

Chapter Three

Participation in Higher Education – The Experiences of Botswana

3.1 Introduction and Overview

The previous two chapters have indicated the importance of enhanced participation and achievement at higher education level for the economic advancement and improved competitiveness of developing countries in the world economy (Carnevale and Porro, 1994; Halsey *et al*, 1997; Young, 2006; World Bank, 2002; World Bank, 2008a). Chapter 2 discussed the slow pace with which some dual mode universities in Southern Africa seemed to facilitate the expansion of ODL, despite their inability to cope with ever increasing and diverse demands for entry into their programmes. This chapter reviewed the same concerns with special focus on the Botswana higher education sector, scanning the environment under which the sector is growing. It then examined some of the education policies and other documents of government, to try and understand the position of the higher education sector with regard to ODL at higher education level in Botswana. The chapter intended to find out whether there were any policies at national level which might enhance or impede the development, expansion or delivery of ODL at higher education level in Botswana. Then it sought to review policies and plans of the UB to understand the planned status, contribution, development and expansion process of the ODL mode at UB, and the resultant contributions towards increasing access to UB programmes, the main emphasis being to establish the level of equivalency between the two modes. While discussing the policy environment and the development and expansion processes of ODL at the UB, the chapter endeavoured to also draw on experiences from other countries.

3.2 Importance of Higher Education

Literature indicated that attainment of higher order skills through higher education was one of the most crucial factors that could contribute to sustained economic development of any country, and also for the country's competitiveness in the global economy (Carnevale and

Porro, 1994; Halsey *et al*, 1997; World Bank, 2002; Young, 2006; World Bank, 2008a). Literature also indicated that Southern African countries, Botswana included, seemed to have challenges increasing their higher education participation ratios in order for them to catch up with the other more advanced regions and to elevate their competitive capacity in the global economic arena. The region seemed comparatively far behind in terms of both economic development and participation in higher education. Average participation for the region still appeared to be below 10% GER, as can be deduced from (SADC, 2006; UNESCO, 2007; Daniel, 2007; World Bank, 2008a).

This situation therefore seemed to call for urgent and increased efforts to enhance regional participation at higher education level. However, competing demands on the already stretched meagre resources seemed to make it difficult (World Bank, 2000) for many of the Southern African countries to expand traditional face-to-face higher education provision to increase opportunities for participation, high enough to absorb the demands, as well as maintain quality (World Bank, 2000; World Bank, 2008a). To address this challenge, the SADC region in 1997 identified ODL as one of the strategies to expand opportunities for increased participation at higher education level while maintaining quality (SADC, 1997; SADC Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan⁷).

This renewed interest in the importance of higher education appeared to have been echoed with renewed emphasis in the plans and policies meant to transform the Botswana higher education sector since 1994, following the review of the whole education system in 1993 (Republic of Botswana, 1994; Khama, 2008; Tertiary Education Council, 2006; Tertiary Education Council, 2008b; University of Botswana, 2008a). Botswana is one of the countries in Southern Africa which appeared to be striving to expand opportunities to meet the high unmet demands for higher education from youth and adults (Dodds *et al*, 2008).

⁷ The date and place of publication for the SADC Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP) is not reflected. But on 8 February 2006, Mr. Immanuel Ngatjizeko, Minister of Trade and Industry, in Namibia, indicated that the RISDP was approved by the SADC Council of Ministers at their meeting held in Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania, in August 2003 and launched in March 2004, by the Chairperson of SADC H.E. Benjamin William Mkapa

3.3 The Botswana Higher Education Sector

It became important for me to establish the environment within which the higher education sector had been and continued to be developed and expanded, in order to appreciate and acknowledge its challenges and or opportunities.

3.3.1 The Level of Development at Independence

Literature indicated that at independence in 1966 and after 81 years as a British Protectorate, Botswana, which is semi-arid, with a size of about 582 000 km², landlocked between Namibia, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe, was one of the 24 poorest countries in the world (Colclough and McCarthy, 1980; Crowder, 1984; Mokaeya, 1986; Mokaeya, 1992; Mogae, 2005; World Economic Forum, 2009). Many challenges appeared to have faced the new Government, like wide spread poverty, no infrastructure development, except for a Cecil Rhodes railway line running through the eastern part of the country between South Africa and Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), which was completed in 1897 (Mogae, 2005).

This historical context seemed to illustrate a total neglect of the development of education and other social services during the 81 years of British rule, such that Chiepe cited in Crowder (1984) observed that Botswana was inescapably caught in a poverty trap in 1966. It also appeared like a clear illustration of the human and resource exploitation of African countries by the colonial powers. Leburu-Sianga and Malobe (2000) as well as Mogae (2005) made a similar observation, indicating that the institutional machinery to run the operations of Government was weak, almost non-existent at independence. Almost everything had to be started from scratch. There were eight (8) secondary schools at the time and no university in the country (Dodds and Youngman, 1994). Some writers indicated that there were only about 22 to 40 graduate Botswana nationals (Batswana⁸) at the time of independence in 1966 (Mokaeya, 1992; Mogae, 2005; World Economic Forum, 2009) and about 100 holders of a

⁸ *Batswana refers to the people of Botswana. In Botswana this term includes all citizens of Botswana regardless of race, ethnicity or language spoken. Also see World rank and map Setswana refers to the official indigenous language of Botswana – Botswana (country), Batswana (people of Botswana) and Setswana (language spoken by Batswana)*

senior secondary certificate (University of Botswana, 1999). The government of Botswana therefore identified as a priority, the rapid expansion of secondary education, as a first step towards the development of local personnel to serve mainly in Government Departments, which at the time were manned almost exclusively by expatriates (Crowder, 1984; Leburu-Sianga and Malobe, 2000). In the area of higher education, Botswana is observed to have depended mainly on South African institutions at independence, for both face-to-face and correspondence provision, a phenomenon that seemed not have changed much (Mokaeya, 1992; Leburu-Siyanga and Malobe, 2000; Lephhalala and Pienaar, 2007).

3.3.2 The Population that the Higher Education Sector Serves

It is important to note that Botswana has a relatively young population (Tertiary Education Council, 2008b; Central Statistics Office, 2008a). Estimations of the latest (2001) population census reflected an age structure that swayed the population more towards being youthful. The 0 – 4 years age group formed an estimated 11.6% of the population in 2001, 5 – 14 years formed 25% of the population, while the 15 – 49 years formed about 52% of the population by 2001 (Central Statistics Office, 2008a; also see ([World rank and map](#))). In Botswana children started their seven year primary school cycle at six years of age, though in private schools they could start at five, while in some exceptional cases where some children, for example, with health problems or some of those who lived in very remote areas of the country, might start school at seven or even eight. Generally, 14 – 18 was the secondary school age group, which would take a total of five years from junior to end of the senior secondary school cycle.

The estimated 52% of the population (15 – 49 year old group) would actually be the one of immediate critical concern for higher education, since this was where the bulk of the demand for access seemed to come from. Looking at the estimated age structure, hypothetically about 50% or so of the population would be in need of higher education in twelve years from 2001, notwithstanding drop-out cases and other challenges, and also taking into consideration the population that would be out of school but requiring higher education. It was also established that other groups like those over 25, who formed the bulk of the working adults,

also required opportunities for continuing education⁹ and lifelong learning, and hence made added demands on the higher education sector (Dodds *et al*, 2008). This pattern of population distribution had very significant implications for planning the future expansion of higher education in Botswana.

The whole population was estimated to be around 1.720 million by 2006 (SARUA, 2009), 1,947,806 by 2016 and about 2,221,007 by 2026 (Central Statistics Office, 2008a). These estimates were based on the 2001 Population Census projections for 2001 to 2031 and the Central Statistics Office had taken into account mortality effects of the HIV and AIDS epidemic. The years 2016 and 2026 were identified as important milestone years in Botswana, especially for the higher education sector, which had set its expansion targets of 17% and 25% of the 18 – 24 age group to attain by these years respectively (Tertiary Education Council, 2008b; SARUA, 2009). However, one noticed that the targets set for 2016 and 2026, where participation ratios of 17% and 25% respectively were to be achieved, seemed to be targeting only the 18 – 24 age group and appeared to have excluded the adult population of 25 years and above, which formed another large group that required higher education and training, as well as lifelong learning opportunities (Dodds *et al*, 2008).

