearly 25,000 holiday makers visited Lesotho; while nearly 15,500 were in and out of hotels and lodges throughout the country, the rest had their own caravans or stayed with friends.<sup>10</sup>

Education should have provided serious training facilities for various categories of personnel working in tourism: caterers, managers, porters, cashiers, maintenance staff, guides, receptionists, cooks, etc.

Despite the great need for skilled manpower in tourism, the country still possesses no educational facilities for

this area. During unstructured interviews with some managing staff of two of the main hotels in Lesotho (Holiday Inn and Victoria Hotel), it was discovered that most workers were trained "on-the-job" by means of a non-formal education approach. On the whole, education has not been supportive of the tourist sector. It is only in the second national plan that serious training of staff has been mandated. The plan states that the Lesotho Tourist Corporation and the Lesotho Hotels Group Ltd., which are subsidiaries of Lesotho National Development Corporation (LNDC), will establish a school for training hotel staff and other necessary supporting personnel. In the overall educational plan there are still no major plans for this growing, income-generating sector.

Education and the creation of jobs. Formal education has been one of the main processes by which people have gained social mobility. Good paying jobs in all sectors have depended mainly on qualifications.

Unfortunately, and contrary to the expectations of many, formal education has failed in assisting the country to create more jobs. Instead, it has streamlined the situation and made it hard for thousands of people without credentials to get jobs, despite their skills and experience. Certificates and diplomas have been a barrier to these people who are great resources to the country--especially to women who form the great majority

of people residing in Lesotho throughout the year

Educationists and planners have assumed that the country's national development depends mostly on the output of the formal educational system. They have always expected that both the public and private sector would enjoy the benefits of that system. In Lesotho the private sector has suffered more and more. Formal education has not produced significant entrepreneurs and people who can start their own businesses using educational skills that they accumulated and learned during their training.

Education and migrant labor. According to reports, of the approximate population of 1.27 million, about 200,000 people are migrant laborers in other countries--mainly in South Africa. A great majority of these Basotho are compelled by circumstances to seek job opportunities outside their country. Furthermore, they do not have specific skills which relate to the kinds of jobs they may find in or outside their country.

The education which the majority of the Basotho migrants have acquired does not help them to perform their jobs better; neither does it help them to have better jobs. Even the few who have skills in areas like carpentry, building, management and other professions, are by no means in a better position in their search for employment opportunities. Above all, the policy of the main employer,

South Africa, is that jobs demanding skilled and semi-skilled personnel are reserved for the white population.

The following are some of the advantages of the migrant labor phenomenon:

1. Basotho get jobs which they cannot find in their own country;
2. Families are supported by money from those outside of the country, which supplements the meager income received at home;
3. It has been stated that migrant labor has significantly increased the per capita income of the Basotho; and
4. The country's economy has been boosted by the money sent from outside into the country by migrant laborers.

In spite of these advantages, there are problems. First, the irony lies in the repercussion of this exit of labor in that Lesotho loses its able-bodied men, who are needed for development in all sectors--mainly agriculture, which is the background of the country's economy.

Second, the country loses substantial numbers of skilled and semi-skilled personnel--after investing in them with the hope that they would work in Lesotho as carpenters, builders, masons, tailors, teachers, nurses, etc.

Third, the cost of social problems experienced in the country due to the absence of forty-four percent of the male population is no match for the price paid by migrant labor.

Fourth, migrant's civic loyalty and patriotism are bound to be affected since they spend an extended period of their lives outside of their own country.

Sixth, and finally, health problems form another hazard caused by migration--especially with mining recruits. Miners often return home with some diseases and become burdens to their families, people and country.

Education can play an important role throughout the country by providing skills which can be utilized within the country--especially in the rural areas. Secondly, education can help in changing the attitude of the Basotho so that they believe in self-help and self-employment. Lastly, wide-spread social education is greatly needed for separated families to curb the high degree of family instability experienced in all villages at the present time.

Education has not lived up to the expectations of Lesotho and its people in curbing drainage of manpower into the Republic of South Africa and other countries.

Education and social services. Social services are not well distributed, especially between the urban and the rural areas. The people who suffer most are the rural folk who form the majority of the nation.

#### 1. Roads, Transport and Communication:

Only urban areas are joined by good roads. The rest of the country is not readily accessible due to bad, narrow dirt roads. Villages in the mountains still experience hardships due to their lack of adequate roads, transport and other forms of communication such as mail

and telephone. In the lowlands the mail system is much better. Transport, however, is still a big problem.

There is much that education could contribute in this area besides training a few people in civil engineering, surveying and road construction. Schools and communities have not been conscious of the important role they could play in both construction and maintenance of roads. Even minor services such as distribution of mail in the villages or urban centers could be undertaken by schools, thus reducing costs to the Government. Adults, too, could contribute in various ways. This will be pursued in the last chapter on the complementary and supplementary functions of formal and non-formal education.

## 2. Water Supply:

Remarkable work has been done by the Ministry of Community Development and many villages in order to improve conditions for the public's obtaining their drinking water. Mobilizing rural communities to dig trenches for water-bearing pipelines, getting the people to contribute money for the purchase of equipment, and other goals were achieved after educating people through mass media and traditional meetings. More education and material assistance is needed to develop water supply all over the country, because some villages have not yet begun the task. Hundreds of others have incomplete projects.

Schools at all levels could do much with their resources of time and manpower to be actively involved in self-help



water projects. This has not often been the case. To find schools and communities working hand-in-hand in such tasks is rare.

Proper education is needed for villagers to show them why they need clean water and how to go about getting it. Follow-up in already existing water projects is nil. Hence, overwhelming maintenance problems have discouraged some communities from beginning projects, while, in other communities projects have actually collapsed because of the lack of necessary education.

### 3. Sewage:

Water is often scarce and few areas can therefore afford water system sewage. Pit latrines or manual types are ideal. Disposal of sewage is still a problem concerning which people need substantial and continuous education both in urban and rural areas. This is another area where education has had very little impact. Few schools at the primary level have latrines. Few villages throughout the country have individuals who use and recognize the importance of proper sewage disposal methods.

### 4. Health Education:

There is a similar problem in health education in that students mostly learn theory to pass examinations without learning to put into practice health education theory.

Communities in both urban and rural areas as well as schools in any part of the country have ample oppor-

tunity to improve sewage disposal facilities. There are various simple methods that, through education, all nurse practitioners can teach at the village level through schools and organized community health programs. Integration with school curriculum is another great possibility which is exploited hardly at all at the moment.

Education and localization. Since Independence in 1965 Lesotho, like other newly independent countries, has worked hard towards localization. At the time of Independence in 1965, most posts that were held by expatriates were handed over to local citizens who were qualified to perform such duties. A big problem arose later when expansion of various sectors occurred. The following problem areas were realized immediately:

1. Foreign Agencies/Donors giving aid to Lesotho, whether financially or technically, had to send in many of their experts to do the work. In some cases such experts or technical advisors worked with Basotho counterparts. This arrangement never proved satisfactory since it was always difficult to determine when and at what stage the expert was prepared to leave or at what stage it could be deemed fit to hand over the tasks to the local counterparts.

2. Top executive posts were not easy to fill from the pool of manpower available in the country.

3. Employers requiring personnel with technological expertise mainly invited more expatriates since there

were no qualified Basotho with enough mathematics and a scientific background.

4. Some organizations or countries insisted on assisting Lesotho with advisors instead of with help in training Basotho or grants to improve the local people's skills.

The above reasons, plus many other minor ones, led Lesotho to fail to reach its goal of greater localization. This area is where Lesotho's educational system has clearly reflected its failure to produce the kind of personnel needed to fill the posts at high level and also at middle level. This continues to be a major problem as the country continues to grow and to launch development projects and programs in various sectors.

#### Education: The Key Factor in Developing Human Resources in Lesotho

It is clear that Lesotho's most outstanding potential resource is its people. Therefore, the development of human resources--the production of trained and skilled manpower (and womenpower)--is one major task for the educational sector.

The government and the people of Lesotho are aware that formal education alone will not do this great job. Governmental ministries and various voluntary organizations, led by the local people, are actively involved in non-formal

education to supplement the role that formal education is already playing. These ministries and voluntary organizations are discussed further in Chapter VII.

Lesotho's strong hope in its educated population is articulated in The Plan:

The educational system which includes both formal and non-formal activities, is the basic means by which the quality and productive capacity of the population is affected: Literate, trained manpower is the end product of educational activities and, in turn, the driving force in successful development.<sup>11</sup>

In the Second Plan it is remarked that the present educational system has placed too much emphasis on literacy without including practical subjects for the great numbers of students who never go beyond the primary level (Page 169). Curriculum revision and the restructuring of the content have, therefore, been given priority in The Plan.

Schools that provide vocational and technical training have been increased in number from two to ten. It is expected that they will produce enough middle-level manpower necessary for development. The Second Five Year Plan states one of the expectations of the National University of Lesotho:

[to] Make degree-level work relevant to the trained manpower needs of the nation.<sup>12</sup>

The University is expected to enroll more Basotho students than it has in the past. It is from this insti-

tution that it is hoped high-level manpower will be produced to fill key positions that are vital in planning the country's development.

The new National Teachers' Training College and the University School of Education are expected to produce enough teachers for all levels of education in the coming half decade.

The Ministry of Education has reviewed its structure and a provision has been made for a special unit with qualified staff to handle non-formal education, both in schools and outside the schools. The same unit is given a duty to work with other ministries to coordinate various voluntary organizations that are involved in non-formal education all over the country.

### The National Goals as Specified in the Second Plan

The targets of the Second Five Year Development Plan (1975/76-1979/80) are based very much on the experiences and lessons gained from the operations of the First Five Year Development Plan (1969/70-1974/75). Since planning and implementation are continuous processes some of the projects in the Second Plan are a continuation of certain parts of the First Plan.

The major goal of the nation as specified in the Second Plan is the development and effective utilization

of available human, physical and financial resources in the country. This statement from the section on the "Objectives of the Second Five Year Development Plan" more or less summarizes The Plan thus:

The Plan is designed to ensure that the limited human, physical and financial resources available to the nation will be purposely and effectively utilized.<sup>13</sup>

According to this government document, the country will give priority to: maximum domestic employment and reduced economic independence from outside. Each of these priorities will be discussed in turn.

Economic growth. In order to accelerate economic growth, the government has appealed to all citizens to get involved, actively and productively, in various sectors. This appeal has been carried through newspapers, radio broadcasts, traditional meetings, pamphlets and through The Plan itself. Priority has been given to the improvement of agriculture which forms the backbone of the country's economy. According to statistics, agriculture alone contributes approximately forty-five percent of the overall Gross Domestic Product. Again, agriculture is the main occupation of the rural population which consists of eighty-five percent of the entire population.

The success of agriculture, which is so vital to the economy of the country, is linked to the kind of education received by adults and youth engaged in agricultural ac-

tivities. Both formal and non-formal education are expected to play a vital role in the achievement of this national goal: Productive agriculture as opposed to subsistence agriculture.

Agriculture alone, however, cannot improve Lesotho's economic growth. Non-agricultural activities have been emphasized in the economic planning. Promotion of mining, tourism, commerce and other forms of industrialization are being given serious thought. The Second Year Plan indicates:

Maximum possible profitability will be sought in industry, mining, tourism, and commerce through appropriate public investment and the active encouragement of private entrepreneurship.<sup>14</sup>

As an attempt to speed up economic growth the expectation is that the educational system should provide citizens with necessary skills to handle more effectively fields of industry, mining, tourism, commerce, etc. Unfortunately, this is not the case. Despite its abundant potential human resource the country depends mainly on expatriates to handle special areas. Few Basotho are qualified to do so. Also, due to financial constraints, the country is unable to employ its existing and increasing labor force within its own boundaries. Many engaged in these areas need to learn various skills that could assist them to be more effective and productive.

Social justice. Depending on what part of the world in which one lives, social justice has many interpretations

and standards of measurement. In this study it will refer to equal opportunities for Lesotho citizens to participate in all aspects of the country--educational, religious, economic, political, social--without regard to race or creed.

According to some international commissions, the distribution of wealth among the people of Lesotho is remarkably equal. For example, the World Bank Commission in its report published in October 1973, states that an analysis of income distribution showed a remarkable equality in the incomes of various sections of the people of Lesotho.<sup>15</sup> However, income inequality is apparent in the urban areas where about five percent of the population earn very high salaries.

This status of equity is brought forth by two factors according to the analysis. First, it was found that the country's productive assets are distributed evenly. Second, because of the high incidence of having a migrant worker(s) in its midst, that income is reflected in the income of the agricultural family (and therefore poorer family) when compared to the richer family. This supplement was far greater in the poorer families. The result was that the lowest twenty percent of the population was found earning sixteen percent of the total income, while the highest twenty percent of the population earned twenty-six percent of the overall income. Even though unequal, it is more equally distributed than in most countries. According to the World



Bank analysis this degree of equal distribution has no match anywhere in most African countries, including Ghana, Botswana, etc.<sup>16</sup>

The nine urban areas holding fifteen percent of the population enjoy better services and facilities than the eighty-five percent rural majority. Better facilities in education, roads, health care, job opportunities, communication and many other facilities are mainly available to the more urban areas. The government has pledged to ensure that these amenities will be made available throughout the country--in rural as well as urban areas.

While provision of equal services is nationally aimed at, there is a big problem of financial resources and manpower. Even when foreign agencies provide financial aid through donations or loans, trained manpower still remains a handicap. This is indicated when the country fails to absorb and utilize to a maximum degree the financial aid and loans.

Education will have to be geared more towards achieving such national goals as greater participation of the Basotho in all aspects of the economy--industry, business, entrepreneurship, etc. Extensive education with a clear-cut policy will be vital as a first step in attempting to assist in the achievement of national goals in the area of economic development. Plans will have to include not only the population in the formal schools and/or in the

urban areas, but also those out of school and those in the rural communities. This is where integrated formal and non-formal education could play an important role in training and producing capable men and women that could participate actively in economic growth.

Maximum domestic employment. In order to create more jobs the government plans to accelerate labor-intensive productive activities in the country. Special measures, it is reported in the plan, will be taken to maximize the present job opportunities. In the last plan, it was hoped that about 10,000 to 15,000 jobs would be created, but only 9,000 were created. More jobs are anticipated from the diversification of both agricultural and non-agricultural economic undertakings, beyond the 10,000 to 15,000 mentioned.

The engagement of unemployed labor force in agriculture is one of the key factors in achieving the above goal. In order to change the present subsistence agriculture in the rural areas where the majority of farmers live, an extensive education is needed. The same applies to non-agricultural economic activities such as craftsmanship, pottery, entrepreneurship, carpentry, tailoring, tanning, etc. Adults and youth--whether in school or out of school--could benefit from an educational system which has aspects of both formal and non-formal education.

The Plan further states that new sources of aid will be sought and that Lesotho intends to have a wider relation-

ship with other countries and several international organizations. For the last ten decades, Lesotho found itself much attached to South Africa economically. The physical position of Lesotho also contributed to this dependence. Because of differences in political ideology and other connected pressures, the country has been extending its relationship financially and diplomatically to other African states as well as to overseas countries. It is hoped that these international relations will attract foreign investors--a move which, it is hoped, will open more job opportunities for Basotho within the country. This has already been proved true by the few recently established industries in Maseru and Maputsoe, the only two industrial areas in the country so far.

Economic independence. Due to Lesotho's physical position, a small country surrounded by economically strong South Africa, it is very difficult to speak of economic independence. Ties with South Africa are very strong in this area. It is evident though that the stronger partner has an upper hand in decision-making in this area of economic "interdependence." As a result, Lesotho has planned the following strategy:

1. Increase of thirty-eight percent in net agricultural output is planned. At the moment a small percent of the population is engaged in commercially productive agriculture. The majority is either idle or practicing subsistence farming. Increasing the agricultural output thirty-eight percent would boost the percentage rate of exports and also open some job opportunities for more Basotho.

2. Increase of forty-six percent in total output (Gross Domestic Product at factor cost) is planned. More investments in various agricultural and non-agricultural projects has been proposed. It is expected that such investments would raise the rate of growth and also increase the total output (GDP).
3. Expansion is planned of non-agricultural output as rapidly as is possible. This is important since the percent of people that do not own land, and those not depending on agriculture, increases annually. It is this class of people who either engage in some form of economic activity in-country or else leave for South Africa. In order to increase non-agricultural output, more investments have to be made in this area and this is what is aimed at as stated in The Plan.<sup>17</sup>
4. Lesotho plans to develop its water resources. The country has great potential for both consumption and industry (mainly generation of hydroelectricity, irrigation and other industrial functions). Financial constraints, however, have always been a drawback. It is hoped that foreign aid will meet this need, thus opening more job opportunities as well as lessening the current over-dependence on South Africa in the area of electrical power generation.
5. Mineral resources will be developed. Besides providing jobs for the country's 113,000 plus people now in South African mines, discovery and opening of mineral resources would be a great asset to Lesotho. So far the only commercial potential is diamonds. Reducing miners' leaving for South Africa and managing to maintain them would be a step towards economic independence.
6. Private investment is to be encouraged. This encouragement is for Basotho and foreigners. Due to lack of capital the majority of local citizens has not seized the opportunity to invest money in their own country. On the other hand, foreigners have been scared by the land tenure system and related factors which tend to make foreign investors skeptical relative to investing in developing countries such as security, political stability, market facilities, economic returns, etc. Nevertheless, the campaign for private investors continues in order to produce goods locally, process local primary materials, raise the value of some products and export what is produced.