It is important to note that even though the majority of the population had always concentrated along the eastern part of the country where there were better rains and cultivatable land, together with more robust infrastructure development, compared to the rest of the country, the vast area mainly covered by the Kalahari Desert also had many scattered inhabitants who required services like education. Achieving equitable distribution of education at primary and secondary continued to be a challenge for the country, primarily because of the nature of the terrain, which hampered equitable levels of development. This is an area where face-to-face higher education provision would continue to find serious challenges and where perhaps employing ODL methods might turn out to be better at addressing the demands in these areas and the equity challenge. Apart from the terrain

⁹ *Continuing education refers to specialist courses to update professionals: regular courses or training designed to bring professionals up to date with the latest developments in their particular field (http://encarta.msn.com/dictionary_1861688271/continuing_education.htm)*

challenge, other challenges of the education sector had to do with the nomadic lifestyle of some of the inhabitants of the remote areas of the country, who like all the citizens needed to be reached by social services enjoyed by the rest of the country, including education. Again ODL might be a more plausible option based on its flexibility.

3.3.3 The Education Policy Environment

It was important to look at the policy environment in Botswana, within which the higher education sector had developed since 1994. The year 1994 is of significance to education in Botswana because it was the year during which the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) was approved and the year during which its implementation commenced. The major goal of the RNPE was to prepare Botswana for a transition from a traditional agro-based economy to an industrial economy (Republic of Botswana, 1994). Vision 2016 is another major policy document influencing the direction of developments in Botswana, including those in education, which was formulated in 1997. Through its seven pillars, one of them being to achieve a state in which Botswana will be “an educated and informed nation” by 2016, the Vision envisaged Botswana achieving national transformation that should result in improved social, economic, political, spiritual and cultural lives of all Botswana (Republic of Botswana, 1997). The RNPE and Vision 2016 have been the main guiding policy documents for the strategic direction of the education system since 1994 and 1997 respectively.

3.3.4 Competing Demands

Literature also indicated many urgent needs and demands in Botswana, competing for resources with education in general and higher education particularly, like poverty, unemployment, disease especially the HIV and AIDS pandemic, whose prevalence was estimated at 23.9% by 2008 figures, and making Botswana the second highest after Swaziland (Jefferis and Kapaletswe, 2008; SARUA, 2009). Jefferis and Kapaletswe (2008) indicated that, although the UNDP Human Development Index (HDI) had shown an impressive state of social development for Botswana, the country’s ranking had recently plummeted especially because of the low life expectancy influenced by the effects of AIDS,

which was observed to have severely affected the human resource development achievements that the country had realised since independence (Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008). Additionally, literature cited problems like limited energy supply for the economy, high transport costs for some of the high volume exports, as well as the economic slowdown that was affecting the whole world (World Economic Forum, 2009). These were some of the major concerns putting a strain on the allocation of resources particularly for higher education in Botswana.

3.4 Priorities for Education

The basic priority for the education sector is to achieve equitable distribution of all levels of education to all citizens of Botswana. Achievement of this priority appeared to have been hampered primarily by resource constraints, resulting in inequitable availability of infrastructure on which education development and delivery depended.

3.4.1 Goals for the Sector as a Whole

Even though the Government initially prioritised rapid development of the secondary education sector, the 1977 National Commission on Education recommended a shift of emphasis towards the first nine years of basic education, covering seven years of primary education and two years of junior secondary, starting from 1977/78 (Dodds and Youngman, 1994). Following this recommendation and in line with the Jomtien Education for All (EFA) declaration, which also emphasised universal access to basic education, phenomenal achievements seemed to have been made in enrolment for the first nine years of basic education and fairly commendable results of a National Adult Literacy programme running concurrently (Leburu-Sianga and Malobe, 2000; Ministry of Education, 2004). The economic landscape of the country was noted to have changed during this period due primarily to the diamond industry, which supported the expansion in education and achievement in other spheres of development (Leburu-Sianga and Malobe, 2000).

The second National Education Commission of 1993 emphasised expansion in all levels of the education system both quantitatively and qualitatively (Republic of Botswana, 1994). In the 42 years after independence to 2008 therefore, Botswana seemed to have made impressive achievements in expansion of the education system as a whole. This appeared to have been particularly the case for the primary and secondary sectors, where GER for primary (6 – 12 year old) was recorded at 108%, net enrolment ratio of the same age group at 85.6% and the pupil/teacher ratio estimated at about 1:25 (Central Statistics Office, 2008a). For the secondary education sector, the GER was estimated at 52% (Central Statistic Office, 2008a), while that of higher education was 5% by the 2006 figures (SARUA, 2009). The TEC estimated the GER for higher education at 11.4% (Tertiary Education Council, 2008a).

3.4.2 Goals for the Higher Education Sector

The overarching goal for higher education in Botswana has been to contribute to the achievement of sustainable social and economic development and to ensure the country's competitiveness in the knowledge-based global economy (Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008). Priorities for higher education appeared to have been guided by the pillars of the National Vision 2016, as well as those identified through both the RNPE and the 2008 Tertiary Education Policy. The two education policies seemed to have identified about four areas of major challenges for the higher education sector, which would form the focus area for higher education during the NDP 10 period (2009 - 2016). These challenges included access and equity, quality and relevance, research and innovation, as well as cost efficiency and cost-effectiveness (Republic of Botswana, 1994; Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008). The review of the literature indicated that during the NDP 10 period, higher education aimed to develop the country's high level human resources, as well as build research and innovation capacity (Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008).

Up to 2016, higher education seemed to have a significant role to play in ensuring Botswana's successful transition from a resource driven economy to a knowledge driven,

diversified economy with a high skilled, knowledge intensive service sector (Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008).

RNPE identified seven key issues of concern for education in Botswana:

1. Access and equity
2. Effective preparation of students for life, citizenship and the world of work
3. Development of training responsive and relevant to needs of economic development
4. Improvement and maintenance of quality of the education system
5. Enhancement of the performance and status of the teaching profession
6. Effective management of the education system
7. Cost effectiveness/cost sharing in the financing of education

Source: Republic of Botswana: Government Paper No. 2 of 1994

RNPE also identified the lack of a comprehensive policy to guide the development, coordination, funding and administration of the higher education sector, as well as the problem of lack of articulation or having a mismatch between secondary and higher education (Republic of Botswana, 1994). These challenges seemed to still obtain, as indicated through the Tertiary Education Policy (Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008; SARUA 2009). Though the TEC was established in 1999, until 2008, with the approval of a Tertiary Education Policy for Botswana, there had not been any Government Ministry or Department which was responsible for the coordination of all higher education provision in the country. The responsibility for the different institutions providing higher education had lied within different parent Ministries. The UB fell under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, together with the Colleges of Education and BOCODOL, which by 2007/8 was a new entrant into the higher education sector. The Institute of Health Sciences and Nursing Colleges fell under and were coordinated from the Ministry of Health, while the Accountancy College fell under the Ministry of Finance (SARUA, 2009).

TEC's mandate was to promote and coordinate higher education and determine and maintain standards of teaching, examination and research in higher education institutions. Other functions of TEC as stipulated by its Act were to:

- Formulate policy on tertiary education and advise Government accordingly;
- Coordinate the long term planning and overall development of tertiary education;
- Liaise with both the public and private sectors of the economy on all matters relating to human resources development and requirements;
- Plan for the funding of tertiary education and research, including the recurrent and development needs of public tertiary institutions

(Source: Tertiary Education Council, 2006)

The new Tertiary Education Policy, which was approved by Parliament in April 2008, was meant to address these concerns and called for a well structured higher education sector, coordinated under one ministry (Ministry of Education & Skills Development, 2008). The Policy recommended restructuring of the sector and bringing this level of education and training closer to the human resource requirements of the country.