All these activities mentioned aim at making the country economically independent. It is quite an ambitious plan. It is a challenge to the educational system (formal and non-formal) to orientate people, both youth and adults, to be development-minded. Education for change is what Lesotho needs urgently.

The next chapter will discuss the educational system in Lesotho. The place of present formal education will be described and analyzed. The chapter will also give a detailed account of the indigenous education and the modern non-formal education system in Lesotho.

## NOTES: CHAPTER III

<sup>1</sup>Lesotho Government, Second Five Year National Development Plan (1975/76 - 1979/80), Vol. I, Page 9.

<sup>2</sup>The Star, South Africa, July 23, 1977, Page 5.

<sup>3</sup>Second Five Year National Development Plan, Page 12.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Formal Sector includes tourism, government, ministries, construction, etc.

<sup>6</sup>Informal Sector includes artisans, beer makers, local community services, etc.

<sup>7</sup>Localization: a colonial term meaning replacement of expatriates by local citizens.

<sup>8</sup>F. Harbison, Human Resources as the Wealth of Nations (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1973), Page

<sup>9</sup>Ibid., Page 52.

<sup>10</sup>Government Information Services, "Mochochonono--The Comet," Page

<sup>11</sup>Second Five Year National Development Plan, Page 6.

<sup>12</sup>Ibid., Page 186.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., Page 20.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid., Page 20.

<sup>15</sup>World Bank Country Economic Report: Lesotho, A Development Challenge, Washington, D. C., 1973, Page 21.

<sup>16</sup>Ibid., Page 21.

<sup>17</sup>Second Five Year Development Plan, Page 5.

## CHAPTER IV

## THE PRESENT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN LESOTHO

The Basotho like other nations have had their own system of learning since before the arrival of Christianity in Lesotho in 1833. Nevertheless, whenever this term "education" is raised, almost all people in the country (locals as well as expatriates) tend to think of formal schooling exclusively. This distorted concept of "education" has been, unfortunately, emphasized through decades by certification and a biased system of rewards to those who "made it" at school.

Education is divided into two arbitrary sections, namely, formal and non-formal education. Of course, education is a unique process which should not be demarcated into sectors. But for the sake of enabling discussion, a division is employed herewith, using Coomb's definitions:<sup>1</sup>

Formal Education: the highly institutionalized chronologically graded and hierarchically structured 'education system' spanning lower primary school and the upper reaches of the University.

Non-formal Education: any organized, systematic, educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system, to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, adults as well as children.

This chapter discusses the present educational system of Lesotho, formal and non-formal. Formal education will include pre-primary, primary, post-primary, and higher education and will be discussed first. Non-formal education, which has until recently been neglected, will be discussed toward the end of the chapter.

### Formal Education

Pre-Primary Education. Pre-primary schools exist in one or two urban areas. Otherwise, very little is being done to provide children under the age of primary school with organized education. The three pre-primary schools that are reported at the present time are shown in Table 13.

Table 13. Vitae for Three Pre-Primary Schools in Lesotho

School	District	Estimated Enrollment	
		1975	1976
Likonyaneng	Maseru Central	117	315
Pitseng Kindergarten	Leribe	125	230
Roma Valley	Roma	15	21

Source: Lesotho, Government Authorities, Ministry of Education, December 1976.



Other schools may exist elsewhere in the country but since such schools are not publicly supported, records for them are not currently available.

A statement issued by the Ministry of Education reads:

Pre-school education has been attempted at one or two of the mission stations, but the government has not so far been able to finance anything of this kind. It is hoped to start a pilot nursery school in Maseru with external assistance.<sup>2</sup>

Although the government of Lesotho has shown interest in pre-primary education, it is not feasible to advocate pre-school education at this stage, given the immediate problems in other sectors of education. These problems in the already existing levels and structure of the educational system need concentrated efforts--without additional burden.

Primary education. Primary education has a long history in Lesotho, since schools were begun by missionaries in 1868. By March 1975 there were 1,065 primary schools in the country. These schools had an enrollment of 221,932 pupils taught by 4,228 teachers. This total number of 4,228 teachers included certified and uncertified teachers. The pupil-teacher ratio was 1:52.5 overall and 1:74 for certified teachers.<sup>3</sup>

The national education system provides opportunities for children from age six to an approximate age of thirteen.

However, primary education has not worked well in Lesotho. This conclusion is supported by the findings of the Bureau of Statistics in its general analysis of Standard Seven results of 1974. For example, the analysis reflected the fact that only 67 percent of the total number of students who sat for examinations that year had passed. The figure "67" was low when considering the long history of formal education in Lesotho and innovations recently introduced into the system such as automatic promotions.

The investigator submits some of the reasons which he feels seem to prove that primary education in Lesotho is unsatisfactory.

1. The reduction of primary education from eight to seven years has not improved the quality of primary education in Lesotho; merely reduced costs. When informally interviewed, five heads of secondary schools claimed they were convinced that most pupils who had studied eight years at the primary level performed better in secondary school than those students who had had seven years of primary education

2. These five administrators commented on the issue of automatic promotion which is practiced in Lesotho schools at the present time. Automatic promotion has been practiced since 1967. The Minister of Education

recognized that there is widespread discontent with the practice on January 7, 1977, but he worried about how he would deal with the increased rolls in primary schools should the practice be discontinued.

3. A problem still worse in primary education is the number of drop-outs from the system and the pupils' repeating grades. To illustrate the severity of the problem:

30,141 entered Standard 3 from Standard 2 in 1970;  
16,776 of them reached Standard 7 in 1974; and  
10,321 passed the final Standard 7 national  
examination.

Not even half the number of students who started in the original year finished the entire program of study! This is a waste of manpower and scarce financial resources involved in educating the youth of Lesotho.

4. Primary education curriculum does not provide either the drop-outs or graduates with skills with which they can earn a living upon leaving school. The system prepares the students for further study in spite of the fact that less than ten percent of their number have an opportunity to enter secondary schools. In 1975, 14,000 pupils passed Standard 7. There were only 4,000 places in the secondary schools. What happened to the 10,000 "left-overs" is a big question! ...equipped with no skills to face life...or contribute to the economy.

For years it has been stated that curriculum development would be given high priority. Revision of the curriculum should be pursued so that education will be realistic and the needs of the country will be addressed. Three phases were outlined by the Government in 1975: They would:

1. Prepare new curriculum;
2. Prepare revised textbooks to meet the new curriculum and distribute them to the schools; and
3. Retrain existing teachers to meet existing needs of the students.

So far very little has been done along these lines. As the World Bank Economic Report stated it, "Despite the high rate of literacy, Lesotho still runs short of skilled manpower at high levels to undertake education development and implementation." Curriculum development has not yet had any recognizable impact in providing subjects in which skills necessary to the student-graduates' earning a living or skills necessary to the progress of the country are taught.

Post primary education. Secondary education is given high priority by the Government and the Basotho as a whole. The competition for entrance into the secondary school level becomes more intense every year because of the country's expanding population and the lack of space in the present schools to accommodate more students. Thousands

of students who greatly wish to enter one form of school or another remain outside the system yearly, not because they don't have financial support, but because there is no room for them. There are still thousands of other students who qualify to continue in secondary school but who cannot due to financial pressures.

The secondary education level is divided into two sections; namely, junior and senior. The former comprises the first three years of attendance at the end of which a Junior Certificate Regional External Examination is conducted. Those who pass are allowed to compete for places in the higher secondary level which consists of two years of study leading to the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC).

According to figures issued by the Ministry of Education, wastage in the secondary schools ranges from sixty-two percent to twenty-five percent. It was stated that the major factor which accounts for high drop-out at this level is the high cost of tuition and maintenance of students. Most parents cannot afford these costs. The average tuition and board cost per child is well over R200.00 (U. S. \$232) excluding books, clothes, pocket money, medical care and incidental expenses.

The output has been poor both quantitatively and qualitatively. The Junior Secondary School output over the last five years is shown in Table 14.

Table 14. Junior Secondary School Output, 1971-1976  
(Junior Certificate)

Year	Sat for Examination	Passed Examination	Percent Passing Examination
1971	1295	919	71.97
1972	1626	1327	81.61
1973	3116	2117	67.94
1974	3288	2294	69.77
1975	3422	2076	60.67
1976	3745	1797	47.98

Source: Lesotho, Ministry of Education, January 1977.

In the last decade educational planners have discovered that there is a great shortage of secondary graduates qualified to go into technical and/or higher education in scientific subjects. For example, in 1968 there were 190 graduates of secondary schools and only 20 of them were deemed qualified to enter the University. In mathematics, only 16 students qualified, while none of the candidates passed physics and only one student passed chemistry. The situation was repeated in 1969. Performance in other subjects, e.g., English, too, has begun to decline despite the fact that English is a medium of instruction.

This condition illustrates the poor quality and quantity of secondary education. Lesotho has had difficulties

in finding trainees in the fields where pre-requisites are competence in mathematics and science. The Government and the people of Lesotho are very much concerned by the country's apparent inability to produce students who pass mathematics and science--disciplines which are so vital in various fields of development. The Second Plan commented further that there has been no improvement so far.

Despite the emphasis given to mathematics and science and improvements in school facilities, performance in the senior secondary school--learning examinations, did not improve significantly.<sup>4</sup>

In fact the overall results for the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate examination have been deteriorating over the past few years as reflected in Table 15.

Table 15. Cambridge Overseas School Examination Results 1971-1976

Year	Sat for Examination	Passed Examination	Percent Passing Examination
1971	354	299	84.46
1972	444	230	51.80
1973	568	246	43.30
1974	796	264	33.16
1975	1343	418	31.12
1976	1131	340	30.06

Source: Lesotho, Second Five Year Development Plan, Maseru, Page 172.

The percentage figures suggest the fact that even by

quantitative measures, standards have deteriorated. What has been significant at this level is the revision of the curriculum and the restructuring of the content of education. Still, that alone cannot improve the present situation. However, the impact is felt more in the junior secondary schools than in the high schools where the curriculum and the thrust of the content are very much influenced by the regulations of the Examination Council in Cambridge, England. Attempts have been made to include core subjects in the curriculum: mathematics, science, Sesotho and English. In the junior secondary schools this set of core subjects includes development studies.

With the failure to produce qualifying students needed at the higher level of learning and with the failure to increase the number of passes to fill the spaces available in the institutions of higher learning, it is clear that education at this level is unable to play its expected role in the achievement of national goals. The country cannot get sufficient Basotho to train for different fields and responsibilities.

Teacher education. Teacher education has been a formidable problem for years. Raising the quality of teacher training as well as the percentage of certified (qualified) staff has given Lesotho a headache. Looming large has been an inability to attract personnel of high



caliber and also to retain certified teachers already in the field. The Ministry of Education provided the following figures showing the profile of the teaching force over a period of six years:

Table 16. Primary Education Teaching Force

Year	Total	Teachers Qualified	Percentage Qualified
1970	3,964	2,615	66%
1971	3,877	2,470	64%
1972	4,006	2,619	65%
1973	3,951	2,823	72%
1974	4,139	2,924	71%
1975	4,341	3,030	70%

Table 17. Secondary Education Teaching Force

Year	Total	Teachers Qualified	Percentage Qualified
1970	265	188	73%
1971	306	186	61%
1972	568	297	52%
1973	551	308	56%
1974	567	365	64%
1975	610	413	68%

Source: Lesotho, Second Five Year Development Plan, Maseru, Page 173.

During the last three years the percentage of un-certified teachers has remained at approximately thirty percent. This is quite substantial when one considers that every year enrollment has been rising. This further means that each year more and more children are receiving education from staff not trained to do the job. This can have serious effects in manpower development in terms of failing to produce better prepared pupils and graduates qualified to enter secondary schools.

A considerable increase in salaries for secondary school teachers has definitely contributed to the rising percentage of certified teachers joining and remaining in the teaching profession since 1972. In fact, this level has experienced a very high turnover for many years and the domination of expatriates. Table 18 shows how expatriates have been a significant section of the teaching force in the secondary schools.

Table 18. Composition of Teaching Force in Secondary Schools of Lesotho

Year	Locals	Expatriates	Totals
1973	292	135	478
1974	363	182	494
1975	420	185	605
1976	434	187	621

Source: Lesotho, Ministry of Education, January 1977.

Expatriates are nowadays not desirable since the majority of them are professionally not trained as teachers. Secondly, they are foreign to the situation and the cultural background. In some cases they have played a role in local politics or acted as political agents for their home countries. These factors have made it more difficult for the government to allow expatriates to serve freely in the secondary schools as they once did.

The situation presently shows signs of improvement with great impact being felt as the result of the establishment of a new National Teachers Training College (NTTC) which replaced seven former teacher training colleges and has begun training primary and junior secondary teachers. The following positive signs of the impact of the one and one-half year-old National Teachers Training College can be stated briefly as follows:

1. Next year (1978) the college will produce approximately:

140 certified primary teachers;

118 certified secondary teachers.

2. About 500 teachers in the field have begun their in-service training, an exercise which has had no significant results in the past because of the lack of incentives. Today there are incentives, and teachers are motivated to attend in-service courses voluntarily.

3. About 258 interns have been placed all over the country for the year. This has reduced pressure on teaching staff and also has reduced the current costs for the Government since interns do not receive a full salary but subsistence allowances through the year.

4. The college has grown as follows:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Enrollment</u>
1975	78
1976	300
1977	412

Source: Lesotho, Administration of National Teachers Training College, Maseru, January 6, 1977.

In this case, the educational system is playing a very significant role in furthering realization of the national goal of producing more qualified local teachers.

Technical and vocational education. The Government and the people of Lesotho have complained for many years that the educational system has been too academic. There has been very little vocational and technical education. As a result the country has consistently lacked technicians and manpower in several areas requiring specific vocational skills. Since 1940 the whole country has depended on two technical schools and five handicraft schools. The staffing was very poor, the output too low and the standard of performance inadequate. The situation changed after 1965. Lesotho realized that after Independence it would need various skilled locals to

undertake numerous development projects and programs that were badly needed in construction, agriculture, water projects, etc. Trade and commerce demanded more personnel. All this has led to improvement of staffing, to curriculum revision and to the establishment of several facilities at the two Technical Schools and at the Agricultural College. Better still, seven more vocational schools have been established.

University education. In the past ten years the University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland (UBLS) served all three countries. Due to some misunderstandings and differences in priorities, the University experienced some disruption which led Lesotho to break away and form its own National University in October 1975.

The Government expects the University now to work in very close cooperation and consultation with other institutions in the country, more so than did the University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland in the past. In the last decade the international orientation of the University tended to make it far removed from the society in which it was situated.

It cannot be disputed that the University contributed in producing manpower for the higher echelons of the various sectors of the economy; yet, the number of graduates produced was far fewer than the country demanded. Further, the UBLS curriculum failed to meet the

high-level manpower needs in several technical areas, e.g., medicine, engineering, science, agriculture, etc. Facilities and staffing were not adequate to introduce science and research oriented courses, and there is no sign that any real attempts were made to do so.

The seriousness of the higher education's bias towards liberal arts is reflected by Table 19.

Table 19. Enrollment of Full-time Students at the National University of Lesotho (1975-1976)

Field of Study	Number of Lesotho Students
B.A. - Administration	57
B.A. - Economics	73
B.A. - General	112
B.Sc. - General	78
B. Commerce - Commerce	13
L.L.B. - Law	16
Total	349

Source: Lesotho, Quarterly Statistical Bulletin, Bureau of Statistics, Maseru, August 1976, Page 52.

Of the 349 students, approximately 78 students were enrolled in purely scientific subjects. One should note here that the social sciences have been included, as well as the arts.

The problem of having few qualified students in

mathematics and the sciences, referred to previously, is again reflected in this table and explains the difficulty of promoting Basotho personnel as counterparts to expatriates or as candidates for key positions in technical areas.

At this level, the educational system has not played its role in the achievement of the national goals as had been hoped. The nationalization of the University with drastic changes and revision of the curriculum and its content shows the great concern of the Government and the Basotho people for the role that this institution of higher learning should play in achieving the projected goals in the development of Lesotho. It remains to be seen what the impact of the National University of Lesotho will be on this phase of The Second Plan.

One major problem that will face the present National University vis-a-vis its good intentions to diversify will be staffing shortages. At present the situation is far from satisfactory. Table 20 illustrates the staffing pattern of the National University of Lesotho as of March 1976. According to the table it is only in the area of education that there is satisfactory staffing in terms of localization, certification and student-teacher ratio.

Table 20. Full-Time Academic Staff of the  
National University of Lesotho  
(1975 - 1976)

Subject Area	Senior					Total
	Professors	Readers	Lecturers	Assist's	Others	
Accounting and Commerce	-	-	1	2	1	4
African Languages	-	-	1	3	1	5
Biology	-	-	2	2	-	4
Chemistry	1	1	1	1	-	4
Economics	1	-	1	2	1	5
Education	2	1	2	11	1	16
English	1	1	-	4	-	6
French	-	-	-	1	-	1
Geology	1	-	1	3	-	5
Government and Administration	1	-	-	4	-	5
History	1	-	-	3	-	4
Law	1	-	1	3	1	6
Mathematics	1	1	1	2	1	6
Philosophy	1	-	1	-	-	2
Totals	11	4	12	41	5	73

Source: Lesotho, Quarterly Statistical Bulletin,  
Bureau of Statistics, Maseru, August 1976, Page 54.



## Non-formal Education

In recent years non-formal education has been given considerable attention as various people try to postulate alternatives to the normal well-known formal education. Attempts have been made to define non-formal education, but none of the writers or advocates agree as to what falls within the term "non-formal education."

The Human Resources Development Study team commissioned to Southern Africa by Research Triangle Institute in 1975 stated that non-formal education created problems because it can be offered out of schools as well as within school walls. As a result, people find it hard to demarcate between formal and non-formal education. The team wrote:

Non-formal education consists of all organizations and techniques for transferring information that lie outside of regular classroom instruction in the formal system of primary, secondary and university education. The dividing line with formal education is not completely clear...15

Today, developing countries of the third world are endeavoring to utilize this new educational innovation, non-formal education to their maximum benefit. Yet, as indicated, it is difficult to classify activities that fall under the category of non-formal education. Some have gone to the extent of including any type of out-of-school education and also, any formal instruction which does not end up with certificates, diplomas and degrees, such as cooperatives, credit unions, adult education, etc.

Non-formal education has a great diversity as a result, and this diversity of organizations offering non-formal education is worth recognizing. Modern non-formal education deals with activities which bring forth immediate returns irrespective of ones age or academic status.

The following are some characteristics of non-formal education as seen by some writers:

1. Activities are mostly run by voluntary organizations.
2. Participants vary in age, educational background, sex, and status.
3. There is a greater opportunity for local control and self-determination.
4. Students and teachers interact on the same level; methods, too, are quite flexible.
5. Costs are fairly low, and payoffs are tangible. Besides, self-satisfaction is the most important payoff.
6. Programs are often skill- or task-oriented, and the period over which the skill is learned or the task carried out is usually short.

So far non-formal education lacks recognized theories as it is a new field in terms of research. Definitions, too, come and go as none of the authors agree as to what non-formal education is. And if one looks at these definitions carefully, they all differ. This illustrates how difficult it is to say exactly what non-formal education is and what it encompasses.

Non-formal education...is any organized, systematic educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population, adults as well as children.<sup>6</sup>

Non-formal education and training encompasses the entire range of learning processes and experiences outside the regular, graded school system.<sup>7</sup>

Non-formal education is any organized educational activity outside the established system...whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity...that is intended to serve identifiable clientele and learning directives.<sup>8</sup>

Non-formal education...is probably best defined as skill and knowledge generation taking place outside the formal schooling system.<sup>9</sup>

Non-formal education...is a residual category. If loosely defined, it could conceivably include all socialization and skills learning processes taking place outside formal education.<sup>10</sup>

In his article "Frontiers of Out-of-School Education" Archibald Callaway has a short but comprehensive definition of non-formal education. He states that:

Non-formal education is the array of learning activities going on outside schools and universities.<sup>11</sup>

According to his explanation the following learning experiences are included in that definition: literacy, apprenticing, on-the-job training, in-service training, and continuing education for those with professional qualifications.

The term that Callaway has used, "out-of-school education" for past years added to the uncertainty of what non-formal education is. Richard Niehoff and Bernard Wilder, in Program of Studies in Non-formal Education have lessened the confusion by suggesting that both "out-of-school" and "non-formal" be used interchangeably. This usage will apply to this study too.<sup>12</sup>

In The Economics of Non-formal Education, Manzoor Amhed has a section concerning definitions in chapter two. He discusses the relationship between formal, informal and non-formal education. He also shares with Niehoff and Wilder the idea of using the term, "out-of-school education" and "non-formal education" synonymously. Amhed has adopted a definition of non-formal education from the works of the International Council for Educational Development which reads:

Non-formal education is any organized educational activity outside the established formal system-- whether operating separately or as an important feature for some broader activity--that is intended to serve identifiable learning clientele and learning objectives.<sup>13</sup>

In another edition of Program of Studies in Non-formal Education George Axinn and his colleagues have not only attempted to define non-formal or out-of-school education, but they have gone further to develop a schema which attempts to clarify the difference between formal, non-formal and informal education. Their paradigm is shown on Page . Their definition of non-formal education is stated thus:

Non-formal education (is) would be the education gained in any organized setting which took place apart from the specific school program.<sup>14</sup>

Although it is only during this decade that educationists battle to find a suitable definition of non-formal education, the avenue is not at all new. Cole Brembeck discusses the issue in New Strategies for Educational

Development and he makes a strong point that:

The new interest in non-formal education is an act of rediscovery.... The act of learning, however, is as old as man himself.<sup>15</sup>

Following this comment by Brembeck, the next section will deal with indigenous education as the root for modern education in Lesotho. To avoid confusion the term traditional education will be used synonymously with indigenous education in this study.

Paradigm Showing Difference Between Formal, Non-Formal  
and Informal Education

Systems	Teacher Perspective		
Learner Perspective		Intended	Unintended
Intended		A. Formal (school) Non-formal (out of school)	C. Informal
Unintended		B. Informal	D. Batic (incidental)

Source: Axinn, H. Programmes of Studies in Non-formal Education (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1975, Page 9.

Indigenous Education: The Root for  
Modern Non-formal Education

Long before 1868, when Lesotho became a British protectorate, Basotho had over the years developed their form of education, both for adults and for youth.

Indigenous education as it is called in this study, contributed a great deal to the sustenance and welfare of the nation for a long time.

There is not much specifically written on indigenous education or traditional non-formal education as it took place in Lesotho. A couple of educational authors, one of whom is Mwanakatwe, and some anthropologists have dealt with this field but no one has scrutinized it. Even those authors who have taken the trouble to discuss indigenous education as it applies to Lesotho have merely described its characteristics with brief examples.

In order to avoid confusion, traditional education will be synonymous with indigenous education in this study. This author defines indigenous education as: "That education in which skills and knowledge were developed by the society through centuries." The Merriam-Webster Dictionary defines the word indigenous as "having originated in and being produced, growing, or living naturally in a particular region or environment." A synonym is "native."

In Lesotho traditional education covered a wide variety of activities and learning experiences which included: initiation schools for male and female; apprenticeships; direct instruction by mothers, fathers, peers and other knowledgeable members of the society; self-instruction through trial and error methods as well as imitation and observation.

Much education was carried out orally and was passed from generation to generation. Practicality was a vital component of indigenous education; the result was many proverbial expressions which guided the Basotho: "Learn as you do"; "See and believe"; "Travelling produces wise men."

#### Views of Educators on the Subject of Non-formal Education

While most educational authors still fail to recognize the existence and the importance of indigenous education, there are several who have laid a positive foundation.

In their book, Learning to Be, Edgar Faure and his co-authors have made it clear that all societies; whether primitive or civilized, have always had some form of education. Adults were particular as to what kind of future men and women their children would become. Hence, the influence they exerted during the preliminary youth stages

of a boy or a girl was considerable. They made sure they had taught their children either directly or indirectly some skills which could help them throughout their future lives.

Later on, a child would widen his or her scope of learning and experience through contact with the outside members of society other than his nuclear family--brothers, sisters, mother, father and grannies. The environment of the child had in store a wide spectrum of learning experiences.

Faure et al. state this view as follows:

...in all societies, both primitive and highly civilized, until quite recently most education of most children occurred incidentally, not in schools set aside for the purpose. Adults did their economic work and other social tasks; children were not excluded, were paid attention to, and learned to be included. The children were not formally 'taught.' In many adult institutions, incidental education has always been taken for granted as an essential part of the functioning; e.g., in families and age peer groups, community labour, master-apprentice arrangements, games and plays, prostitution and other sexual initiation, and religious rites.<sup>16</sup>

Writing of traditional education in Zambia, Mwanakatwe shows how, through the ages, different tribes had different approaches to the education of their citizens beginning with the youth. He goes further to delineate the education of boys with that of girls and then adults. In his introduction, he, too, states the view that education existed long before Europeans came to Africa. He synonymously



uses "traditional" education and "indigenous" education:

In common with inhabitants of other parts of Africa, the people living in what is today called Zambia had evolved their own system of education long before Europeans penetrated the interior of the continent. Indeed, the security and well-being of any tribal community depended upon the efficacy of the training given to its members from infancy to adulthood. Traditional education was essentially practical training which was designed to enable the individual member to play a useful role in society.<sup>17</sup>

One thing that could be appreciated from Mwanakatwe's discussion is that it is clear that he does not brush aside the positive impact that European formal education has introduced in Africa. He mentions that skills of reading, writing, mathematical computation and scientific knowledge are the result of formal education. Yet he pays due respect to indigenous education and says:

Nonetheless the role of traditional education was vital and, in fact, indispensable for the smooth integration of growing children into society. Therefore, to the extent that traditional instruction made a contribution to the preparation of boys and girls for living in society, it was in every sense true education.<sup>18</sup>

Lesotho is no exception. Indigenous education still exists even today as seen, for example, in initiation schools for boys and girls. It is in these secluded periods of two to four months, depending on the planners' design, that various cultural aspects are formally taught to the children. Courses cover citizenship, original history, sex education and marriage, skills in agriculture and various selected crafts. The content of the courses

normally depends on the environment of the people and the skills that can be offered by those running the indigenous training courses. There are other training aspects which are included for this form of training: bravery, confidence, ability to keep secrets, respect for elders and recognition of ones class, folklore, dancing and singing, etc.

Mwanakatwe says, in his book, The Growth of Education in Zambia Since Independence:

This education obviously varied from tribe to tribe, both in content and the methods used, as these were dictated largely by the nature of the environment. For example, in a predominantly pastoral community much of the training of the boys centered around herding cattle. On the other hand, among the lakeshore or island dwellers fishing provided the boys with the opportunity of developing skills as making nets, fish-traps and canoes.<sup>19</sup>

### Key Agencies

#### in Bringing Change to Lesotho

Three agencies were responsible for bringing change to Lesotho--as in most countries on the African continent. These three agencies were the missionaries, colonial government personnel and schools. They brought along with them their values, cultures, beliefs, traditions and customs, educational systems, etc.

Formal education, as interpreted today, is the result

of these three foreign agencies. Instead of complementing what already existed educationally, arrivals emphasized the replacement or total annihilation of traditional education.

Missions. Missionaries regarded initiation schools as heathen institutions. Often verbal intimidations have been employed in discouraging native people to continue in some aspects of their individual cultural virtues. It is either they "will go to hell" or "they will be possessed by diabolis (devils)." As a result, many useful and virtuous activities which included indigenous education such as family planning through polygamy, counselling of parents for fiance and fiancée and vital ceremonies which were part of African religion and psychotherapy of bone diviners and fortune tellers, have been lost.

B. A. Pauw supports the investigator's notion that Christianity has been one of the corrosive agents of African traditions and customs due to churches' denying members to partake in certain or most of the social activities. Some of these activities were quite educative. Pauw states that:

Missionaries have generally required that converts abstain from certain customs.... Some also opposed marriage payments, initiation and beer drinking....<sup>15</sup> Christianity has affected social structure and organization in many other ways. Missionary opposition to traditional rites of passage have for some Christians led to the disappearance of such rites and the consequent fading of the distinctions between the successive statuses an individual occupies as the life cycle proceeds.<sup>20</sup>

In Lesotho the situation has been worsened in the past by missionaries forbidding their adherents to continue with initiation and also refusing to readmit to schools children who have been to initiation schools.<sup>21</sup> As a result many Basotho today have a negative attitude towards this indigenous custom.

Foreign governments. Lesotho was a British colony. English remained an official language for a long time, and knowledge of spoken and written English was a prerequisite for anybody to become a government official. Learning of English was done through formal instruction in schools. The Sesotho language was discouraged and until recently (in the 'sixties), schools severely punished students for speaking Sesotho at school. This meant idioms, proverbs, transmission of traditional expressions and the like became curtailed for many years. This has had a serious negative impact on the use of Sesotho in Lesotho.

Schools. Formal education is a product of schools. Indigenous education was an integral part of the society, carried on both at home and outside the home by the various sectors of society. Since schools were introduced, formal education, with its different, and foreign, values and partly (if not mostly) irrelevant and misdirected objectives, has continued to displace indigenous education. This has been a definite threat to the national identity of Lesotho.

Children have spent most of the time they spent in schools absorbing things, most of which they will likely never use in their lives. Primary school children are daily removed from their parents, family members and the rest of society. They lose opportunities of knowing more about their own people, their own culture, their own environment, their own origin--and even about themselves. They learn more about people in other lands, but they never get a chance to appreciate their own people. In his criticism towards a similar educational system, President Nyerere remarked:

We take children from their parents at the age of seven years, and for up to seven and half hours a day we teach them certain basic academic skills. .... The few who go to secondary schools are taken many miles away from their homes, they live in an enclave....22

Secondary and university students spend their lives in the schools surrounded by foreign teachers, artificial environments, western literature, etc. As for the levels of secondary and university education, they are out of line with the rest of society. These institutions have succeeded in purposely leaving out and destroying the potential of utilizing indigenous education and its personnel. This kind of deprivation has been a great threat to the cultural integrity of the nation.

#### Institutions in Lesotho Retaining

#### Indigenous Education

There are several institutions in Lesotho which retain

some form of indigenous education on a small scale. Even then, formal education has influenced them so much that they do not carry out their functions as they once did. This corrosive influence is illustrated in the following areas:

The family. In discussing the vital role of a family in the society, during the late thirties, the sociologist William Ogburn presented seven functions a family performed. One of those functions was: "The educational function, in which the home serves as the responsible agency for all aspects and forms of education."<sup>23</sup>

It was in the family where children and adults received their continuing education throughout their lives. In Lesotho, with the influence of western culture, education has been associated with formal schools. Education that once was carried out at home is now implied to be undertaken by schools. Unfortunately, this is not the case. While schools have introduced the necessary technology for the society from a western point of view, the traditional family education and cultural values of the society in Lesotho have been left unattended by the schools. Nevertheless, a family is still an existing educative institution though less influential today, compared to the past.

Marriage. In the old days, a man had one or more wives. Before a couple got married, a bride's family spent two or three weeks counselling her as to how she should handle her marriage. This was direct formal instruction.

Topics covered a wide field on married life. The instruction was done mostly by her elderly male relatives, female relatives and prominent, respected members of the society. This instruction dealt with what to do during her first weeks as a newly married woman, how to win a husband's love and respect, care of family members--especially the in-laws--village gossip, and sex education. All of this counselling reinforced what the individual might have learned informally and also during his or her indigenous schooling. With the introduction of formal schools, this seems to be dying out. Very little counselling is done. In fact, the trend today is for young couples to begin marriage without concern and/or with counselling from their parents. While there are no research statistics per se, there is, however, a general observation and belief that there are more divorces and marriage breakdowns than in the past as a result of this educational gap. The marriage institution has remained, but society is having more problems with it.

Chieftanship. Lesotho is one of the few African countries which retains chieftanship with its present form of government. No doubt the administrative powers of this institution have been greatly curtailed by the introduction and retention of foreign western methods of governing. Hence the society has two allegiances--to the indigenous rulers and also to the National Government inherited from the colonial era. However, chiefs still have a substantial following and an influence in the villages, and the people

are aware of this. Government extension workers often go through this indigenous institution when introducing new programs in the villages. For the last three decades civil servants avoided and overlooked the powerful influence of chiefs. Failures of programs turned a new page. Officers learned a great lesson--that in most cases they can succeed only if the chief and his people, especially the elders, are willing to cooperate. Referring to the continuing influence of African chiefs one of the sociologists, Anna Malinawski says: "...the African chief is there. He can be seen. His power has been felt for generations, at times as cruel willfulness, at times as a beneficent and protective token of security. His generosity has extended to father and grandfather, and can still be appreciated and enjoyed."<sup>24</sup>

Felisa Garina, in his book, Leadership in Community Development in Under-Developed Areas, discussed the important role of the traditional leader. He shows that from time immemorial they have been the key to the success of any development-oriented activity in an area--especially in the rural areas. He strongly advocates the recognition of these traditional leaders by programmers.