The Botswana Government and the MOESD, had adopted a system of five yearly strategic planning, resulting in the development of both Ministerial and National level Development Plans and their mid-term review processes. For the MOESD, all the organs of the education sector contributed in the setting of goals and priorities for the Strategic Plan period. This input fed into the MOESD's submission forming part of the National Development Plan. Resources were then allocated in accordance with the identified priorities for the sector. The mid-term reviews allowed the Ministry to evaluate the implementation process, reflect and re-direct or reprioritise as necessary, to address any major emerging issues or opportunities. During the just ended National Development Plan 9 (NDP 9), MOESD and its organs continued to implement RNPE, a strategic direction that would continue to be adopted for NDP 10. During NDP 10, the direction of higher education would also be guided by the newly approved Tertiary Education Policy and the integrated sector wide NDP 10 higher education plan which articulated the initiatives that would be undertaken between 2009 and

2016, meant to lay the foundation of a transformation process for the sector until 2020 (Tertiary Education Council, 2008b).

3.5 Participation in Higher Education

Literature indicated that participation in higher education in Botswana had increased quite substantially (Nhundu and Kamau, 2002) considering the state at which it was at independence, with no university and only a handful of local graduates (Leburu-Sianga and Malobe, 2000; Mokaeya, 1992; Mogae, 2005). However, considering the rate of growth that continued to be achieved within the secondary school sector (Republic of Botswana, 2004), higher education participation, even with such growth, had fallen short of the demand. As UB (2000) observed, Botswana had remained poorly placed in the rankings of middle-income countries with regard to the provision of higher education. The estimated pattern of growth was 3.1% by 1998 (UNESCO, 2004) below 5% by 2003 (Tau, 2003), getting to 5% by 2006 (SARUA, 2009) and 11.4% by 2008 (Tertiary Education Council, 2008a) compared to the figures reflected for primary and secondary education. This immediately indicated a bottleneck at higher education level, even though there had been commendable growth, particularly considering that the country was starting from nothing at independence in terms of higher education provision inside the country. The plan was to reach 17% of the APR cohort by 2016 and 25% of the same cohort by 2026.

There had been only one university in Botswana since 1982, albeit with affiliated institutions. However, more higher education institutions had emerged, particularly in the private sector. At the time of the research, literature indicated that the country had about 27 higher education institutions registered with the TEC, comprising of one publicly funded university, 21 publicly funded higher education institutions and colleges and five (5) privately funded higher education institutions (SARUA, 2009). However, only UB offered degree programmes up to Doctoral level. The other institutions were offering up to Diploma level programmes only, by 2008 records (SARUA, 2009). Until the newly established Botswana International University of Science & Technology (BIUST) starts enrolling degree students, this situation was expected to continue to put a lot of pressure on the only University to

provide degree programmes to those who were looking for anything above diploma. According to recent research in the country (Dodds, Gaskell and Mills 2008; Richardson, 2009), the UB submitted that out of about 20 000 senior secondary completers each year, an estimated 18 000 were eligible to apply for admission into the University. However, the University would hike its entry requirements in order to reduce the number that “qualified” for application. This would reduce the number of applicants for UB programmes to about 12000, of which then 5000 would be admitted. Of these 5000 students admitted, about 3500 would be in the 18 – 24 age group, while 1000 would be adult workers and 500 would be those changing programmes. The Dodds *et al* (2008) study went further to estimate that over a period of five years, a cumulative figure of 70000 potential students eligible for higher education would be without that opportunity at UB, if the situation continued to prevail over that period. BUIST was envisaged to ultimately enrol about 6 000 students (SARUA, 2009), and these would be in the Science and Technology fields only, which would still leave out a substantial number of potential students who wanted opportunities for degree programmes in other fields, but could not get them within the country. Therefore, under that situation, the demand for higher education in Botswana far outstripped the opportunities for provision.

3.6 ODL at Higher Education Level in Botswana

ODL at higher education level appeared to be under serious consideration as one of the strategies to expand participation in higher education in Botswana. The country had acknowledged that the on-campus face-to-face mode of delivery alone was unlikely to have the capacity to handle the country’s higher education needs for the foreseeable future up to 2026 (Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008; Dodds *et al*, 2008). Support for ODL had been pledged at national level, as the RNPE and the Tertiary Education Policy indicated. The Tertiary Education Policy adopted by Parliament in April 2008 proposed the establishment of a dedicated state funded ODL higher education institution for Botswana.

3.6.1 The Status of ODL in the Higher Education Sector

The importance of having an official position on the status of ODL compared to full-time face-to-face, in the higher education sector, cannot be over-emphasised. Once the policy is silent about the equivalency issue between the two modes, this might represent a major gap, as indicated by Simonson *et al* (1999) and Dodds *et al* (2008). However, the Tertiary Education Policy and the NDP 10 higher education sector plan seemed to have adopted a silence stance regarding whether or not ODL and face-to-face at higher education level were to be treated as having equal value and equal importance. The two documents did not seem to provide guidance, in terms of the purpose, that ODL was expected to serve in the Botswana higher education sector and the contribution it was expected to make towards the planned expansion of higher education. This could have been because it had not been clarified at national level how ODL status was actually perceived, even with its renewed support and renewed emphasis which was reflected in Tertiary Education Council (2006) and Tertiary Education Council (2008b). Comparatively, Daniel, Kanwar and Uvalić-Trumbić (2007) observed that ODL accounted for 24% of India's higher education enrolments by 2007, and their plan was to have 40% of all higher education participation occurring through ODL by 2010. Whether or not this target was attainable could be debatable. However, the important lesson for Botswana and other Southern African countries employing ODL at higher education level from this Indian experience, is that there needs to be a conscious plan through which ODL providers should know what they are expected at national level, to contribute towards the higher education expansion process. Dodds and Youngman (1994) made this observation about ODL in Botswana, that an important policy-making conjuncture had arrived, and that there were new prospects for the development of ODL as an integral part of the national system of education. However, that conscious and clear national decision about the status of ODL in the higher education sector in Botswana did not seem to have been made yet. ODL providers seemed not yet firmly committed at policy level to be responsible and accountable for a specified target, as was the case in the Indian experience. This seemed to represent a gap in planning and commitment of resources towards the development and delivery of ODL at higher education level in Botswana. If the higher education sector did not know how much contribution ODL should make towards the

achievement of the planned 17% and 25% of the APR by 2016 and 2026 respectively, then it might result in the sector not knowing the amount of resources to commit to the growth of ODL, in order for it to handle the expected outputs.

3.6.2 ODL Policy

There was no policy specific for ODL provision in Botswana. The policy that was in place (RNPE) was for the education sector as a whole. However, the need for a specific policy for ODL had been expressed though its development did not seem to have taken shape yet. It has been pointed out in the ODL literature that it was important to consider development of a national policy for ODL that would guide its development and provision (Dodds and Youngman, 1994; DEASA, 2004). Some countries in Africa like Mauritius, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe, which had made attempts, or were considering the development of policies specific to ODL, perceived that it would enhance the direction and management of ODL provision (Council on Higher Education, 2004; Siaciwena, 2006). As Botswana considered the development of a separate national policy specific for ODL, the ODL practitioners in Botswana would have to provide leadership and guidance on the initiative and in matters of ODL in the Botswana context, whether two separate education policies should exist, one for ODL and another for the on-campus face-to-face mode, or whether there should be only one overarching policy that would address the development and delivery of education in any mode of delivery.