He says:

In western nations, governments increasingly become associated with programs designed to change old established ways in favor of scientific practices.

Based on the experiences of extension workers around the world, formalized government is not considered important and essential among present societies of underdeveloped areas. The people still look with resentment upon imposition of officials who try to enforce laws and upon local regulations alien to the old folkways.



People of underdeveloped areas look up to their elders who rule the people according to their customs and traditions.<sup>25</sup>

and he goes on:

Since every program for self-help needs leadership to carry on the project, those responsible for the promotion of the program cannot overlook the institutional leaders in the community. They are looked upon by the people, and their wisdom and experience are respected by their constituents.<sup>26</sup>

The village. The village is an institution which has been severely struck by formal education. For example, most people from formal schools and civil service despise the institution and always undermine its authority consciously or unconsciously. To illustrate this point, in any village every man is 1) expected to get together with others to dig a grave; 2) expected to cut obnoxious weeds on specified Saturdays; and 3) expected to come to the traditional meeting place on specific mornings. The "educated" do not attend to these obligations--to the dismay of the community and the chief.<sup>27</sup> They have gotten away with this shirking of grassroots activities which bound the society into a spirit of oneness, and the cohesiveness of the village has been severely affected. Indigenous cooperation of villages is waning. However, in rural areas, the village is alive and indigenous education continues--although with difficulties.

Initiation schools. When discussing indigenous

education, John Wilson made the following statements:

In its social aspects, indigenous education was perhaps more organized. Puberty rites generally involved a period of specific tuition conducted by seniors whose specific function by virtue of their status was to teach the candidates.<sup>28</sup>

In puberty rites not only is physiological education involved, but there is much social education dealing with the responsibilities of adulthood in relationship to the preservation of the society through control of the family system. Moral training is also a strong theme evidenced most notably in endurance tests and trials of courage--sometimes of a kind strange to the Western mind. Respect for the elders and all forms of recognized authority are taught.<sup>29</sup>

These are some of the courses and aspects that were carried out by initiation schools. Christianity and the introduction of formal schooling have unsuccessfully tried to wipe out this institution. Everywhere in the country, however--especially in the rural areas, these schools still exist. Unfortunately, no one has taken the trouble to assist them to improve and incorporate the latest methods in health care because there has been an adversary relationship between them and those with "formal" education. But resistant they are: they still exist--though with poor facilities and poor education.

#### Importance of Cultural Institutions

A nation remains intact because of its long history of cultural institutions. This is one of the key factors

in the integrity of a society. Lesotho's formal education seems to have had such a heavy impact on the indigenous structure and institutions that their importance is obscured.

The danger is that children in the formal education system in Lesotho are encouraged to live away from their parents, siblings and society. This danger is, however, recognized by most Basotho today and formal education is to be adapted and redesigned to preserve the indigenous quality of life--for the good of Lesotho--and the good of the primary family structure. Perhaps the new educational policy of encouraging students to attend schools near their original homes (families) may help.

#### How Modern Non-formal Education Has Developed

Noncertification. Indigenous education encouraged people to work not only for the benefit of their families, but also for the benefit of the community without expecting a monetary reward. People constructed paths into their villages as groups, for example, and their reward would be satisfaction in a job well done and the right to use the path--self-satisfaction. There was no idea of certification. This view of certification is the result of western education. People in indigenous education volunteered to do things to represent their villages as the case might be. Self-satisfaction was a "real" achieve-

ment--and it is today, with the modern non-formal education in Lesotho.

Non-formal education strongly discourages the issuing of certificates. This is the foundation of indigenous education. In Lesotho's non-formal education programs, students volunteer without expecting any formal certificates in most cases. However, there are some non-formal educational programs which do issue certificates, e.g., private studies and cooperative courses.

Rewards and payments. This issue has bothered many people. In the past, Basotho did voluntary work for the community without expecting any pay. This has worked well until recently when people more and more want to be paid for whatever job they do. This new idea of payment for work was mainly introduced by foreign traders and colonial government personnel. Values of our people have changed and continue to change. An interesting conflict has always been: who will carry the expenses for a project which belongs to the community? Of course, the answer is "no one" because such a project belongs to all.

The majority of non-formal programs are run by volunteers without any material pay per se. The slogans borrowed from indigenous education are Cooperation and Self Help--terms which are reflected in numerous idioms and proverbs of African societies--Basotho society being no exception.

Cooperatives. Today non-formal education pivots around group work or "working together" for the benefit of all the community. This is no new concept. It has existed through the ages as Basotho worked cooperatively in performing innumerable activities, e.g., waring, dancing, hoeing of fields, tanning skins for clothing, building huts, constructing village paths, hunting, herding and other activities.

In his discussion of the traditional economic systems of the Bantu speaking peoples of Southern Africa, Basil Sansom shows that in the olden days cooperation and working together in parties was a common feature. Such local work parties for example, provided labor on the fields during the weeding season. He writes:

....people worked in each other's fields in response to invitations to join work parties. A host provided beer or meat and then issued a general invitation to locals to attend a work party on his fields. Those attending a work party were expected to form a work gang and help to complete a task. There was a general assumption of reciprocity in these arrangements.<sup>30</sup>

In Lesotho these reciprocal work parties were known as "Matsema." Nowadays their existence is very shaky due to modernization. Instead, since 1948, modern cooperatives of various forms began to substitute for local work parties. Ashton describes these cooperatives and their valuable educational and economic value in his book, The Basuto.<sup>31</sup> Anthony Setsabi, in his unpublished

thesis, goes even further to discuss in detail the origin of cooperatives since 1813.<sup>32</sup> Later in his works, he elaborates on the importance of a cooperative movement as an educational and socio-economic organization in Lesotho. In this society, sticking together as a unit to carry out a task has been a cultural characteristic which is reflected even by the patterns of their nuclear settlements and/or villages.

Dissemination of information. Modern non-formal educationists would all admit that the best way to get information disseminated in rural areas of Lesotho is through traditional leaders and chiefs. This has been the case throughout the history of the nation. Modernization, however, has affected this communication method through the introduction of messages by radios, postal services, churches and schools.

Today, all sorts of extension workers--government, para-statal and private agencies--have learned and realized that for anything to be done in a rural area--where 90 percent of the Basotho live--one needs to go through the local leaders. Politicians have succeeded tremendously in exploiting this opportunity. Extension workers, too, have shifted from communication through churches and schools to concentrate on traditional leaders in using that indigenous approach in disseminating information.

Participation and decision-making. Although some Western historians have regarded most African societies as barbaric and autocratic, it has been found that this was a biased, extreme criticism. No indigenous leader would dare make a decision alone without first getting the views of the elders or prominent tribesmen in relation to whatever the issue could be. At times the process took hours or days as an issue got debated and discussed away from households, and at the traditional "get-together place" (khotla) where men would take turns and air their views. This was an educational process which gave people with various backgrounds the opportunity to contribute to decision-making. Later on, the chief would announce the final decision, based on information gained in the discussion groups, and according to the wishes of the majority. Participation of the people was the key factor in this educational learning experience in indigenous education.

Initiators of modern non-formal education depended on decisions made by government officials. As a result most programs failed. In fact, people at the grassroots level used to say indifferently, "That is the government's project. It is not ours!" For example, plowing in contour furrows in soil conservation projects failed, health clinic buildings deteriorated, school buildings fell down, roads to villages eroded, people cut down and uprooted

conservation-project trees, and so on. Every time a question was asked a villager, the reply would be the same: "The Government is responsible for these things; I don't know anything."

What happened in the past is that people were not consulted. In non-formal education programs, they were not involved in planning or decision-making. These programs were initiated, planned and implemented by outsiders with no concern of/with/for the people who lived in these particular areas.

#### Non-Formal Education in 1977

Today, modern non-formal education goes all the way out to include the people who will be affected by such a program. Involvement is highly encouraged and participation is open to all irrespective of color, religion, politics, sex, age, etc. Hence, a considerable number of non-formal education projects have succeeded. It goes without saying that there are still problems, though from different angles, e.g., political divisions which handicap cooperative undertakings at grassroots level, etc. An example of the benefits of human resources in modern formal education is apprenticeship training in Nigeria as described by Archibald Callaway in Planning Out-of-School Education for Development. According to his reports, training young people within indigenous



small-scale enterprises has been going on for generations in Nigeria and this has developed and continued to play a role in the modern economic sector. Callaway adds that:

Apprenticeship training systems began as part of a wider education process in which the indigenous societies of Nigeria passed on their cultural heritage from one generation to the next... Gradually the apprenticeship spread... until today in the more progressive enterprises... 33

Delegation of responsibilities in a non-formal education setting. Non-formal education emphasizes participation of people. This is not a new phenomenon. It is based on the traditional approach whereby various members of the community were (and are today) given responsibilities, e.g., meeting conveners, newsmen carriers, rangers, youth trainers, etc. The idea of participation and delegation of responsibility is vital in non-formal activities and it has in the past contributed to the success of the community activities planned and put into action through indigenous education.

Utilization of available human resources. Indigenous education was the duty of every member of the family and the tribe towards those junior to him. During earlier ages, parents and relatives were responsible. Later, other people of the tribe would be involved as the environment of a person widened. As J. Mwanakatwe states in his Growth of Education in Zambia:

In tribal society the education of children was an important function which was started by parents and their neighbors; in fact all

reasonable persons of any age group assumed some responsibility for training children in specific skills or in promoting their understanding of the laws and customs of the tribe.<sup>34</sup>

### Non-formal Education Organizations in Lesotho

There are three agencies which have identified bodies actively involved in non-formal education in Lesotho. The Government-funded Action Study Group (January 1976) concentrated on areas which it thought could make non-formal education and training income-oriented. This was in response to the National Plan's attempt to provide people with more skills leading to a variety of employment opportunities within the country. The study has gone farther to propose program guidelines as well as time lines over a period of five years (1976 - 1980). The report has enlisted twenty different training and employment projects which could be set up successfully, hopefully in Lesotho, using available resources and facilities for non-formal education.

The Institute of the Division of Extra Mural Services (University Arm) conducted a survey in 1975 on existing agencies involved in non-formal education. It was discovered that there were 92 different existing projects and programs which qualified as non-formal education vehicles. The objective of the University was to identify the agencies, their involvement and their activities, and

to establish how effective they were in implementing national development objectives.

The third agency which has taken great interest in collecting data on non-formal education in Lesotho is the Lesotho Distance Teaching Center. It is the same center that will work jointly with the Ministry of Education in a nationwide project designed to educate herdboys and shepherds. Other activities on education include provision of lessons for studying privately in preparation for sitting for the Junior Certificate and Cambridge Overseas School Certificate Examinations. The Lesotho Distance Teaching Center also conducts research work in various areas of non-formal education.

Organizations involved in non-formal education in Lesotho can be divided into governmental, semi-autonomous, working jointly with the government, foreign and voluntary. They deal with various types of subjects ranging from health, nutrition, family care and planning, cooperative management, communal self-help, and agriculture.

The clientele which is served by these organizations includes organized groups of urban and rural women, drop-out youths, as well as unemployed men and women in different parts of the country. Problems that have made the operation of non-formal education less effective have been identified by the Lesotho Distance Teaching Center are:

1. Poor communication between agencies, communities and numerous groups involved in non-formal education;

2. Duplication of work and efforts due to poor communication and lack of proper planning;
3. Lack of coordination and unhealthy competition in some parts of the country.

On the other hand, it is recognized how diverse the organizations and their clients are. Needs differ from one group to another and from one place to the other. Some Basotho have also expressed their concern for a degree of autonomy which would result if all the organizations involved in non-formal education were centralized and fully controlled by the government.

What has been recognized now about non-formal education in Lesotho is that it has not had as strong an impact as it should have had. It has been neglected by the people and the government of Lesotho. More attention has been given to formal education, despite the fact that it serves almost half the population according to the LDTC. The lack of cooperation between formal and non-formal education--their failure to work symbiotically in addressing the needs of the nation and its goals is sorely felt.

### Summary

To sum up this section on education, the First Five Year Development Plan had these vital statements to make:

Education and training for the rapid economic and social development of the country are the focal points of the present (first) Five Year

Development Plan. The government.....will take all necessary measures to co-ordinate and properly plan the development of the educational system so as to ensure the availability of the kind of manpower required for the economic advancement of the country.

The present educational system has many weaknesses. It is expensive and inefficient in terms of the money already invested in education and the number of pupils actually reaching and completing the final year of the secondary course. Only 16 percent of the pupils who start their primary have been able to complete it, and only 10 percent have been able to pass the final primary education.<sup>35</sup>

As it is, the situation has changed only minimally since Independence. Improvements have occurred here and there as illustrated, but education has not played its role fully in the achievement of national goals. Some drastic steps have to be taken to make education more effective and more efficient.

Chapter V will consider what other countries have done in making their formal and non-formal education effective, as opposed to Lesotho where only one side, formal education, has been emphasized and given utmost support--at the expense of non-formal education.

## NOTES: CHAPTER IV

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<sup>3</sup>Bureau of Statistics, Quarterly Statistical Bulletin, Vol. I, No. 2, August 1976, Page 24.

<sup>4</sup>Lesotho Second Five Year Development Plan (1975/76-1979/80), Page

<sup>5</sup>F. Mulligan, Human Resources Development Study, Research Triangle Institute, North Carolina, 1975, Page 6.

<sup>6</sup>F. H. Harbison, Human Resources: As a Wealth of Nations (London: Oxford University Press, 1973), Page 80.

<sup>7</sup>P. Coombs, Op. Cit., Page 8.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid., Page 22.

<sup>9</sup>F. H. Harbison, Human Resources and Non-formal Education, New Strategies for Educational Development (Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, 1973), Page 5.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid., Page 5.

<sup>11</sup>Brembeck Cole, New Strategies for Educational Development: The Cross-Cultural Search for Non-formal Alternatives (Toronto: D. C. Heath and Company, 1973), Page 13.

<sup>12</sup>Niehoff and B. Wilder, Program of Studies in Nonformal Education, Nonformal Education in Ethiopia (East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1975).

<sup>13</sup>M. Ahmhed, The Economics of Nonformal Education: Resources, Costs and Benefits (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1975), Page 10.

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- 27The Educated means the school products in this context--especially those from secondary schools, upward, and government civil servants.
- 28J. Wilson, Education and Changing Western Culture Today, (London: Oxford University Press, 1966), Page 17.
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- 31Hugh Ashton, The Basuto: A Social Study of Traditional and Modern Lesotho (London: Oxford University Press, 1967).

<sup>32</sup>Anthony Setsabi, Trans-National Transplantation of Social Movement: The Application of Antigonish Movement in Lesotho (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1975), Unpublished Thesis.

<sup>33</sup>United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, Planning Out-of-School Education for Development (Paris: International Institute for Planning, 1972), Page 181.

<sup>34</sup>J. M. Mwanakatwe, Op. Cit., Page 1.

<sup>35</sup>Lesotho First Five Year Development Plan (1969/70-1974/75), Page 163.



## C H A P T E R V

## CASE STUDIES

This chapter describes cases of fourteen selected countries which have, in one form or another, attempted to utilize out-of-school education to complement and supplement the full-time, formal education carried out in the formal classroom. The following criteria were used in choosing these countries:

1. The majority were Third World countries which share similar educational problems with Lesotho;
2. Some were developed countries with specific regions or areas whereby non-formal education had an impact when utilized to supplement formal education;
3. Seven were African countries that had begun to recognize the potential use of non-formal education in national development; or
4. All were countries which had partly begun exploiting complementarity of formal and non-formal education.

With the above criteria in mind, countries selected for study were: Cuba, Tanzania, Thailand, Nigeria, Senegal, India, Colombia, Uganda, Ghana, China, Botswana, Ethiopia, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (Russia) and the United States of America (the Older Amish).

## Cuba

Cuba is one country which has received wide publicity for its political innovations which have led to complementary formal and non-formal education's consciously being put into practice, especially among its youth. Since 1959 the revolution in this country has prompted revision of the curriculum to suit national needs and development as dictated by national goals. Changes in the curriculum have been effected throughout the entire educational system--from primary to university level, as well as in adult education. All levels have been structured in such a way that they include both formal and non-formal components of education. According to reports, the success of this exercise has resulted from a strong collaboration between the Ministry of Education and the authorities of the Young Communist League.

All secondary school students spend a minimum of six weeks every year working in various types of work-camps. This is a requirement which is included in their school curriculum. Work and productivity are stressed in the Cuban educational system today.