3.6.3 The Development and Expansion of ODL in Botswana

The first National Policy on Education of 1977 (NPE), seemed to have indicated the need for the development of ODL though did not specify who the change agents would be in terms of implementation, especially at higher education level. There were higher education level ODL programmes already in existence within the UB and other Government and private institutions by 1994. However, during the currency of the first National Policy on Education (the period between 1977 and 1994), higher education level ODL initiatives were not really guided by a clear national policy. RNPE on the other hand, did specify the agencies to

implement the recommendations that were specific for ODL expansion. For the expansion of ODL below higher education level, RNPE identified the Ministry of Education through the Department of Non-formal Education to implement the recommendation for the establishment of a dedicated ODL institution, with a mandate to expand ODL provision below the higher education sector. This recommendation culminated in 1998, with an Act of Parliament establishing the Botswana College of Distance and Open Learning (BOCODOL) as the first dedicated ODL institution in Botswana. Following an interim transitional period from 1998, under the guidance of an Interim Board, BOCODOL started operating in the year 2000 with the inauguration of its first statutory Board. Even though the RNPE had mandated BOCODOL to provide ODL programmes below higher education level, the College's Act did not restrict its programme provision to that level only (Republic of Botswana, 1998). This seems to have enabled the College by 2007/08, to expand to include higher education programmes, responding to market survey results that had indicated a serious bottleneck for provision at higher education level (Fentiman, 2001). In terms of expansion of ODL at higher education level, the policy (RNPE) had identified UB through the Centre for Continuing Education (CCE), to be the lead agency in implementation (Republic of Botswana, 1994). So since 1994, even though there has been no specific policy on ODL, the general policy for education provision in Botswana did give clear policy guidelines regarding which agency should play a leading role in terms of development and expansion of ODL in Botswana as far as provision below and at higher education sector levels were concerned, at least within the public sector. However, the 2008 approved Tertiary Education Policy appeared to have re-assigned leadership in the expansion of ODL at higher education level to BOCODOL, with an expanded mandate (Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008). The Tertiary Education Policy seemed to have envisaged an expanded BOCODOL, which would have the potential to become an open university for Botswana during the NDP 10 period (2009 – 2016). This new assignment appeared to be in line with BOCODOL's own expansion plans, which envisaged the College to have become an open university by the year 2016 (Botswana College of Distance and open Learning, 2009a; Botswana College of Distance and open Learning, 2009b; Botswana College of Distance and open Learning, 2008). So in terms of what was on the ground with regard to the expansion of ODL provision at higher education level in Botswana, MOESD through the approved Tertiary Education Policy and BOCODOL

institutional plans envisaged an open university for Botswana in operation by the year 2016. As indicated above, at national level therefore, the two Education policies (RNPE and the Tertiary Education Policy) had identified ODL as one of the key strategies through which the country should address the challenge of access bottlenecks experienced mainly at higher education level, which had not been able to expand as fast as the secondary level sector. At institutional level, there were two public funded institutions offering higher education ODL programmes by 2009, BOCODOL and the UB, though BOCODOL had just come into higher education provision. While BOCODOL was a dedicated ODL institution, UB was a dual mode institution.

Since the Tertiary Education Policy recognised the importance of both modes, ODL and full-time face-to-face in the planned expansion process for higher education provision, it seemed necessary at that juncture where the higher education sector was being restructured, reorganised and re-engineered at national level, to clarify the status and roles of each of the two modes. There needed to be clarity at national policy level whether the two modes of provision were to be treated as equivalent to each other in the Botswana education system or in the higher education sector. A policy position specifying the status of ODL in relation to full-time face-to-face mode in the Botswana higher education sector would clarify the expected roles and responsibilities for each mode, their level of accountability and expected contribution of each towards the achievement of the set participation expansion targets. This would also perhaps guide planning and the restructuring and reorganisation process itself, probably assisting in decisions on which areas or target audiences each mode could concentrate on during the first phase of implementation of the policy to 2016 (NDP 10), as well as influence development of appropriate systems guiding their resource allocation. However, the Tertiary Education Policy, like RNPE did not seem to give indication of how the two modes would relate in facilitating an expanded higher education sector. The new Tertiary Education Policy did not give any of the two modes a mandate to deliver on over the NDP 10 plan period. However, I believe that if each mode were to be given a target, being its expected contribution towards realisation of the intended 17% participation by 2016 and another allocation of what percentage each should achieve of the intended 25% participation by 2026, then that would set clear delivery expectations that would guide resource allocation

and provide motivation to deliver to expectations. While recognising the importance of clarity of policy at national level in terms of the status accorded to ODL, it also seemed imperative to have institutional policies, especially in a dual mode institution, to guide parallel planning and implementation of provision through the two modes in one institution like UB, their status and relationship with each other, their mandates etc. It also seemed equally important to translate such policies into clear implementation strategies, detailing roles, responsibilities, expected outputs and outcomes, resource allocation for each of the two modes, and accountability.

3.6.4 Financing of ODL at Higher Education Level

In terms of financing of higher education in Botswana, Government was the main financier through the MOESD. Other institutions, as already indicated were also coordinating some in-service training for their staff, while others were overseeing some training institutions falling under their portfolio. Public funded parastatal institutions received Government subventions every financial year for their recurrent and development budgets and also raised a certain percentage of the budget from their own sources. For individual students, especially the pre-service students whose further education and training fell under the portfolio responsibility of the MOESD, there was a policy that guided their sponsorship. The Department of Tertiary Education & Financing (DTEF), formerly Department of Student Placement and Welfare, was responsible for managing the financing of pre-service higher education provision up to first degree level, as well as placement of students who had to access their higher education through institutions outside the country (Department of Tertiary Education and Financing, 2008).

What continued to be a concern for ODL was that students undertaking their studies through ODL provision were not being given study grants or study loans like those taking full-time programmes, stating that “DTEF will under no circumstances sponsor candidates who have been admitted for part-time programmes” (Department of Tertiary Education and Financing, 2008). There had always been an assumption that ODL was undertaken primarily by adults, who were able to devise means of raising funds to cover the cost of their education and

training. However, in reality, both youth and adults were taking ODL programmes and some of the youth had just come from senior secondary schools and could not find space in the highly competed face-to-face institutions. There were 27 registered higher education providers in Botswana, which were able to enrol only about 11.4% of the eligible population of the 18 – 24 year old, fresh from secondary school (Tertiary Education Council, 2008b). Many school leavers therefore, (over 80% of the eligible 18 -24), who were unable to find places in the existing contact higher education institutions, would usually find themselves stranded because they were unable to raise funds to pay for their further education, particularly if they had to access it outside the country. Experience showed that higher education was quite expensive (Tertiary Education Council, 2008b). Therefore, many potential students continued to struggle to get admission into full-time programmes so that they could get financial assistance, which was not available to them if they were to get admitted into ODL programmes. Lack of financial assistance for ODL therefore seemed to discourage or de-motivate prospective students to look at ODL as an optional mode to reach the same goal of accessing higher education. This further seemed to have the potential to de-motivate ODL providers and subsequently work against much further expansion of ODL.

While initially the sponsorship policy had targeted only the students enrolled in public higher education institutions, by 2008 the assistance was extended to those admitted in private full-time institutions. However, by 2010, those on ODL programmes were still left out of government sponsorship. The policy therefore seemed to continue to discriminate against studying through ODL. Even with regard to training and/or further education of Government and many other employees, ODL was not treated like face-to-face provision. Fees for officers sent for training for full-time programmes were paid up-front, while officers accessing programmes through ODL, even if they were the same programmes from the same institutions, had to pay for themselves first and then claim re-imburement from the employer, on successful completion of their programmes.

When making decisions that students following one mode can be funded and those following the other mode cannot, the question of the perceptions of equivalent value for the two modes, as raised by Simonson *et al* (1999) and Dodds *et al*, (2008), becomes very important, as it is

central to the widespread acceptance of ODL. This illustrates the importance of having an official position at national level, regarding the status and value of ODL in the provision of higher education. Planners and decision-makers should be guided by an overarching national policy as to the equivalency perceptions with regard to the quality and value of ODL. Otherwise a policy that seems discriminatory against ODL like the DTEF sponsorship policy, may imply to the general public that ODL is an inferior mode or a mode not to be trusted with government resources, compared to full-time face-to-face. Considering the stigma that has always bedevilled ODL, it appeared unfortunate that a position that seemed discriminatory against ODL should have been taken by Government and allowed to continue prevailing within the DTEF sponsorship policy, even at a time when other existing Government policies seemed to promote ODL. At national level support for ODL had been pledged through the RNPE and the new Tertiary Education Policy. But policies like the DTEF one on sponsorship could actually bring some contradiction and complications when it comes to practice or implementation.

It has been established that the capacity to address demands for higher education through full-time face-to-face was very limited and that ODL could provide more opportunities for participation. One of the enablers for more people to access higher education is availability of funds. The Dodds *et al* (2008) study reflected variations in responses to the question regarding payment if the prospective students included in the study were to enrol on ODL programmes. A significant number of those below 25 years old and unemployed expected sponsorship from the DTEF/Government or that their families would pay for them. On the other hand, while about half of those above 25 and working would pay for themselves, the other half would expect their employers to pay for their studies (Dodds *et al*, 2008).

A reconciliation of policies and practices seemed necessary, in order to avoid seemingly contradictory positions of the MOESD, where in two of its policies, the RNPE and the Tertiary Education Policy, ODL was regarded as a strategic option for the higher education sector, that should be supported and expanded to increase access and equity, which had been priority concerns since independence (Republic of Botswana, 1977; 1994; Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008), but in the DTEF sponsorship policy, which was

supposed to provide an enabling environment for study at higher education level, the Ministry seemed to categorically disassociate itself with support for individuals taking the initiative to enrol through ODL methods (DTEF, 2008). A continuation of policies that are not reconciled could give an impression that Government did not trust that ODL could deliver just as good results as the face-to-face full-time provision and that it might be more risky to pay fees for ODL students than to pay for those attending full-time. If the culture of mistrust for ODL was to be allowed to persist, it might be difficult for Government departments like DTEF, which planned for access to higher education to convince the ordinary people that this mode, which Government had embraced, was just as effective as face-to-face, if they themselves seemed not to be convinced. While the Tertiary Education Council could look into this issue with a view to influencing policy reforms, ODL providers like BOCODOL seemed to have a challenge to fully educate other Government departments about the importance and value of ODL and to change the mindset of the socio political environment, which appeared to still harbour suspicions that maybe ODL was not really as good as face-to-face in delivering good quality education.

3.6.5 Opportunities for the Expansion of ODL

Regarding the opportunity to advance the development and expansion of ODL in Botswana, particularly at higher education level, Jefferis and Kapaletswe (2008) have noted Botswana's rapid uptake of information and communication technologies, or "internet and communication technologies" as DEASA (2004) referred to ICTs like the cell phone. Jefferis and Kapaletswe (2008) submitted that by 2006, it was estimated that in Botswana for every 100 inhabitants, there were 55.7 cell phone subscribers, 63.47 telephone subscribers (landline) and 3.4 internet users (International Telecommunications Union, cited in Jefferis and Kapaletswe, 2008). The Africa Competitiveness Report 2009 indicated that there were about 4.5 internet users in Botswana by 2008/09 (World Economic Forum, 2009). However, the World Bank (2008b) cautioned about the state of development of ICTs in Africa, which it observed was highly dynamic, and that it would be wise to take figures regarding such developments as indicative only because such information was changing quite rapidly. Notwithstanding this caution, the Dodds *et al* (2008) study involving about 600 participants

of the potential higher education level ODL students, covering both urban and rural areas of Botswana, found an encouraging picture concerning access to media/technology during 2008. Regular access for radio was 79%, audio cassette player 60%, TV 77%, video/DVD player 74%, computer 42%, access to internet 22%, telephone (landline) 51% and cell phone 87%. However, as the World Bank (2008b) cautioned, it would be wise to regard such results as indicative only, considering the dynamism of data around the area of ICTs in Africa. The sample of the potential target audience for ODL at higher education level in the Dodds *et al* (2008) survey, was drawn from youth and adults with qualification levels adequate for admission into higher education programmes. These included senior secondary school leavers, working adults who wanted higher education qualifications, as well as unemployed youth and adults whose family, social or other commitments/circumstances did not afford them the opportunity to access face-to-face higher education programmes (Dodds *et al*, 2008).

The Botswana Government, which was commended to have committed resources to improve connectivity and promote educational use of ICTs, was implementing a programme of computerising all secondary schools, to ensure that all secondary school leavers were computer literate (Isaacs, 2007 cited in World Bank, 2008; Jefferis and Kapaletswe, 2008). National e-learning initiatives were at an advanced stage, where an Institute responsible for developing an enabling environment for e-learning advancement was to be in operation during NDP 10, to cater for e-learning needs of all institutions. As already noted, availability of ICTs and computer skills have been seen to enhance chances of success for ODL provision (Taylor, 2001; Dodds, 2002; Pityana, 2008; Sebopelo, 2008; Dodds *et al*, 2008). With regard to the ICT environment, Botswana was reported to be doing well in terms of its degree of preparedness to benefit from ICT developments, though it was still lagging behind with regard to the individual and business components (Jefferis and Kapaletswe, 2008). According to the Networked Readiness Index (NRI) 2007 – 2008 rankings, Botswana was ranked fourth highest in Africa after Tunisia, South Africa and Mauritius and 78 out of 127 countries in the world (Jefferis and Kapaletswe, 2008). Enhancement of the ICT environment, as well as its improved up-take, was a very encouraging and welcome development for the expansion of ODL provision in Botswana, since the success of ODL as

already observed, is enhanced very much by availability of ICT support (COL, 2000a; Bates, 2001; Bates, 2005; McIntosh and Varoglu, 2005; Beyth-Marom *et al*, 2005 and Bloom *et al*, 2006).

3.7 Introduction of ODL in the UB Education Delivery System

According to Dodds and Youngman (1994), ODL was introduced in the UB system in the late 1970s, with a Diploma programme offered by the Department of Theology and Religious Studies between 1979 and 1990. Its challenges were identified to have been pedagogical and administrative as well as low enrolment figures (Dodds and Youngman, 1994). Therefore in 1990, the programme was discontinued.

It appeared that from 1983, the Institute of Adult Education also started offering a Certificate in Adult Education delivered through distance education, initially as a project for the Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE) of the Ministry of Education, targeting Literacy Assistants (Dodds and Youngman, 1994; Mokaeya, 1986). However, since 1985, this became a normal University distance education programme that extended its clientele beyond just DNFE. A major evaluation of the programme undertaken by 1989 revealed that students, lecturers and employers were overall happy about the programme. The small-scale experience of the Certificate in Adult Education indicated to the University that it was possible to offer relevant, high quality programmes by distance education (Dodds and Youngman, 1994).

A restructuring exercise for the Institute of Adult Education which ended in 1991 saw the establishment of the Department of Adult Education and the Centre for Continuing Education (CCE) in the same year. The latter had a unit responsible for distance education (Tau, 2002). This unit was later elevated to a Department of Distance Education (DED), with a mandate to coordinate all activities relating to the provision of distance education at the UB.

3.7.1 UB Institutional Policy for ODL

Simonson (2002) defined policy as a written course of action, such as a statute, procedure, rule or regulation adopted to facilitate programme development. He went further to explain that policies for distance education provide a framework for the operation of distance education and form a set of agreed-on rules, which explain roles and responsibilities. According to Rogers cited in Simonson (2002), the institutionalization of a new idea should include the development of rules and regulations (policies) for the use of the innovation. Simonson (2002) further submitted that one of the key indicators that distance education was moving into the mainstream would be increased emphasis on policies to guide its effective growth. A close review of the available data from UB did not readily reveal an institutional policy for UB that guided the institutionalization of the ODL initiative within its system, or that guided its further development and implementation. There did not seem to be a policy of the University, which was clearly articulating the purpose for which ODL was introduced within the UB's programme delivery system, or a framework which further determined and guided ODL's expansion or growth. This appeared to be a major gap that could affect the growth and expansion of ODL at the UB. What seemed to exist was only a statement that CCE was "... UB's multi-disciplinary and inter-faculty outreach arm which offers credit and non-credit programmes at degree and non-degree levels within the framework of life-long learning through distance education, part-time evening classes and other extension activities" (http://www.ub.bw/learning_cce.cfm?pid=412)

Within the CCE there was a Department of Distance Education (former Distance Education Unit). The responsibility of the Distance Education Unit (DEU) was stated as "coordinating all activities relating to the provision of distance education at tertiary level at the University of Botswana" (http://www.ub.bw/learning_cce.cfm?pid=412). However, apart from this statement, the rationale for introducing ODL within UB, which had always been a full-time face-to-face institution, did not seem to be contained in any policy document of the University. If such a policy document existed, then possibly it was not readily accessible like some of the policy documents and data, such as information about the establishment of the

Centre for Academic Development, whose purpose and mandate were clearly stated (http://www.ub.bw/learning_cad.cfm?pid=4121&m=132).