## Tanzania

February 1967 marked the beginning of Tanzania's new approach to development. The Arusha Declaration is

regarded as the turning point for politics and for the concept of education in this country. According to the Declaration, qualifications in leadership would be based on the skills and talent a person had, not on academic or other criteria such as heredity, class, status, academic education and the like. A leader would be anyone fit in terms of the Declaration. Such a person could be either a peasant or a worker or anybody not associated with capitalism and/or feudalism. Productivity by every member of the society was given emphasis. That was the beginning of new Tanzania. As a follow up, later in 1967, President Julius Nyerere produced a document which outlined a new policy of education in Tanzania. It was this newly designed educational system which would assist the country in the achievement of its national goals of African Socialism, self-reliance and rural development.

Paul Mhaiki and Budd Hall, in The Integration of Adult Education in Tanzania, have described how this was implemented.<sup>1</sup> Villages were organized voluntarily into a system whereby people helped to formulate and develop their own plans--both social and economic. The approach presented an opportunity for participation by the villagers and the response was marvelous. In terms of education, schools were intended to be a focal point in each village and each school was expected to respond to the needs of the people, both youth and adults, around it. There was a nationwide campaign against illiteracy.

Besides promoting literacy, schools became centers where local communities learned from each other, from books and from radios, from films and also from discussions. That education took place mostly among community members.

From their statements, it appears that Mhaiki and Hall are convinced that Tanzania has greatly succeeded in its plans; especially in the integration of formal and non-formal education. For example, they have observed that during the day, the primary schools in Tanzania are used by pupils attending classes, working on a farm and in other school activities. Later, in the afternoon, the same school building is used by adults from the vicinity for various adult education activities. The two writers go farther to say:

Education in Tanzania is not easily analyzed in terms of primary, secondary, university and adult education. In fact, none of the terms currently in vogue to describe adult education, (non-formal education, out-of-school education, continuing education), are especially helpful in separating the various components of the Tanzanian educational system.

What makes traditional analysis of the Tanzanian (educational) system more difficult is the fact that there has been a steady movement towards an integration of the formal and non-formal areas.<sup>2</sup>

According to this model, educational opportunities are extended far into various parts of the country. Education is not restricted to those in urban areas or to the few rural people who can afford to send their children to school. Above all, this model provides and emphasizes functional education for adults of different

ages, backgrounds, status, interests, etc. It also caters to thousands of youth who have not been able to continue in the regular formal educational system.

In the Five Year Plans the following objectives are given priority:

Improvement of agricultural techniques, education for better health, increased cooperation in production, marketing and consumption of goods, the training of administrators and planners as well as the increased involvement of the people in their own plans.<sup>3</sup>

#### Thailand

In order to assist out-of-school rural youth and young adults with skills that were increasingly demanded by various sectors in the sixties, Mobile Trade Training Schools were begun in Thailand. By 1972 this educational program was spread nationwide and there were fifty-four active schools in rural towns and provincial centers. The Ministry of Education and the Division of Adult Education run these schools. They are not regarded as part of the formal educational system of the country.

The Mobile Trade Training Schools (MTTS) move from one town to another after having operated in one place for a period of three years. The teaching staff and the equipment form the core of the model. Community buildings provide accommodation for the school during its operation in a particular location. The staff specializes in various subjects and it was reported by Coombs in Attacking Rural Poverty that the staff are highly qualified, thus

reflecting standards set by the government through the Ministry of Education.

Each school gives training in six to eight skills and there are no established standards of achievement. Teachers are free to set their own standards, administer tests and final assessments, and, at the end, issue certificates to those who pass. All courses, though, cover a period of three hundred hours in five months. There is intensive instruction providing necessary theory. This goes hand-in-hand with intensive practical work. According to Coombs there are "virtually no printed materials available (other than the syllabus), but large quantities of raw materials are consumed in the practical work."<sup>4</sup>

This program was designed to provide skills that would help the country in achieving its objective of increasing the number of skilled and semi-skilled local workers who could participate actively in the national development plans. It seems a significant success has been attained, as reflected by Table 21.

### Senegal

A "Formal-looking Non-formal Program," as Coombs entitled it, was initiated in Senegal for rural artisan entrepreneurs. The International Labour Organization (ILO) helped in the establishment of this program. Expectations were that trainees completing the program would be capable to do any repair jobs or manufacturing of agricultural implements as well as to make materials

Table 21. Enrollment and Graduation in Thirteen  
Mobil Trade Training Schools in Thailand  
for the First Session in 1971

Course	Enrollment	Graduation	Percent of Enrolled Who Graduated
1. Dressmaking	629	419	67
2. Auto-making	522	371	70
3. Tailoring	464	237	51
4. Radio Repair	331	213	64
5. Electric Wiring/ Installation	314	213	68
6. Cosmetics and Hairdressing	284	225	80
7. Food Preparation	251	177	70
8. Welding	167	110	66
9. Typing	142	70	50
10. Bookkeeping	97	60	62
11. Barbering	67	37	55
12. Embroidery	30	24	80
13. Woodwork	11	8	73
Totals	3,309	2,164	65

Source: Survey: Phillip Combs, Attacking Rural Poverty: How Non-formal Education Can Help, Page 52.

In this case non-formal education supplements the formal system.

for constructing houses.

Five training centers were constructed where trainees were recruited to take their courses. The program was three-phased with long intervals between sessions of three months each to allow recruits to go back home to attend to and catch up on their regular occupations. The program consisted of functional literacy, manufacture and repair of implements and tools, fabrication of bricks, and construction of houses and sheds. There was also training in accounting for artisan operations. The standard of performance was designed by the instructors themselves. There were no final examinations.

Later on selected recruits received a two-year, specialized training course at one of the artisan centers where more highly qualified staff had been attached for teacher-training purposes. This is a clear example of how non-formal education can be applied in national development as an attempt to supplement formal education. On the other hand, this example shows how formal education can supplement the non-formal system.

### India

Just like Thailand's Mobile Trade Training Schools program and Senegal's Rural Artisan Training System, a training program in India utilizes facilities in both formal and non-formal education circles. The classroom instruction of twelve weeks in the evenings is very formal.



This instruction is carried on by visiting experts from government ministries, management industries, large businesses and by specialists. Non-formally, trainees go out into the field in groups, and at times as individuals, to hold practical classes in human relationships, management skills and entrepreneurship. Field work visits are done during daytime hours by visiting and observing various businesses. Self-study and self-initiated projects are encouraged in an attempt to cultivate self-confidence in the trainees. Most of the trainees are people who are already in some form of business.

According to Coombs, in India techniques of this kind are more "comprehensive and integrated; combining training for both managers and employees with a variety of complementary support services...."<sup>6</sup>

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics  
(Russia)

According to Coombs in The World Educational Crisis, the Soviet Union and many other socialist countries have been very successful in breaking barriers between formal and non-formal education. This has been the result of continuous consultation between the national education planners of these countries and their universities, industrial institutions and technical schools. Two main points are borne in mind during the consultation and planning so as to integrate formal and non-formal learning experiences. Those are:

1. The adequacy of the existing educational programs and how they might be improved; and
2. what new types of manpower will be needed for new types of technologies still on the horizon, and hence what innovations are needed now in educational programs in order to meet these needs.<sup>7</sup>

As it is, these countries attempt to utilize both formal and non-formal education to meet their national goals, especially in manpower development.

The Coombs report went farther to state that:

The educational systems in these countries have forged an unusually close relationship between work and study. Thus about half the students enrolled in university engineering programs in the Soviet Union are part-time students with regular jobs.<sup>8</sup>

Besides keeping people up to date, these more flexible programs are compensating for the deficiencies of the formal educational system which stem from its failure to adapt rapidly enough to changing needs.<sup>9</sup>

According to Coombs in his section on non-formal education (The World Educational Crisis, Page 14), the Soviet Union and those other socialist countries have managed to use both formal and non-formal systems to complement one another. People are able to continue with their academic studies out-of-school with much lower costs and the flexibility of the programs motivates them without "heavy personal sacrifice." Besides, what is studied is put into test and practice at work, thus making education more relevant to the needs of the nation and its goals.

In his conclusion about non-formal education and its ties in the USSR, however, Coombs advised that despite this apparent success of symbiotic functions of formal and non-formal education, there remains a need for:

A more coherent view of the non-formal educational system to facilitate a more effective coordination of its many parts with each other and with formal education.<sup>10</sup>

### China

Harbison and Myers, in Education, Manpower and Economic Growth stated that China has not only followed the same educational policy as the USSR but has gone considerably farther.<sup>11</sup> In China, students enrolled in a regular formal educational system (schools and universities) have been "required to engage in productive labour as a "regular subject" in the curriculum, and educational institutions have been encouraged in some cases to set up their own factories to employ them."<sup>12</sup> The educational policy of China has aimed at exploiting the country's abundant human resource potentialities. According to this policy "education is far more than schooling. It means continuous indoctrination, propaganda, skill development and agitation. And the policy in recent years has been to stress not only work with education but education with work."<sup>13</sup> The kind of education sought is that which can be used productively with immediate effect.

There is another classic example of an integrated educational system whereby students not only concentrate on classroom studies but also receive wide opportunities to apply their knowledge and up-grade their skills by working in real situations supervised by specialists other than their regular school teachers. The students grow up with a positive attitude in what they learn, both at school and out of school. Besides, this kind of integration with the outside world and people of their society gives them a chance to relate school education with and to what they learn out of school. This is a symbiotic function of formal and non-formal education. Both sections contribute to the training of the citizens on a national basis.

#### Latin American Countries

SENA (Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje) is a program that originated in Colombia. It has spread very quickly into other Latin American Countries. George Selter and Frederick Harbison mentioned that besides Colombia, SENA is well established in Brazil, Chile, Peru and Venezuela; and also, that it is catching on in many other countries in South America.

The main aim of the program is extensive training for adults and youth who work in industries, commerce and agriculture. An outstanding program of apprenticeship has been developed. The clientele receive instruc-

tions at night, while during the day they continue with their regular jobs. Training is designed along the lines of apprenticeship so that the evening studies develop skills needed at work in various fields. Unskilled and semi-skilled workers gain tremendously from the program.

Selter and Harbison, in discussing SENA, are convinced that it is one of the most outstanding and comprehensive massive training services ever designed to complement the formal educational system in that part of the world. Vocational schools, multi-purpose secondary schools and the polytechnic institutions have begun introducing some of the programs outlined by SENA. There is even a great worry among authorities that these schools will end up duplicating efforts of SENA. During the period of the study (1971-1973) this expected and feared duplication had begun appearing.

The following comments by the two co-authors reflect their thoughts as to the complementary functions of SENA (non-formal education program) and the formal educational system. They wrote:

Presumably, SENA concentrates on training employed manpower, whereas the formal education system is primarily concerned with pre-employment education and training, but the lines of demarcation are not at all clear.<sup>14</sup>

In some respects the two systems are complementary, but there is also much....overlapping of their activities.<sup>15</sup>

According to the two authors, the formal education systems in countries where SENA (non-formal type of

education) is established are undergoing great changes. The formal system is being quickly influenced and becoming willing to cooperate.

### Uganda

H. R. Hawes described in Lifelong Education, an example of an integrated program of formal and non-formal education in a region of Uganda called Namutamba. It is about fifty miles away from the capital city of Kampala.

According to plan, all schools in this area work jointly with the local communities thus introducing a fair amount of integration. A certain amount of studying goes far beyond classroom and regular timetable boundaries. Students spend five hours every morning in the classroom and for the rest of the day carry out various projects in the local communities. Activities designed to promote out-of-school learning include brickmaking, home improvement, agriculture, apprenticeship schemes, cultural activities, etc. Hawkes added that:

All these are considered as complementary learning activities to the normal school program.<sup>16</sup>

Illustrating the fact that this Namutamba rural education project is complementary and supplementary, formally as well as non-formally, adults use school buildings for various adult education and community purposes in the afternoons, evenings, and during weekends. Teachers, too, do community work as individuals.

## Nigeria

An educational program of Vocational Improvement Centers (VICs) began in Nigeria in 1965 through the assistance of the Ford Foundation. The target population were situated in six northern states. With this program the Government aimed at combatting an identified shortage of skilled manpower at middle and low levels in small-scale industries, the development of which forms an important part of Nigeria's national goals. Skills of working artisans and craftsmen were to be up-graded in four hundred hours over a period of ten months. Courses included carpentry, auto repair, bricklaying and electricity installation. Formal subjects, i.e., English, Mathematics, Business Management, etc., took a quarter of the total time. At the completion of the course, graduates had better opportunities to join local private industries or government shops. The staff from regular schools and local primary school buildings were used free of charge for this program. "Practicals" were carried out in government workshops.

It was reported by Coombs<sup>5</sup> that the demand was very high. In 1970 alone, there were 1,000 applicants for 130 places available places at Kaduna Center.

This is another classic example of how formal education curriculum can be carried out complementarily with non-formal education.

The government and people of Nigeria have long realized the importance of out-of-school education. The Nigerian National Council for Adult Education (NNCAE), formed six years ago, plays a significant role in aligning the objectives of non-formal education and national goals. The members of the council encourage the country to integrate programs of out-of-school education into the nation's overall educational system.

When discussing the significance of the "Integration of Formal and Non-formal Education" the secretary of NNCAE, J. T. Okedara, referred emphatically to Yugoslavia and Tanzania where both formal and non-formal education have been significantly integrated. He stated that this integration, which has led to a symbiotic process, resulted from the efforts of Institutes of Adult Education and the respective Governments of those countries. In Yugoslavia especially, the Federal Institute for Educational Research, working collaboratively with other interested organizations and experts, undertook curriculum development, evaluation, experimentation and research into formal and non-formal educational activities.

J. Akinpelu, in his article "The Philosophy of Life-long Education and the Current Certificate Racket," describes advantages that would follow a well-integrated system of education in Nigeria. He stated convincingly



that:

If the non-formal system can be integrated with the formal system--many of the problems currently afflicting the Nigerian educational system will be greatly relieved if not completely resolved.<sup>17</sup>

He was, nevertheless, aware that the non-formal education system needs to be fully re-organized and better coordinated if the benefits of complementary functions with formal education are to be realized. The formal education system too needs to be less rigid and flexible so as to allow room for equivalences in levels and standards. Four relevant points are made on a successful integration of formal and non-formal educational sectors:

1. Many people will begin to appreciate that to be a drop-out at the primary or secondary school level is not a debarment from the attainment of the highest level of education if there are equivalences established (for example) between the formal and non-formal sectors, then drop-outs, especially those who are victims of socio-economic circumstances, can, by private self-tutoring, educate themselves to re-enter the school system at the appropriate level....
2. There will be less pressure on the government to triple and quadruple classroom space to meet the ever-rising school population. If attendance at non-formal educational courses is adequately rewarded and recognized, students with meager financial means can opt out of full-time study....
3. There will be a new perspective on education. The aim of education will shift from the acquisition of a certificate to appropriation of knowledge and wisdom. ....The non-formal system will take its rightful place, and integrated philosophy of education will emerge.
4. There will be a progressive move towards democratization of educational opportunity in which the educational system will become a sort of cafeteria system from which the individual citizen

can take his own helping at his own rate, in his own convenient time, and in proportion to his appetite and capacity, providing, in addition, opportunities for a second or third helping if needed. This is the fundamental concept behind the lifelong education.

When in Nigeria early in 1977, the author informally interviewed more than twenty young men who worked as apprentices in carpentry and autofitting shops. He discovered that they worked there solely to gain the skills in those areas. They did not get any pay for their services; instead, they had to pay their masters a lump sum of money to do the studying and practicing in the shops. The most interesting case was of several of these young men who became apprentices during the long holidays and/or during weekends while during school days they continued with their regular formal curriculum. Almost all of them studied subjects which had very little relation to their apprenticeships in carpentry and autofitting workshops. This is a clear example of non-formal education's supplementing formal education.

#### Ghana

During six months that he stayed in Ghana (August 1976-February 1977), the author witnessed a number of institutions which were involved in out-of-school learning and attempting to integrate formal and non-formal educational experiences. For example, the Ministry of Social Welfare was very much engaged in rural education and functional literacy. The curriculum used and the reading materials are not different

from a unit prepared for formal schools. Classes are held in schools, churches or public buildings. Voluntary teachers who were recruited received their training in a series of sessions and simultaneously undertook to teach illiterate adults. The main difference comes in that reading and writing are done for a specific purpose, e.g., to help the adult become better farmers by reading relevant materials (when they become literate).

Women play a very important part in the implementation of the Ghanaian national goals of "feed yourself" and "do it yourself." In agricultural production they play a major role. In home industries women are key people. For example, he visited ten villages which had groups of women, guided by the Social Welfare Department or the Council of Women, learning how to make soap using local resources (palm kernel ash and palm oil). Organized classes and instruction were at the same time provided for these groups in reading and writing. A more interesting situation was viewed in the eastern region in a small village called Nankese. The group consisted of thirty-one ladies, young and old, and a few men. They were learning how to make soap which is an essential commodity in Ghana. Some teachers from conventional local schools had volunteered to teach "Twi", the local language spoken in that particular area. At the beginning of the year this group had begun learning to speak and read English in

classes held in the local school buildings.

In Ghana there is also a national voluntary movement with which he worked called the "Peoples' Education Association". As its title implies, it aims at educating people in socio-economic problems that affect them in their everyday lives. Several formal institutions, such as universities, are relied upon heavily to provide the necessary skills and the know-how. "Liberal" classes as well as literacy classes for those learning foreign languages (e.g., French) are held regularly. Teachers and lecturers from the local secondary schools and the University run the "liberal" and literacy classes. Local school buildings are utilized.

These are classic examples of programs which reflect complementary and supplementary functions of formal and non-formal educational activities that aim at assisting the country in the achievement of national goals: the development of human resources; universal literacy in local languages; French fluency for civil servants; and self-help and "feed-yourself" programs.

#### Botswana

In his Report from Swaneng Hill, Van Rensburg showed how objectives and strategies were established in a new approach to integrated, diversified curriculum. The main aim was to provide secondary school graduates with necessary skills needed by a developing economy, in the specific case of Botswana's economy. The curriculum consisted of

certain compulsory subjects: English, Mathematics, Science and Setswana. Introduction of the following subjects was a new phenomenon in a secondary school in Botswana: Metalwork, Woodwork, Building Science, Technical Drawing, Commercial Subjects, Art and Agricultural Science. Some of these practical subjects enabled students to design buildings, prepare the materials, build the buildings and furnish them. The school saved significantly through this approach.

As in Barrio schools, students had a great deal to do out of school. The surrounding communities were encouraged to participate, but this was difficult since the inherited colonial practice had always been to have autonomous schools. It was reported that besides schoolwork, groups of students participated in various types of workcamps and self-help projects.

This innovation led to the introduction of a new subject, development studies. Its main objective is to analyze the cost-benefits of an activity and any other related implications. Some of the sections cover economic analysis, industrialization, social and cultural change as it relates to economic development, strategies of national development and the role of young people. The section on economic analysis is the key since it deals with factors of production, consumption and investment, the importance of the surplus to development, advantages

of specialization and its dependence on surplus production. It is during studies such as these that students realize and learn how their education relates to their every-day lives. As they do practical subjects out of school, they become more and more exposed to business and day-to-day life problems. This is another approach toward linking formal and non-formal education.

When the Swaneng Hill Secondary School was visited by the Research Triangle Manpower Study team, Van Rensburg had left the school. The approach had not returned the results that he and his colleagues had anticipated, of complementary functions of formal and non-formal education. Some of the reasons presented for their lack of anticipated success were:

1. the students' attitudes towards manual work;
2. the staff turnover;
3. government non-direct support;
4. little involvement of communities; and
5. society's system of rewards (employment opportunities and education).

The United States of America  
(The Older Amish)

Marvin Grandstaff and his colleagues from Michigan State University have selected one of the North American sub-cultures to analyze in terms of how it has been affected by formal and non-formal education. One of the major reasons which attracted them towards the Amish

society was the way in which the Amish have insisted on pursuing their own pattern of integrated formal and non-formal learning experiences. Grandstaff reported that the Amish have "used both formal and non-formal education as tools to generate a comfortable material standard...."<sup>18</sup>

The vocational schools were much like "a school without walls."

The report went further to observe that Amish youth between the ages of fourteen and sixteen spend half of their time in class with direction and supervision by teachers. The rest of their time they spend participating in socio-economic activities of their communities. Projects are very meaningful and contribute to the welfare of both individuals and the community as a whole. Parents are also involved and they are very supportive of what is done in regular classroom work. Those parents who are skilled in certain areas have several apprentices under their supervision.

The Michigan State team, in their analysis, concluded that the Amish educational institutions have promoted coordination and integration of formal and non-formal education splendidly. They ended by saying that:

Certainly the intimate linkages between the school and the recipient community, as well as the complementary (but never redundant) functions of formal and non-formal education are two of the most important factors.<sup>19</sup>

Their analysis saw this approach as an ideal way to be followed or adapted when planning and designing non-formal education. The team saw the role of the school as one to supplement and complement non-formal education and vice-versa.

### Ethiopia

After the coup in September 1974, the military government of Ethiopia, with great support from university students, closed down all the educational institutions. The students in the upper primary classes and all post-primary students and university students were directed to go out into villages all over the country to teach people how to read and write. Those in agricultural institutions were assigned to guide people how to produce more food for the country.

Despite the autocratic methodology applied, there could be no better demonstration of how formal education could be put to the test in practical situations than the Ethiopian experiment. Non-formal educational institutions must have been boosted morale-wise by this move, and for the first time a great impact was felt whereby formal education complemented non-formal learning experiences.



## Five Lessons

### Drawn from the Case Studies

A number of lessons have been learned from these case studies. Five important ones are:

1. Follow-up plans would be necessary so that even if such integrated programs were initiated by foreign agencies, they would remain nurtured and supervised when foreigners would have left the country;
2. Government policy can become a handicap if educational programs do not tie in with overall goals;
3. Any educational program (be it formal or non-formal) needs the backing of the ministry of education of the country. Otherwise, the program may have a slim chance of succeeding.
4. Case studies show that there is much room for utilization of facilities and resources in formal education that can be used without conflict for non-formal educational programs;
5. There is a great deal of untapped potential talent to be found in institutions, communities, groups and individuals in society. This human resource--for example, skilled specialists who possess "paper" qualifications--could be utilized in both formal and non-formal programs.

## Conclusions

A number of interesting and worthwhile conclusions have been drawn in this area; and while Lesotho cannot manage to duplicate all of the educational innovations linking formal and non-formal education investigated, she can adopt some of the approaches in her own educational system in order to realize her goals.

### 1. Dual use of school buildings and equipment:

The utilization of school buildings for both formal and non-formal educational activities is practiced in India, Tanzania, Uganda, Old Amish Society in the United States, Ethiopia, China and Ghana. Besides saving the government the cost of providing separate facilities for non-formal education, this dual usage of schools for adults and youth bridges the gap between formal and non-formal education. People realize that out-of-school education is as respectable and significant as classroom education. In the Soviet Republic, Tanzania and Cuba, teachers, too, are expected to participate actively in the programs conducted for out-of-school clientele.

Lesotho could benefit a great deal if it followed the approach whereby facilities in formal schools are utilized for both formal and non-formal education. This is a big gap in the educational system at present. Out-of-school educational activities hardly utilize this op-

portunity because the government of Lesotho has not officially intervened as has the governments in these countries.

2. The combination of study with work outside the formal classroom:

In China, the Soviet Union, Cuba, Uganda and Tanzania, students spend a certain number of hours inside the classroom and then the rest of the day they are involved in the socio-economic activities of the communities around their schools. Each country has its own method of combining study and work. For example, in Uganda, students spend five hours every morning in school and then join in the community's projects. In Cuba, students spend three hours daily working in the fields. This schedule is followed from Monday to Friday every week. Students do not merely work, but with supervision, attempt to put into practice what they learn in school. In this way they try to balance intellectual activity with manual work.

School-room study without manual work has been a major characteristic of Lesotho's formal education. Work with ones hands at school is rarely undertaken. The curriculum provides very little opportunity for practical experience in real situations. The country could produce better students if this work aspect were included at all levels. Besides introducing some manual skills, this approach would improve the attitude of both parents and students towards work.

Lesotho should have learned this lesson from its sister country Botswana, where the "study-work" innovation of the Brigades Program has been significantly successful, despite several constraints. In secondary schools at Tutume, Shashi, Swaneng, Mahalapye and Molepolole students have gained from the experience of spending specified hours in classrooms and the rest of the day in contracted jobs within the community. The Lesotho Study Action Commission (1975) has recommended the introduction of Brigades. It is hoped that this will bridge one gap in the educational system.

### 3. Mobile training schools:

The Latin American countries of Colombia, Brazil, Chile, Peru and Venezuela have been very successful in reaching a large population in their countries through Mobile Training Schools. Each school teaches about eight different skills for a period of five months as it travels from village to village (or town to town). At the end of each course, teachers administer examinations and issue certificates and diplomas for those who have been successful.

The same kind of training has been attempted in Thailand, and there, the best students are selected to join the normal formal education stream to further their education. This could be an interesting innovation to be adopted by Lesotho.

There is a possibility that this approach could be too expensive for a poor country such as Lesotho. Yet a Mobile Training School could extend education to many more people who otherwise would never obtain it.

### 3. Training centers:

The idea of multi-purpose training centers is widespread in third world countries. In Senegal, as in Nigeria and Malawi multiple three-month intensive training sessions in a variety of skills are provided for out-of-school clientele. The curriculum covers fields such as functional literacy, business management, brick making, construction of houses and sheds, etc. During the three-month period, the instruction is very formal with staff being recruited from the formal system. What makes this method attractive to most people is that in between each three-month session students return home for three months to look after their routine work, after which they return to the training centers.

Lesotho has five Farmer Training Centers in strategic points throughout the country. These centers have not been used and occupied to maximum benefit for the last five years. Few people attend courses that are offered. Some authorities have suggested they should be utilized for multi-purposes. With the innovation of three-month recesses between three-month sessions and a well-planned, intensive program of instruction aimed at upgrading skills of people in various crafts, Lesotho could increase and improve its

skilled manpower by producing middle-level personnel in areas such as business management, entrepreneurship, handicrafts and other artisan-type occupations.

4. Apprenticeship programs:

Several Latin American governments have designed apprenticeship programs for adults and youth who work in industry, commerce and agriculture. In the evening these employees attend formal classes in the vocational schools and multi-purpose secondary schools. Senior employees supervise their junior colleagues and occasionally outsiders are invited to give lectures. During the day the employees continue with their normal occupations attempting in the process to utilize the information they learned in these evening schools.

This is a good example of a complementary program of formal and non-formal education which Lesotho could attempt. Apprenticeship in Lesotho has a great potential in the growing industries, commerce, agriculture, handicrafts, teaching and civil service.

In West Africa, though, apprenticeship has a slightly different characteristic. About ten to thirty people work under the supervision of a skilled person or persons for three to five years until they master the skill, e.g., the autofitters in Ghana and Nigeria. Apprentices pay a form of tuition fee to their masters who eventually assist them in their examinations by government officials at the end of

the four to five-year period.

In its non-formal education project in Ghana, the University of Massachusetts, through its Center for International Education staff, has attempted to introduce formal education instruction in the evening. Staff from formal vocational schools and facilities in one of the schools in Koforidua will be utilized. In Kumasi, Ghana, this approach has had a significant impact under CIDA auspices. This will be another example of complementary formal and non-formal education that could be adapted with ease by Lesotho, especially in the urban areas where apprenticeship is much easier to organize.

##### 5. National service:

Ethiopia, Tanzania, Uganda, Ghana and Nigeria are known for their admirable programs of national service required of secondary and university graduates before they are allowed to further their education or engage in any form of employment in the country. This has not only contributed to these countries' economic growth but has also taught students to appreciate what their countries have done for them.

In Lesotho there is no national service as such. It is still under consideration. This kind of service could be introduced for graduates of primary, secondary and vocational schools as well as for university students. It would be another method by which the Ministry of Education

could provide for better selection of students for further education. At present the selection system is confusing since there is not enough time between the publication of final examination results and the beginning of the next academic year. The University is the only exception to this problem.

If other developing countries have managed to utilize national service with a fair amount of benefit and success, there is no reason why Lesotho should not learn and adopt the system. This would be an opportune time for students to increase their educational experiences in real situations. This would be another way of complementing and supplementing their formal education.



## NOTES: CHAPTER V

<sup>1</sup>P. Mhaiki and H. Budd, The Integration of Adult Education in Tanzania (Dar es Salaam: University of Dar es Salaam Press, 1972), Page 9.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., Page 9.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., Page 15.

<sup>4</sup>P. Coombs, Attacking Rural Poverty: How Non-formal Education Can Help (Washington, D.C.: World Bank Publication, 1971), Page 52.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., Page 55.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., Page 58.

<sup>7</sup>P. Coombs, The World Educational Crisis (London: Oxford University Press, 1968), Page 14.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid., Page 14.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid., Page 14.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid., Page 142.

<sup>11</sup>Harbison and Myers, Education, Manpower and Economic Growth (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), Page 90.

<sup>12</sup>Harbison and Myers, Loc. Cit., Page 90.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., Page 90.

<sup>14</sup>C. Brembeck, New Strategies for Educational Development (Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, 1973), Page 198.

<sup>15</sup>Ibid., Page 198.

<sup>16</sup>H. Hawes, Lifelong Education, Schools and Curricula in Developing Countries: Report of an International Seminar, Hamburg, 1974, Page 52.

<sup>17</sup>Journal of the Nigerian National Council, Vol. 1, 1975 (Lagos: University of Lagos Press), Page 14.

<sup>18</sup>M. Grandstaff, Program of Studies in Non-formal Education, Michigan State University, 1974, Page 107.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid., Page 108.

## CHAPTER VI

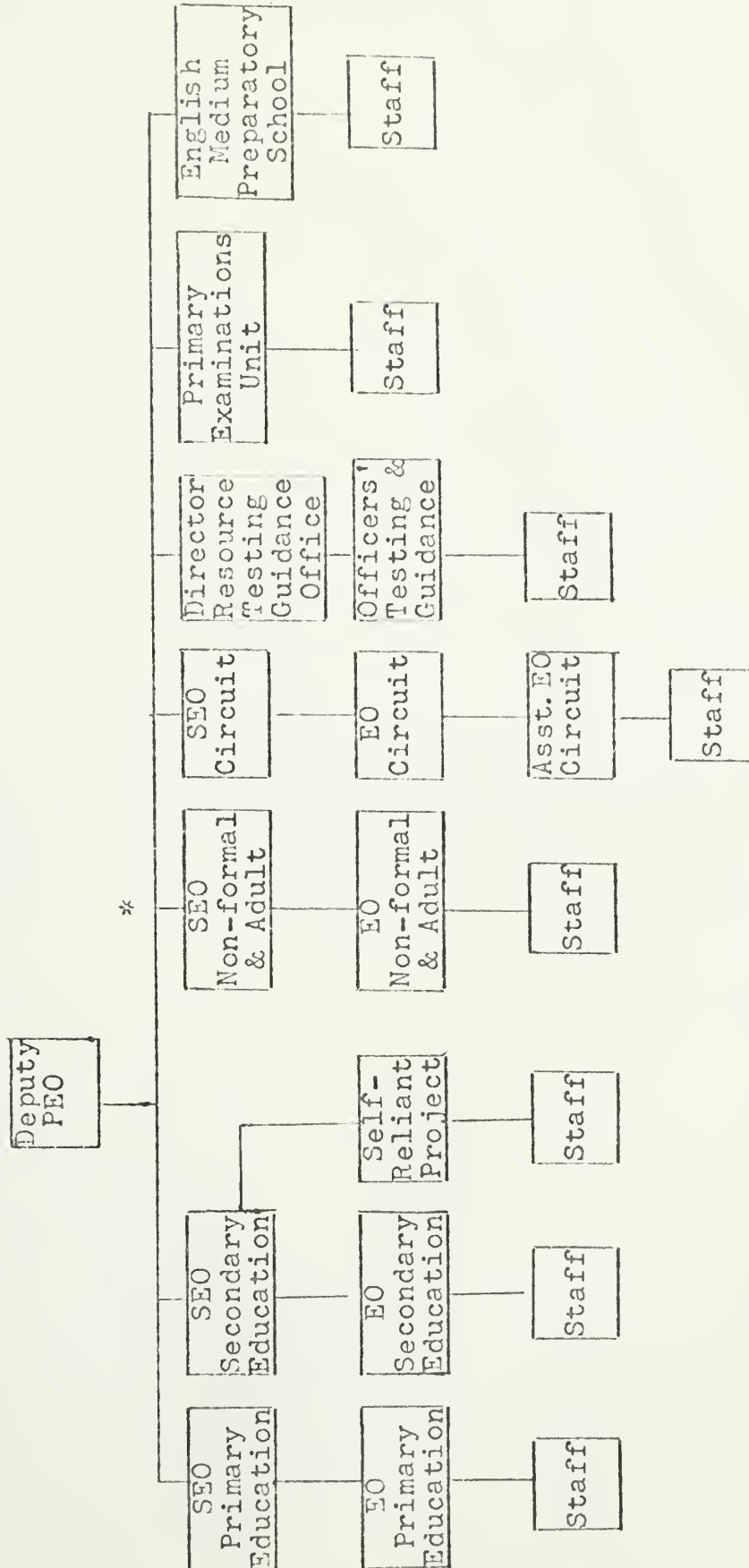
A SUGGESTED APPROACH TOWARDS COMPLEMENTARY/SUPPLEMENTARY  
FUNCTION OF FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

For the first time in the history of the Lesotho educational system, learning experiences outside the formal classroom are being seriously considered and given a place in the structure of the Ministry of Education. In the Ministry's Organizational Chart proposed in 1976, there will be a unit within the Ministry whose responsibility will be non-formal education. The part of that chart relevant to this chapter follows.