Simonsen (2002) came up with seven categories of ODL policies that an institution might be concerned with. These would include academic policies, key issues of which would mainly be academic calendars, admissions, accreditation, programme quality assurance, assessment, curriculum review and approval processes. There are fiscal, geographic and governance policies dealing with full-time equivalencies, tuition rates, agreements and contracts with collaboration organisations, faculty policies concerned with among others, compensation and workload, design and development incentives, staff development, faculty support, faculty evaluation, intellectual freedom. He also looked at legal policies dealing with intellectual property and copyright issues, as well as faculty/student/institutional liabilities. Then he discussed technical and philosophical policies. It appears all these policy issues need to be addressed and documented, to guide the development and implementation of distance education in a dual mode set up. Siaciwena (2006) talking about the University of Zambia's experience, also observed that there needed to be "a solid framework" for supporting and promoting the development of ODL at the University. He argued that an ODL policy should define the rationale for using the mode, as well as the educational and human resource development needs that need to be addressed (Siaciwena, 2006). Costs and benefits, the necessary institutional arrangements, qualifications and quality framework for ODL programmes and courses, he argued, were all to be defined through the ODL policy. The University also needed to clearly articulate how the ODL policy should be integrated with the other institutional governance policies.

There appeared to be a policy gap to give guidance on the development and growth of the ODL and the face-to-face modes within the UB dual mode system. There did not seem to be stated which audiences ODL was targeting and what specific contribution it was expected to make in the UB's expansion process. Siaciwena (2006) observed that the inability of the economy to support the expansion of education, which in Zambia was recognized as a pre-requisite for socio-economic development, made the provision of distance education in that country "a necessary and important national development activity". The University of

Zambia (UNZA) developed its distance education primarily to provide access to university education and training “for adults” who, for various reasons, could not access university programmes on a full-time basis. ODL at UNZA therefore contributed to the human resource development drive of the country. This submission showed that distance education was a national commitment in Zambia and further that at institutional level, a policy decision was taken by UNZA to develop distance education to target the adult population. From this institutional policy position, the Unit of UNZA that was responsible for developing distance education clearly knew its target focus. A similar policy position seemed to be missing in the case of the UB ODL initiative and there seemed to be uncertainty with regard to its growth direction.

Dodds and Youngman (1994) advised that an institution planning to invest in ODL should clearly articulate the rationale for the development or introduction of ODL. From the documents that I had access to, this policy position did not seem to come out clearly with regard to the UB’s ODL programme. There seemed to be no policy that clearly articulated the relationship between ODL and full-time face-to-face, which were the two modes that the University had adopted to deliver its programmes. It also appeared not stated and hence seemed unclear, whether ODL was equivalent to the full-time face-to-face mode, and if so, what administrative and pedagogic arrangements had been put in place to assure this equivalency, in terms of the value attached to it compared to the full-time face-to-face mode. It seemed not clear whether ODL was introduced or planned to be a support or complementary mode to the full-time face-to-face mode as it had been observed to be the case in some dual mode institutions (Bates, 2000a).

Commenting in relation to the many higher education institutions that were coming into the higher education field several years ago, the UB (1999) had indicated that it was necessary for TEC to quickly resolve the issue of “which institutions and under what governance should offer degree programmes”, cautioning that an “uncoordinated higher education system, which fosters unhealthy competition for resources duplicates effort and does not encourage pooling of resources and talent, can be extremely costly”. One can infer that this concern probably came from the fact that there had hitherto been only one provider of higher

education programmes in the country. There was no source for confusion when that was the case. However, as more players were coming into the scene, the University identified a need to provide direction and clarity as to who should play what role (University of Botswana, 1999). The same advice of the need to clarify roles was relevant when a hitherto full-time face-to-face institution (UB) wanted to introduce another mode (ODL) in its delivery system. COL (2003) stated that a dual mode institution needed to clearly specify the overall role and purpose of ODL in its institutional profile if it was to achieve all its strategic goals and objectives.

3.7.2 Deciding on Relevant Structures for ODL

Taking firm decisions on the various categories of distance education policies (Simonson, 2002) and deciding on a model of distance education to be adopted by the institution (Taylor, 2001), would guide the necessary structures to implement such policies. Taylor (2001) discusses five generations of distance education, which were actually models in the distance education continuum, which an institution has to make a policy decision on in order to guide the development of its ODL initiative, structures, staff development, as well as resource provision. According to Taylor (2001), an institution may decide to operate in the first generation of distance education, which is the correspondence model that utilises the print medium only. It may decide to operate in the second generation of distance education, which is the multimedia model that utilises print, audiotape, videotape, computer-based learning and interactive video (disk and tape). Taylor (2001) calls the third generation of distance education the tele-learning model, which utilises audio tele-conferencing, video-conferencing, audio-graphic communication and broadcasting, which includes television, radio and audio-teleconferencing. The fourth generation is usually taken to be the last generation by some researchers (Bernard *et al*, 2004a), though Taylor (2001) goes further to the fifth generation. The fourth generation or the flexible learning model utilises interactive multimedia online, internet-based access to World Wide Web resources and computer-mediated communication. Taylor (2001) calls the fifth generation of distance education “the intelligent flexible learning model”. This model utilises interactive multimedia online, internet-based access to World Wide Web resources and computer-mediated communication

with automated response systems and campus portal access to institutional processes and resources. Any of the models would require a different set up to implement it. Therefore an institution taking up ODL needs to make some of these decisions early since they are bound to influence the growth direction of the ODL initiative.

Until ODL was introduced in the UB education delivery system, the administrative and pedagogic arrangements, academic workloads and student services including academic calendars, were those supporting a full-time face-to-face mode of delivery and all concerned presumably understood how all these were supposed to function to achieve objectives in a full-time face-to-face delivery system. Once a new player (ODL) was introduced in the existing, well understood system, roles needed to be defined and clarified. The system needed to be re-organised and re-defined, and new administrative and support structures relevant to the ODL mode of operation put in place (Sewart *et al*, 1983). Relations between the two modes were to be clearly defined. Otherwise, as UB (1999) feared, there might end up with an uncoordinated programmes delivery system that could foster a lack of pooling of resources and talent, which might lead to unhealthy competition, duplication of efforts, and all this might result in confusion, ineffectiveness and inefficiency. Tau (2008) made an observation that the DDE had not performed to its full capacity, and attributed this perceived low performance partly to a lack of clarity, referring to the DDE as an ‘unclear system’. This observation from Tau (2008) might indicate the lack of a policy clarifying the important concerns of purpose and status of ODL, roles and obligations, as well as equivalency and relationships between the two modes. An institutional policy should provide a framework for operation and an agreed set of rules clarifying roles and responsibilities (Simonson, 2002; Siaciwena, 2006). According to Tau (2008), by 2008 the UB had started the process of redesigning and re-defining the ODL sub-system to take these concerns into consideration. At UNZA, when such re-organisation took place in 1994, according to Siaciwena (2006), and resulted in the creation of the Directorate of Distance Education, a Senate Distance Education Committee was created, to consider and formulate policy on ODL. the Committee was also to recommend to Senate rules and regulations governing the ODL programme. As observed elsewhere, rules and regulations governing face-to-face are not always applicable to govern ODL (Peters, 1967; Bates, 2000a; COL, 2003; Siaciwena, 2006).