According to the proposed structure there should be joint planning by officers responsible for the formal system and those selected to administer affairs of non-formal education. At this time, however, it is difficult to visualize how this hoped for coordination and symbiotic operation would be implemented. Now that the Government's policy on non-formal education has been stipulated for the first time, what remains to be seen is the implementation of the plan. However, the success of any plan which aims at complementary-supplementary functions of formal and non-formal education depends on how effective available facilities and resources are utilized.

ORGANIZATION CHART OF THE LESOTHO MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, 1976

(Showing Implementation of Non-formal Education)



Key: PEO: Principal Education Officer  
 SEO: Senior Education Officer  
 EO: Education Officer

Source: Ministry of Education, Lesotho Government

\*Implementation Department

## Facilities Which Can be Used Jointly for Formal and Non-formal Education

Throughout the country there exist physical facilities which are not used to the maximum benefit of the nation. The following list highlights some such facilities which could be used to promote an efficient and effective educational system.

### 1. School buildings and equipment:

The majority of school buildings are unoccupied on weekends, holidays, afternoons and evenings. Equipment, too, remains idle as long as these buildings remain unused.

### 2. Church buildings:

Church buildings are found in numbers in almost every village within the country. Owned by various Christian denominations, these buildings are used only on Sundays and once or twice during the week.

### 3. Community halls:

All urban areas in the nine districts have community halls. These roomy buildings are often used only on Saturday and Sunday evenings for social activities. Other than that they remain idle.

### 4. Local court buildings:

Local court buildings are used by the Ministry of Justice during the five weekdays between nine in the morning and four o'clock in the afternoon. In the evenings and during the weekends these rooms remain unused all over the country.

5. Agricultural granaries, shearing sheds and shelters:

These agricultural facilities receive only seasonal use and are, therefore, unoccupied for more than three-quarters of the year.

6. The five Farmer Training Centres:

These training centers for farmers have excellent facilities for lodging and boarding people, but at present they are used little by the Ministry of Agriculture because the Ministry cannot organize sufficient courses because of financial limitations. This means that the buildings are not receiving maximum use.

7. Verandah space on trading stores:

Verandahs on trading stores would be an ideal place to hold classes in the evenings after the stores' routine hours. Most of the stores have electrical plants which the rest of the village does not have. Negotiations would have to be carried out between the owners of such trading stores and the government personnel who would organize particular educational activities.

8. Health clinics:

These health centers are often used but two or three times a week--the rest of the time lying idle. Since mothers and children visit them frequently, their educational use could go beyond service and medical or clinical examinations. Literacy classes, crafts classes, etc. could be held in the buildings.

9. Traditional open meeting spaces:

Every village has an open meeting place where people assemble when chiefs or elders convene meetings. These areas are in open spaces and have no equipment. They could be exploited for educational purposes.

10. National sports grounds:

Some sports grounds and stadiums have benches, stands, microphones--and always wide open spaces. Throughout the week they remain idle. They are ideal places to be used for educational gatherings such as public lectures and demonstrations. At present they are used mainly on Saturdays and Sundays.

11. Empty and/or deserted buildings:

According to the laws of Lesotho, one is not allowed to sell or demolish houses when migrating to other parts of the country. As a result, many villages have one or more empty houses which could be used for educational purposes; the chief or the relatives of the absent owner would, of course, have to be consulted.

### Potential Clientele

This section lists and discusses groups of people who could utilize the above mentioned facilities for formal and non-formal education. The list is by no means in order of merit.

### 1. Drop-outs:

Drop-outs mainly come from: primary schools, secondary schools and vocational schools. The Bureau of Statistics has adopted a definition which was established by UNESCO describing drop-outs. The definition reads:

Drop-out: [a person] leaving school before the completion of a given stage of education or leaving at some intermediate or non-terminal point in the cycle.

Several factors contribute to a student's dropping out of the formal school system--some have been discussed previously. They include financial problems, lack of interest, a negative attitude towards school, social engagements and family obligations.

### 2. Women:

Training facilities are to be expanded for women not only in rural sections but also in the non-agricultural sections of the country whenever and wherever possible.

As part of the expansion plans, it is proposed that training facilities in the rural non-agricultural sector be expanded and extended to much larger numbers of people, particularly women.1

### 3. Farmers:

The Ministry of Agriculture is actively engaged in educating the rural population to undertake improved and productive agriculture. These efforts are supplemented by the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting through

radio programs. The Ministry of Education, too, with its formal education curriculum provides agriculture as a subject in all primary schools and several secondary schools.

Due to lack of coordination and sense of direction, rural populations have not fully benefitted from these efforts of the Government ministries. Villages all over the country contain thousands of men and women who could derive benefit from a well-organized, integrated, rural development program. Ideally, Government ministries would (and could) plan together and cooperate from their headquarters--down to the lowest extension worker at the village level. Presently farmers constitute a large section of the population which is served at different times, without any concerted planning effort, by the Ministries of Health, Education, Agriculture, Information, Interior and Community Development agencies--none of whom coordinate their efforts to any significant extent.

##### 5. Returned migrant laborers:

Migrant laborers returning to Lesotho after working outside the country represent a valuable resource for a wide range of skills and capabilities. Unfortunately no one has ever taken the initiative to identify these people and exploit what they have to offer the country. However,



these skills are real and include experience as:

drivers of various motor vehicles,  
carpenters,  
miners,  
tailors,  
managers of businesses,  
farmers,  
motor mechanics,  
painters,  
construction workers,  
brick makers and brick layers,  
and animal husbandry workers (especially for cattle & sheep).

Lack of capital and/or financial assistance, as well as the absence of diplomas and certificates have resulted in the group's being a wasted human resource. It is a clientele which definitely could benefit the country if provided with educational opportunities.

#### 6. Herdboys and shepherds:

This category, which has been neglected for ages, forms a clientele which can easily be identified and organized in any village anywhere in the country. Herdboys and shepherds are mainly boys between the ages of six and sixteen. They live mainly in the rural areas and spend four-fifths of each day in the field tending their herds or flocks.

These boys can neither read nor write, but they are not stupid--they can count; because no matter how large the size of their flocks, they can always tell if one animal is missing! Their experience is extraordinary. They are of great potential value to the country in spite of the fact that they form the lowest class in the village

7. Employees of Government ministries and other institutions:

There exist unskilled and semi-skilled men and women in all Government ministries, para-statal organizations and private agencies who could realize their full potential if they participated in educational programs offered by the Ministry of Education of Lesotho. What could be a prototype for such a system of education was instituted five years ago in the capital of Lesotho for civil servants. Under the guidance of the Lesotho Institute for Further Education (LIFE), these people attend formal classes for approximately four hours each day. This sector of people includes junior clerical staff, messengers, shopkeepers, primary and secondary school teachers and nurses. The program should be expanded throughout Lesotho.

8. Village leaders:

Community leaders exist in every village. They fall into three categories: a) charismatic leaders, including those leaders who are automatically respected and recognized by their people; b) traditional leaders, who are the chiefs and elders of their communities and who enjoy privileges and great power in society; and c) positional leaders who are the teachers, extension workers, religious leaders and lastly, the politicians.

All of these leaders form a vital clientele which holds a basic position at the grassroots level in the

villages and the cooperation of which is absolutely necessary in implementing any program, large or small, in the country if it is to meet with success. At present nothing has been done to help them become better educated or more aware of the needs of Lesotho in the area of education--more specifically of the important role they can play in the educational system.

9. Entrepreneurs:

This group consists of small Basotho businessmen and women who are to be found in very nearly every village. They own the cafes and trading stores; the breweries and butcheries and bakeries. They lease the farming equipment and transport vehicles and draft animals. This clientele has had no form of training despite their considerable efforts in the economic building of the country. These small businessmen could be helped to run their businesses more efficiently by being offered training in business administration, purchasing and marketing, and courses in human relations and personnel management. A planned educational system that could focus on the needs of this section of the population would be an asset in the economic development of Lesotho.

10. Students of Initiation Schools:

This section of the population, neglected as it is, forms a potential clientele for modern non-formal education. The students that attend these schools provide a basis for well-structured, traditional education.

Although the curricula in these schools is unwritten, some of its aspects concerning traditional education could be exploited and emphasized through non-formal education techniques for the benefit of the nation.<sup>2</sup> Values of the society as manifested by folklore, poetry, traditional dance, music, history and culture could be examined by both traditional leaders and government's non-formal educational officers. Practical skills necessary for survival in the community such as tending domestic animals, tanning hides and shoe making, which were formerly taught in traditional schools, could be revived and emphasized. This is a sector of education which probably needs reorganization and revitalization by administrators--there is a ready clientele.

#### 11. Pre-marital education for betrothed couples:

When two individuals agree to be married in Lesotho a considerable proportion of society becomes involved--relatives, friends, peers, village leaders and church and government officials. In the past much pre-marital education was carried out by elders of the village and close relatives who would sit down with the couple to give direct instruction on topics such as sex, human relations, citizenship, home economics and child care. Nowadays conditions have changed. As people become more urbanized the informal education system through which these betrothed couples used to learn their duties and responsibilities in the institu-

tion of marriage, as well as in the society, no longer operates effectively. Ties with the family and ones original village have declined considerably. Most youth today plan and carry out their marriages without supervision. In the meantime, these young adults miss the important educational aspect of the marriage institution.

To fill this gap some structured education needs to be designed for this clientele. Parents, teachers, traditional leaders, and government and church officials could cooperate to assist couples in this area. Many people would benefit from such an organized, non-formal system of education on marriage. Otherwise empty schools would be an ideal place to hold workshops and working sessions all over the country during weekends, school holidays and during the evening hours.

## 12. Chiefs:

Also in the area of instructing adults informally is the institution of chieftainship. Chiefs have been the backbone of and a stabilizing factor in Lesotho society since time immemorial. Their responsibilities include peace making and peace keeping, the settling of disputes of families, advising citizens, allocating land, conducting cultural festivities and managing land.<sup>3</sup> Chieftainship is a vital institution as such; however, there is almost no education and training provided for this key population to prepare them for their role in society.

At present they attend regular schools like anybody else and receive a kind of training not relevant to their duties.

13. Members of community organizations:

Members of community organizations which include Credit Unions, Women's Associations, cooperatives and village self-help groups are already involved in a system of non-formal education. However, they could benefit from guidance with their affairs in the realm of management, organization and mobilization and recruitment of membership; identification of resources and efficient allocation and utilization of said resources.

The Lesotho Distance Teaching Center, which is a service-oriented institution, has begun helping community agencies on a minimal scale. During their spare time, the interns of the National Teacher Training College, too, have begun working with members of various community organizations. This is a classic example of how formal education can be of service to a clientele in a non-formal setting.

Through the office of non-formal education these community organizations can be both receivers and givers of education. Better coordination could make them more effective in answering the needs of the participants.

Foreseeable Constraints  
on the Complementarity Approach

It is a fact that the people and the Government of Lesotho expect education to play a more active role in the development of the country. They also assume that development would result if the educational system significantly addressed itself to the realization of the national goals of the country more than it has done in the past. However, whatever efforts are made to enhance the strength of education, there are some major constraints, constraints which have faced formal education for the past four decades. Any plan to boost non-formal education, to complement and supplement formal education in an attempt to make total education more effective, will face the problems listed below. However, this investigator strongly believes that a complementarity approach between the two sectors of education would lessen the impact of these problems and the total educational system--formal, non-formal and indigenous, will be not only more economical but will also reach more Basotho.

1. Financial problems:

Several education commissions have produced reports which have remained in the archives owing to lack of funds for implementation. Poor as it is, the country cannot afford to undertake some programs or projects no

matter how beneficial they may appear. In fact, other ministries have complained that the national education budget, which comprises 26 percent of the total annual expenditure, is too high for a small country with limited resources such as Lesotho. Attempting complementarity within all sections of education will need more money and this is likely to be a handicap.

## 2. Political pressures:

Newly formed ministries such as Community Development, Information and Broadcasting have added to the burden of national expenditures. It is, therefore, not likely that there will be any substantial increases for older ministries such as Education, Interior, Agriculture, Health or Cooperatives. At times these new ministries are a response to political pressures for it is through direct, positive involvement of the government that people "believe" in their government--it is visible, and "seeing is believing." This is the case at present with the Ministry of Community Development in Lesotho. Villages prefer Community Development, the results of which they see and share in, here and now. They may not appreciate the move to invest in the complementarity of all sections of education, which is a long-term investment.

## 3. Government priorities:

Present government policy emphasizes agricultural projects and small scale industries which can provide jobs



for the numerous Basotho who annually join the labor force. Any educational innovations might have a lower priority to these needs. Therefore, available financial and/or human resources are channelled to these areas of agriculture and industry; and they also receive the larger share of available support from foreign aid.

4. The examination system:

The present competitive system of examinations at all levels of the formal system discourages schools from engaging in meaningful and useful out-of-school activities of a non-formal nature. Teachers, students and parents are consumed with the fear that "valuable" school time shall be consumed by activities which will not directly contribute to the improvement of the examination results at the end of the school year. Examination questions encourage rote learning and theory at the expense of practical work and the exploration of the fund of rich knowledge buried in the school's environment.

5. Attitude of teachers and parents:

Change does not come easily--especially in the area of formal education. Parents and teachers were brought up in a system which emphasized book learning. They find it difficult to accept a new approach to education that sees the complementarity of in-school and out-of-school curricula. Teachers feel insecure in this approach to education; parents often feel their children are being exposed to an inferior type of education.

#### 6. Willingness to volunteer:

Voluntarism is always a major force in a non-formal approach to education. In the past, pre-independence voluntarism was not a major problem. People worked together in various village projects for the benefit of the whole society. Today conditions have changed. The standard of living has risen tremendously and the majority of citizens have no time for volunteer work but just to struggle for survival. This is even worse with rural populations who lack employment opportunities. Whatever job they do they would prefer a cash pay for it to help combat the rising cost of life.

The degree of willingness to volunteer in the programs of complementary formal and non-formal education may be too low. This could be a major constraint.

#### 7. Missionaries:

Though church missions are voluntary agencies, there is often resistance on the part of missionaries to accept change. Recently one education commission recommended that the time had come for schools to be handed over to public ownership. This became a burning, sensitive socio-political issue. It cannot be ruled out that some missionaries may refuse the use of church buildings and schools by out-of-school clientele. This question would need further research as well.

8. Lack of government enthusiasm for non-formal education:

The degree of government commitment and willingness to state its policy in black and white regarding this proposed approach raises questions. At times the Government has verbally supported the idea of students' engaging in out-of-school activities, but it has been reluctant to do so either in writing or publicly. It was reflected in the dealings of the Government with the Family Planning Association, which is a non-formal education agency, where the Government was unwilling to voice its support publicly because of religious and political pressures.

Summary

Despite the foreseeable constraints which have been enumerated in the previous section, the formal system of education has significant resources and facilities which could be used and shared effectively by part-time and full-time formal and non-formal programs. The answer to how this can be done is attempted in the next chapter.

## NOTES: CHAPTER VI

<sup>1</sup>Lesotho Second Five Year Development Plan (1975/76-1979/ ), (Maseru: Central Planning Office, 1975) Page 185.

<sup>2</sup>Hugh Ashton, The Basuto (London: Oxford University Press, 1967), Page 51.

<sup>3</sup>W. D. Hammond-Tooke, The Bantu-Speaking Peoples of Southern Africa (London: Routledge and Kegan), Page 266.

## C H A P T E R   V I I

### RECOMMENDATIONS AND PLAN FOR ACTION

It was established in the last chapter that there are resources and facilities which can be shared by the three types of education found in Lesotho: formal, non-formal and indigenous. Potential clientele that could utilize these resources and facilities were identified and it is the conclusion of this study that cooperation between the three areas of education mentioned has a greater chance of success in helping education contribute more meaningfully in the achievement of national goals.

The following recommendations aim at a blending of the three previous mentioned areas, whereby each draws upon the other to the development of the country and in so doing expands its contribution.

#### Specific Proposals

1. Utilization of facilities:
  - a. Let all school facilities (buildings and equipment) be used by adults and out-of-school youth when not in use for routine classes. Encourage the "educated" to organize classes for people who have no access to formal education.

- b. Enforce utilization of public houses, churches and deserted buildings for either formal, non-formal or indigenous educational activities.
  - c. Declare public places like sports grounds and/or traditional meeting places as educational centers where any educational activities, whether formal or non-formal can be undertaken.
2. Modifications in the educational policy:
- a. Introduce a pre-university school curriculum which requires students and teachers to spend half the day in class and the other half out in the communities. Students should record their learning experiences and degree of participation in the socio-economic activities of the communities.
  - b. Identify skilled personnel in the communities and use them as part-time instructors paid by the government like any other part-time teachers. Give these people recognition and status within the educational system.
  - c. Introduce manual work from primary to university level. Emphasize cleanliness, horticulture and domestic science for both sexes. Invite women's organizations to supervise and

- educate students thoroughly in these fields.
- d. Arrange for weekend workcamps at least thrice a term.
  - e. Introduce national service for all post-primary levels. For example, graduates of Junior Certificate, Cambridge Overseas Certificate, Teacher Training, Nurses' Schools, Policy School, Agricultural School, Clinical Schools and the University should spend six months serving in the scheme of National Service before further education or any form of employment is allowed. National service should be one qualifying criterion to qualify for either further education or employment in the country.
  - f. Design and incorporate a strong scheme of apprenticeship within the educational system. Government ministries and private organizations should be required to apprentice students who take courses related to their fields of operation.
  - g. Provide some credits for skills that parents or community members may teach to the students, e.g., handicrafts, tailoring, pottery, tanning, shoe making and weaving.

- h. Let civil servants who have been trained as teachers participate in classroom teaching as part of their normal duties.
- i. Identify civil servants with any other skills that could help out-of-school clientele. Engage them on part-time bases to teach in non-formal settings as part of their duties.
- j. Provide opportunities for students to gain practical experience in a life situation in the villages around them. This should be compulsory for both science and arts students.
- k. Give some status to non-formal and traditional education by allocating funds and personnel to these educational areas. This refers not only to the Ministry of Education but to other government ministries involved in education, e.g., Agriculture, community development, Health and Interior.

3. Improvements in traditional institutions:

- a. Train all levels of chieftainship from the Headman on up to the Principal Chief. Arrange workshops and courses which include topics such as leadership, management, law, community development, human relations, facilitator



- model, land management and other agricultural areas. Use schools for these workshops.
- b. Organize evening courses for adults to discuss and to help strengthen an awareness of the important role a family plays in the education of both youth and adults.
  - c. Arrange special short courses for young adults and the betrothed to complement the education on topics related to matrimony such as family planning, child care, nutrition, nationalism, political consciousness, budgeting, sexual education, citizenship and law.
  - d. Negotiate with sponsors of initiation schools, formal schools, and villages around them to provide service to one another in a meaningful, cultural and educational way. Cultivate the spirit of national pride on all sides and encourage exchange of knowledge by modern doctors and indigenous medicine men in all these schools.
  - e. Revive and strengthen the old form of apprenticeship as it has been done in most West African countries.
  - f. Revive the indigenous spirit of volunteerism and cooperative labor. Cultivate this spirit in the formal schools, non-formal education settings and in the communities everywhere in the country.

## Implementation Guidelines

With regard to these proposed strategies the question "how" is vital. The following section illustrates how this complementarity could be undertaken between formal, non-formal and indigenous education.

### 1. Primary schools and the communities:

Primary schools are not isolated geographically. Pupils that attend these schools come from surrounding villages and yet there is very little contact, if any at all, between the schools and their communities. However, there are several ways to link the schools and the community for the benefit of all parties concerned.

Non-formal and/or out-of-school educational programs can be moved into existing school buildings. At present school buildings and equipment remain unused at weekends and during long winter and summer holidays. They are valuable resources in terms of time, space and perhaps as a bonus--teachers, for youth and adults who are not now in the full-time educational system. The utilization of existing school physical plants for non-formal educational programs has proved successful in Tanzania and India as indicated in the previous chapter.

Linkage on the local level could be realized by cultivating the use of the skilled craftsmen/women to be found in any village who could teach pupils various in-

digenous crafts, leather production, beadwork, potter and the like.

Every community has at least one informed, elderly man or woman who has valuable historical and geographical knowledge of the villages and/or region in which the school is located. Books read in school hardly provide this kind of information, and the subject is devoured by fascinated students. Interns of the National Teacher Training College have begun exploring this area on a small scale, but all schools should be persuaded to cultivate this area of education.

Subjects such as agriculture and environmental studies can be taught in a way so that they will give students practical experience in relating theory--that which they learn in school--to living in the world. For example, students can plant trees and thereby participate in soil conservation measures undertaken by the Government and communities in their local vicinity.

## 2. Secondary schools and communities:

Secondary schools could carry on programs similar to those in primary schools but on a more intensive level. Although the age of the students and the skills of the teachers in secondary and primary schools differ, the talents of those involved could be utilized more effectively.

Secondary schools have suitable facilities for youth

and adults who wish to continue their academic education. Some urban secondary schools have begun to assist people who wish to study for either the Junior Certificate and/or the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate. Considering the large number of primary school graduates who remain unadmitted to secondary schools, an increase in admissions would be an asset. The same advantage should be extended to a large group of Junior Certificate graduates who cannot find space in the few available senior secondary schools.

It is at the secondary school level where inhabitants of the local village could be taught government structure (political science) and current events. Prominent citizens could address the public on subjects of interest to a majority of people outside of the formal school system. The topics of interest are endless. They would, undoubtedly, include historical, religious, social and economic subjects-- as well as subjects of generally informative nature. Most urban areas in West Africa have explored this approach to non-formal education and manage to keep the public abreast of current events. Ghana has achieved notable success in their efforts in this area.

Sports, music, drama and dance for relaxation and education can be extended to the local communities without much effort. This is one area of non-formal education which has been neglected in Lesotho because of the examination-oriented academic system (mentioned previously). Every min-

ute is used to facilitate favorable results in the final examination at the end of the year. Teachers and students avoid as much as possible any deviation from the syllabus and school time-table.

Although community and students would benefit from a complementary relationship, the Ministry of Education of Lesotho has not fostered an interdependence. Some areas of possible mutual cooperation in the future are discussed below:

- a. Junior secondary schools have been bound by government policy that in their core curriculum are to be studied: Sesotho, English, Mathematics and Science. In addition, there must be a "practical" subject such as carpentry, brick making, art and design, building, craftwork, home economics or some aspect of farming. There are vast opportunities in the neighboring communities where students can learn as apprentices from experienced and well-qualified local people. Some of these villagers are multi-skilled and others are specialized.
- b. Latin American countries, as discussed previously have been able to engage students in intensive apprenticeship systems. Cuba, the Soviet Union and China have introduced work-oriented curriculums which require students to spend specific

amounts of time in socio-economic activities of their communities, mostly as apprentices.

- c. The students could learn from aged men and women who possess valuable information of historical, social, geographical, linguistic and poetic significance. These reservoirs of information are seldom tapped in Lesotho.
- d. Throughout Lesotho are places which have historical significance: Bushmen's Caves and paintings, rivers, mountains, villages and valleys--all containing glacial details and artifacts of interest to the people of Lesotho.

Perhaps schools in Lesotho could follow the example set by schools in Uganda and the Older Amish, whereby students spend half of their school time in classrooms and half of their time in the community where they become involved in social and economic activities of their communities. This exercise helps them learn from their own elders and their environment becomes part and parcel of their studies and their lives.

In Lesotho, students and their teachers know far more about foreign countries and their affairs than their own, a phenomenon which weakens patriotism. Local communities can offer opportunities to alter this situation. Since lack of funds is a major handicap to carrying on secondary schools

development projects, local communities could possibly supply labor in exchange for the use of school facilities.

3. Initiation schools, formal schools and voluntary organizations in the community:

It may be difficult to convince the educated and the Christian clergy as well as the leaders in key positions that cooperation is possible among traditional schools and formal schools and non-formal education agencies. This is a significant challenge. However, such cooperation could benefit all parties concerned. The following examples illustrate how the various elements could help one another.

- a. Cooperation between traditional schools and communities: Students could partake of self-help projects such as road building, tree planting, weeding, dam construction, etc. At present the initiates do not partake in community activities. They remain isolated. In turn, communities would provide moral, social and material support.
- b. Cooperation between traditional schools and medical hospitals: Circumcision and similar traditional operations which require modern medical supervision could be carried out to both the traditionalists' satisfaction and the modernists' satisfaction if there were a dialogue carried on by the two factions. Modern and traditional doc-

tors could work together in the areas of surgery, psychotherapy and pharmacology. Each could learn from the other. At present, this is the situation in West Africa where modern doctors are carrying on research with medicinal herbs used by traditional doctors, while some traditional doctors have begun using modern medicines which they buy from chemists.

4. Primary and secondary schools and civil servants:

In almost every village there is a Government official. Most of these civil servants are extension workers. They have much to offer, depending on their field of operations in agriculture, health education, nutrition, etc. Schools have not exploited the presence of these qualified personnel who surround them and it is high time they did so. They could be asked to give part-time lessons in their fields of specialization.

Government representatives in the villages include:

- a. Nurses and nutritionists from the Ministry of Health;
- b. Agricultural officers, supervisors and demonstrators from the Ministry of Agriculture;
- c. Court clerks and secretaries from the Ministry of the Interior; and
- d. Community development officers from the Ministry of Development.

Although all of these extensions workers are not certified



teachers, some of them undoubtedly are and have taught before. In addition, they might have specialized in certain areas for which they could be a first-hand resource, a fund of practical information. Too often students depend on outdated textbooks and ill-qualified teachers.

Civil servants, wherever they are and whenever opportunity arises, should be encouraged and given the opportunity to instruct in schools in the vicinity in which they are stationed. Perhaps the government policy should statutorily designate the numbers of hours when certified, qualified civil servants would assume teaching chores as part of their schedules. Some civil servants who are qualified have been known to have been willing to serve in classrooms but have been denied the opportunity! (Here is a reservoir of potential linkage between formal and non-formal education.) In turn, upgrading courses could be arranged at schools of higher education for civil servants. This would be an incentive for them.

5. Primary/secondary schools and private/para-statal organizations:

Lesotho has numerous voluntary, private and para-statal organizations which are directly involved in non-formal education. Examples are: Agricultural Associations, Thrift and Credit Societies, Credit Unions, Christian Councils of Churches, the Lesotho Council of Women, the

Red Cross and the Catholic Relief Services; also, many international bodies such as W.H.O., CARE, UNDP, etc. These various organizations have numerous non-formal educational projects and programs. Schools hardly ever think of utilizing facilities and human resources in these organizations. In looking at the formal system's curricula and the content of the individual subjects studied, one discovers that a number of areas could be studied either practically or theoretically in conjunction with the activities of these organizations. The personnel in these bodies could probably explain concepts better (or at least in different ways, from teachers). Domestic science and agricultural classes, for example, can learn a great deal from what is currently taking place in these organizations.

6. The vocational schools and the communities.

In this category of schools could be included teacher training colleges, technical schools, nurses' training schools and agricultural schools. These schools often miss good opportunities for utilizing practical experience in their vicinities as a form of learning. Certain questions occur to one:

- a. Why should an agricultural school student not work with farmers during ploughing, planting and harvesting seasons?
- b. Why should training nurses not work in the neighboring villages when the need arises-- or to gain practical experience?
- c. Why should technical school students not

take contracts in the village to do the actual work whenever possible?

In China, Botswana and U.S.S.R. serious attempts are made to have a close relationship between work and study. What is studied academically in the classroom is put into practice as much as possible. Practice is mainly carried out in the surrounding communities. In China, students enrolled in formal schools are required, as part of their studies, to engage actively in productive labor using skills learned at school. Vocational students and schools in Lesotho utilize this opportunity hardly at all.

#### 7. The University and the communities:

No other educational institution has contributed more to the welfare of the rural communities than the local University. It has been involved in various non-formal educational programs since 1960 through its Extension Division. For example, courses have been held for community leaders, various government officials engaged in rural development, etc. Still, there is a feeling in the country that the University and non-formal educational institutions could cooperate even more effectively.

In certain areas of study such as Agriculture, Civil Engineering, Geology, Hydrology, Anthropology, Sociology and Development Studies, the subject matter might be handled more practically in the communities nearby. Students and their lecturers could travel to villages to gather,

first-hand, data to supplement what they receive from government reports and outdated books in the libraries. This would be another method of recording valuable information which is fast disappearing due to the influence of modernization in the country. Also, a thorough involvement of local University students and staff at the village level would help the Government and the people of Lesotho to balance reports by foreign authors and short-term "experts" provided by international organizations.

In the United States most students work part-time in various organizations, some of which are related to their field of study. In Cuba students are required to spend six weeks of every year working in various study areas in the villages as a requirement of the university program. This approach could be adopted in Lesotho.

The graduates of the local university would have fewer problems in graduates' assimilating into the government or private sector upon graduation if they did field work. And the graduates would better appreciate the problems facing the average person in the villages. University graduates at present in Lesotho, to their great surprise and embarrassment, often find themselves foreigners in their own country when they first join the civil service or parastatal and/or private organizations to serve the nation. This is the result of a lack of linkage between the formal educational system, out-of-school institutions, organizations and communities.

8. The university and the ministries:

There has been much concern that the governments and universities in Africa keep drifting apart from year to year. There usually comes a stage where the university students and staff confront national governments and criticize their educational policies or political strategies. There are many incidents in which governments have closed down universities as a result of this direct confrontation. In fact most civil servants may not appreciate the importance of a university if they have not been to one. They often actually dislike university populations.

There is no necessary reason for this mistrust and hatred of the two parties concerned within the same country. Universities are blessed with skilled and experienced professional manpower in areas such as Planning, Economics, Education and Political Science. In their production of successive five-year national development plans, countries such as Lesotho could partly utilize the expertise of the university on an invitation or consultantship basis rather than depend solely on international experts and a few local leaders. This would be a considerable step forward because instead of government employees' learning only from outside experts as counterparts, they would also gain substantially from the local university and its staff who are daily involved with direct teaching or lecturing at the university in the same fields.

## 9. The university:

As a result of this interaction and cooperation among the university staff, students and the society, university professors and students would go back and re-view theory and compare it with practical experience. This would be a real learning experience which would supplement and complement what is learned within classroom walls. Students studying Accounting, Business, Engineering, etc. could perform this field work as part of their programs since they would be involved in practical daily situations. As Fletcher put it in his edition, Universities in the Modern World:

....in many countries, all Universities have been aware of the dangers of living in an 'ivory tower' and of depriving themselves of contacts with the majority of citizens who have little contact with institutions of higher education.<sup>1</sup>

Fletcher calls this kind of involvement extension education. And throughout the chapter on the "Autonomy of the University," he advocates working hand-in-hand with local communities and institutions. He concludes his views thus:

When a University does engage in the extension of education beyond its walls, even if this imposes serious burdens upon its staff, it is the general verdict that there flows out from it a quickening energy into national life; there is a breaking down of barriers so that the people as a whole come to feel that they are engaged upon a high enterprise, in which the expansion of industry, the development of education, and the establishment of a wide welfare service cease to be elements of a bureaucratic machine....<sup>2</sup>

Prospective Advantages  
of Complementary Education

Education becomes a reality of this school-community relationship happens. Students see themselves applying their knowledge to real-life problems. John Dewey once said:

From the standpoint of the child the great waste in the school comes from his inability to utilize the experiences he gets outside the school in any complete and free way within the school itself....3

He further commented that pupils and students must be assisted to apply in their daily lives what they learn in school. In Lesotho, students could feel that they are directly contributing to the development and welfare of the country if teachers could take the trouble to explain the National Development Plan to the students and also why the schools do what they are doing. Van Rensburg states that a staff that understands the country's development plan can be a great asset. In his book, Education and Development, he supports that statement:

If the teachers understand the goals of planning, they may well make some of the best propagandizers for the development plan....4

By nourishing the complementarity of the various sectors of formal and non-formal and traditional education in Lesotho, students are going to feel that they are directly contributing to the development and welfare

of their country. This cooperation will be strengthened if teachers will take the trouble to involve students in practical application of the theories involved in the curricula.

President Julius Nyerere of Tanzania deplored the school system which isolates schools and communities: He complained bitterly:

School is always separate; it is not part of the society! 5

An approach of cooperation among parents, village leaders, voluntary organizations, teachers and students is likely to ease the relationship between schools and the communities around them. Members of the communities with special skills would contribute significantly to the overall education of the nation through part-time lectures or apprenticeship systems. Staff and students, as well as others outside the formal school system, would be aware that studying for diplomas and certificates is not the only channel for acquiring specialized skills. At present this destructive attitude is all too prevalent throughout the country.

For the staff and students in the schools throughout the educational system, acquisition of knowledge through the kind of approach here suggested would be more meaningful. Most of their course work would be not only theoretical but also practical. The country would be utilizing the present facilities and resources more advantageously.



A greater number of people would be reached, served and given a chance to contribute to the development of the country. This would be a significant step towards achieving Lesotho's national goals.

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## NOTES: CHAPTER VII

<sup>1</sup>B. Fletcher, Universities in the Modern World (Long Island, New York: Pergamon Press, 1968), Pp. 102-103.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 103-104.

<sup>3</sup>J. Dewey, The School and Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943), Page 75.

<sup>4</sup>P. Van Rensburg, Education and Development in an Emerging Country (Uppsala: Almqvist and Wiksells Boktryckeri Aktiebolag, Sweden, 1967), Page 21.

<sup>5</sup>J. Nyerere, Ujamaa: Essays on Socialism (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1968), Page 55.

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