3.8 Planning for UB Expanded Enrolments

Through its NDP 8 (University Development Plan 1997/98 – 2002/03, 1999) which was developed after the approval of the RNPE in 1994, and coincided with the adoption of Vision 2016 in 1997, UB identified growth and excellence as some of its challenges and main priority areas during the NDP 8 plan period. In this priority area of growth and excellence, the University expressed concern that, of the qualified and eligible age group, nearly two thirds of those who actually applied were turned away for lack of places (University of Botswana, 1999). The University also acknowledged that the situation where qualified applicants were being turned away in large numbers was prevailing within a period when the country at large was experiencing a deficit of high-level skilled human resources. This was a big challenge seeing that the UB was, by 2009, still the only higher education institution offering degree level programmes in the country (SARUA, 2009). The University therefore planned during NDP8 to respond to the social demand for education as well as to the human resource needs of the economy, taking cognisance of the issue of quality (University of Botswana, 1999). Distance and lifelong learning were among the strategies prioritised to increase access during NDP 8. One of the objectives set out in NDP 8 was therefore “to increase access to higher education in distance and life-long education” (University of Botswana, 1999). However, the Dodds *et al* (2008) study, taking place about ten years later, at the end of NDP 9, apparently indicated that increasing access was still a huge challenge at the UB. Far more prospective students applied and only a small fraction was admitted, even after applying selection mechanisms meant to reduce the number that “qualifies” (Dodds *et al*, 2008), as well as employing ODL to expand access.

As reflected in the report “*UB Beyond 10,000: A Strategy for Growth*”, the University was planning to expand student enrolments to a figure above 10,000 during NDP 9. The report gave details of how this growth of the student body was to be achieved, by what numbers and emphasis laid in which areas to contribute towards addressing the country’s needs for economic diversification. Coming out very clearly in this report was that the University was planning for expansion of full-time enrolments. The report went on to indicate what

percentage of the full-time undergraduate enrolments would be graduate enrolments and enrolment from international students. The report even indicated how the planned physical developments of the University facilities would impact on the planned target enrolments and suggested a second lower target should the intended physical development not be accomplished in time to enable the intended figure of 15 000 full-time enrolments to be achieved.

However, the report did not show or recommend a percentage of the planned expanded enrolment to be contributed by ODL. Evidently the University did expect ODL to make some contribution (University of Botswana, 2000), even though it was not specified, like it was the case with the contribution of the full-time face-to-face provision through faculties. The report seemed to give an impression that the contribution that ODL would ultimately make should be decided by the CCE, at any later unspecified time. While all faculties were allocated specific percentages that they were expected to contribute towards the targeted enrolment figure during NDP 9, CCE/DDE did not seem to be obligated to make a contribution and on time, except stating that "... in order to realize further growth in student enrolments the Director of Continuing Education should before the conclusion of NDP8 undertake a major and comprehensive strategic review of tertiary distance education demands with a view to mainstreaming distance education throughout the University's policies and programmes and developing and expanding off-campus provision based on a comprehensive and long-term needs assessment study" (University of Botswana, 2000). The review study appeared to have only taken place at the end of NDP 9 and when NDP 10 planning was at a very advanced stage. This seemed to confirm the concern by Tau (2008) that DDE seemed not to be performing to full capacity. If there was no firm contribution of CCE/DDE to the Strategic Plan, which was meant to realise a massive growth like the one in NDP 9, from which a comprehensive implementation plan would arise, it probably would be difficult during implementation for the DDE to perform to capacity. Siaciwena (2006) observed a sense of low level of commitment to and ownership of the Strategic Plan as a whole, where the policy did not provide a framework for operation or where there was a lack of a comprehensive implementation plan. This observation seemed also true for the UB's ODL initiative. A possible gap seemed to be in the report (*Beyond 10,000: Strategy for*

Growth), which was regarded as a guide for change, that sought to strengthen the University through a concise and focused approach to the continued growth of student enrolments (University of Botswana, 2000). The central planning machinery of the University seemed not to have made any full, comprehensive commitment expectation from ODL's contribution towards the planned increased enrolment, through *Beyond 10: Strategy for Growth*, which was the case with the full-time face-to-face strategy. However, the report of a Task Group on Enrolment Planning and Management, which was set up in 2007, did include ODL in the projections made towards achieving the proposed targets for NDP 10. This Task Group was given seven terms of reference, three of which were to:

- evaluate the implementation of the University's NDP 9 enrolment projections to date and assess the current enrolment planning and management situation
- recommend procedures for setting the university's enrolment goals and annual enrolment and output targets for NDP 10 with respect to undergraduate, graduate, part-time and distance programmes, taking into cognizance of the University's Vision, Mission and Values, its Strategic Plan and international best practice
- recommend procedures for ensuring the alignment between enrolments and resource requirements (human, physical and financial) (University of Botswana, 2007).

The report of the Task Group indicated the enrolment patterns during NDP 9 and indicated the contribution that ODL had made, then went on to suggest its contribution in the next plan period (NDP10).

In terms of enrolments during NDP 9, it appeared as if UB ODL enrolments were very low compared to those of full-time and part-time students. In the context of the UB, contact students who attended their regular classes/lectures after working hours or in the evenings, were referred to as part-time students. Instead of tutorials given to ODL students, part-time students were given full-time teaching sessions in the evenings, or after working hours. These students were reflected in the University records as students following a different mode from both full-time and distance education students, as Table 3.1 below reflects. ODL students, on the other hand, comprised of students who studied on their own for most of the time and came to campus only on few planned residential sessions. For the bulk of the time

while they were studying on their own, they would receive assistance through tutorials from part-time tutors.

Table 3.1: Distribution of students by mode of study

	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08
Full-time	10,944	13,104	12,771	12,602	12,935	11,027
Part-time	1,839	2,080	2,605	2,724	2,820	2,764
Distance Learning	0	241	349	384	484	485

Source: Adapted from University of Botswana (2008d)

Similar to the first priority of NDP 9, the first priority area for NDP 10 was “Extending Access and Participation”. Extending access to education and increasing opportunities and levels of participation in University programmes remained a priority in order to achieve Vision 2016 as well as the National Human Resource Strategy (University of Botswana, 2008a). According to UB (2008e), approximately 16 000 full-time enrolments would be possible by 2016 if all of the planned buildings were to be completed as expected in the first half of NDP 10. The University seemed to stress the relationship between enrolment expansion and the achievement of building expansions, which is primarily an expansion condition for full-time face-to-face provision. In case the buildings were not completed as anticipated, the University was planning to enrol lower figures than if the buildings were completed as planned. This could further indicate the emphasis of UB towards more full-time face-to-face expansion and less on the expansion on the ODL side.

According to *A Strategy for Excellence: The UB Strategic Plan to 2016 and Beyond* (2008a), during NDP 10, the University’s goals and objectives under the Priority Area of “Extending Access and Participation” would include the following:

1. Expand full-time undergraduate student enrolments
2. Increase part-time and ODL student enrolments
3. Extend the range of offerings and student enrolments at Graduate Diploma, Masters Degree level and MPhil/PhD

Source: Adapted from UB (2008a)

The following recommendations of the Task Group for NDP 10 projections included full-time and ODL contributions towards this expansion and they seemed to have been accepted and included in the *UB Strategic Plan to 2016 and Beyond*.

Table 3.2: Full Time Undergraduate Enrolment Projections to 2015/16

	Year	NDP 9	NDP 10
Actual	2007/8	11,205	-
Projected	2008/9	11,257	-
	2009/10		11,845
	2010/11		12,418
	2011/12		13,040
	2012/13		13,719
	2013/14		14,464
	2014/15		15,288
	2015/16		16,209

Source: UB (2008d)

Table 3.3: Part-Time & ODL Student Enrolment Projections

	2008/9		2009/10		2010/11		2011/12		2012/13		2013/14		2014/15		2015/16	
	PT	ODL	PT	ODL	PT	ODL	PT	ODL	PT	ODL	PT	ODL	PT	ODL	PT	ODL
Diploma	1973	71	2033	73	2094	75	2156	78	2221	80	2288	82	2356	85	2427	87
Bachelor	0	436	0	449	0	462	0	476	0	490	0	505	0	520	0	536
Total	1973	507	2033	522	2094	538	2156	554	2221	570	2288	587	2356	605	2427	623
Grand Total		2480		2555		2631		2710		2791		2875		2961		3050

Source: Modified from UB (2008d)

It would appear from this plan and the previous NDP 9 enrolments that the UB's projections were quite modest on all three options through which they enrolled students. It appeared that, as for full-time students, enrolment was planned at between 5% and 6% growth over the

NDP 10 plan period. Enrolment through ODL and part-time was maintained at 3% growth per annum as was the case in the previous NDP 9 plan period. Although the University seemed to be cautious concerning expansion, it would appear that it had not fully embraced the notion that ODL could actually enable the institution to grow its enrolment much faster than face-to-face could. From the above projections, it appears the University did not have very high demands or expectations on ODL expanding higher education as the mode usually promises, since enrolment projections for ODL looked very low compared to those through full-time face-to-face and part-time. ODL seemed to have been contributing very low numbers to the student body during NDP 9 and seemingly it was still planned to contribute just as low during NDP 10.

3.9 Equivalency Enhancing Policies

During NDP 9 the University approved two very important policies that seemed to have a direct implication on my concerns about equivalency between ODL and full-time face-to-face in dual mode higher education institutions. The Distance Education Mainstreaming policy and the Learning and Teaching Policy were to be implemented within the NDP 9 Strategic plan period (University of Botswana, 2003). The Learning and Teaching Policy (University of Botswana, 2008f) emphasised quality of delivery of all programmes of the University, while the Distance Education Mainstreaming Policy intended to have distance education applied in all University faculties and Departments, to further the University's priority of expanding access (University of Botswana, 2005). Both policies appeared to have the potential to enable the University to achieve expansion of enrolments in various disciplines through both full-time face-to-face and ODL provision as well as ensure quality delivery of programmes. Through an effective implementation of these two policies, the University could achieve equivalency and parity of esteem between its two modes of delivery, if that was the over arching intention. However, as indicated before, a policy that articulates the rationale for ODL and its status, how the two modes relate, as well as their planned expansion, which would have gone a long way in expressing the state of equivalency, did not appear to be in place at UB. As Simonson *et al* (1999) argued, the concept of equivalency is central to the widespread acceptance of ODL. They maintained that

if teachers, learners or the public in general identified learning at a distance as equivalent to learning on campus, then distance learning would become main-stream. However, if ODL was perceived not to be equivalent to face-to-face and its value was perceived to be lower, then it would continue to be peripheral within a dual mode university.

The Distance Education Mainstreaming Policy and the Learning and Teaching Policy should once implemented, enhance the profile of ODL at UB since both could bring a sense of equivalent value in the experiences of the ODL teachers and students compared to the on-campus students (Simonson *et al*, 1999). However, their achievement of the intended goals (i.e. to increase enrolments and to provide widespread quality and effective teaching and learning) depended very much on how they were understood and implemented. Their implementation could further be influenced by the perceptions of UB staff in terms of the equivalency and status of each of the two modes through which the UB programmes were delivered. Impressions of this implementation come out of the findings of this study regarding the perceptions of the UB participants, both inside and outside the DDE. How they perceived the two policies to affect their work on the ground and whether they perceived ODL and full-time face-to-face as equivalent came out clearly during the data analysis process.

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter started by reiterating the important relationship between economic development and higher education and the achievement of high skills. It also touched on the high number of unmet demands for higher education in Botswana. The chapter then focused on the Botswana higher education sector and the growth of ODL at higher education level in Botswana. The chapter has scanned the environment within which ODL at higher education level was growing, including the historical environment of education at independence, the demographic environment and population structure, national policies that could enhance and or impede its growth. The chapter indicated that there was no specific ODL policy for Botswana. However, the growth of the mode was planned through the RNPE and the Tertiary Education Policy (Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008; Ministry of

Education, 2001; Republic of Botswana, 1994). The discussion indicated that at national level there was support for the growth of ODL through the general education policies in place, even though implementation was partly impeded by the sponsorship policy, which appeared to discriminate against ODL. The lack of government sponsorship support for students undertaking ODL programmes was pointed out as a possible delaying factor for the expansion and uptake of ODL at higher education level in Botswana.

The literature review seemed to indicate that ODL did not grow fast enough to have much prominence in UB as a dual mode university. There seemed to be a lack of national and institutional policies that guided the relationship between ODL and the face-to-face mode, as well as the planned growth of the ODL mode. Through an examination of some MOESD policies, the chapter also pointed to a possible mindset of stigma and mistrust concerning the quality and value of teaching and learning through the ODL mode. UB Strategic plans indicated a modest growth of the student body through all the modes they employed. However, the figures that were planned for ODL over various plan periods seemed to indicate a lack of or reluctance to expand the ODL mode.

On the whole, comparative literature seemed to demonstrate that ODL was generally facing negative judgement and stigmatisation within some dual mode universities, possibly right from planners to top University management and faculty down to students (Badu-Nyarko, 2006; Bower, 2001; Gould, 2003; Noble, 2000; Clark, 1993; Ipaye, 2007). There seemed to be revealed within some of these institutions, perceptions that ODL was inferior when compared with face-to-face delivery. Noble (2000) detected a state of notoriety that distance education was gaining through the attitudes of faculty towards it. The participants in the Noble (2000) survey also seemed to indicate that institutional support and training for using instructional technologies and distance education could be inadequate in many dual mode universities.

Chapter 4 puts forward the most appropriate methodology for the study to analyse both the indications suggested by the literature review and the experiences and perceptions of the participants.

Chapter Four

Research Design and Methodology

4.1 Introduction and Overview

Based on the foregoing chapters I made an assumption that there was high demand for participation in higher education in Botswana, which the local higher education providers were not able to satisfy through the face-to-face mode of delivery alone. The second assumption that I made was that ODL had been adopted within the UB system to substantially increase participation in higher education in Botswana and to address diverse needs of the potential clientele. Another assumption I made was that even though UB had adopted ODL as one of its strategies to increase participation, the expansion of the ODL mode within the UB system was slow compared to that of the face-to-face mode. My last assumption was that there was a low opinion of the ODL mode within the UB community compared to the face-to-face mode, which assumption brought questions of equivalency between the two modes. The analysis in Chapter Five, Six and Seven therefore explored these assumptions, focusing on interpreting the views and experiences of the various stakeholders involved in the planning, development and implementation of higher education ODL in Botswana, as well as assessing the documents listed under Table 4.2 and 4.3 in this chapter. The main research question guiding this study explored why there seemed to be continued low enrolment in some dual mode higher education institutions in Southern Africa despite their embracing ODL as a strategy to improve access to university programmes.

This chapter outlines the methods used to explore this phenomenon. In the first part of the chapter, I explain the rationale for being more inclined towards the qualitative research approach than towards other possible approaches in the human and social sciences, where this study resides. As Creswell (2003) observed, research practices lie somewhere on a continuum between qualitative and quantitative approaches and studies tend to be either more qualitative or more quantitative in nature. However, the mixed methods approach has emerged as the third approach, which more and more researchers tend to prefer. The chapter

also explains and justifies the preferred data collection and analysis strategies and procedures. Decisions about selected data sources in terms of sites and participants are also discussed. The conceptual framework influenced the study to explore how far the principles of the equivalency theory are at play in dual mode higher education institutions. Here I reiterate the importance of equivalency when considering general acceptance of ODL within education and how issues of equivalency might affect its growth and performance with regard to its ability to expand access to higher education.

4.2 Epistemology

Since I was researching the problem of limited accessibility to higher education, which was and still is a human phenomenon of a wider social concern in Botswana, I had to deal with human subjects and hence highly subjective data, in addition to data from documents. I aligned myself with the interpretive/constructivist knowledge claim, where reality is individually and socially constructed and the truth multifaceted (Robson, 2002; Creswell, 2003; Neuman, 2006). I realised that since points of view differ and each individual can interpret a situation differently from where they stand, I would have to make careful judgements and conclusions, in terms of understanding the problem under investigation, based on the data I collected from research, official documents as well as the opinions and perspectives of the participants. Since most of the time, the researched social issue affects social researchers directly, they do not stand aside and stay divorced from the issues and environments in which they are researching. This was true in this research, because I was within the environment where the challenge of limited access to higher education persisted, while the expansion of ODL was completely constrained. That is why I was concerned and wanted to find out more about the problem.

When researching a human phenomenon, one should realise that a researcher too comes to the research activity with his or her own perceptions on the issue. What then becomes very important is for the researcher to be able to listen carefully to peoples' views and opinions on the issue under investigation and consider their perceptions and interpretations concerning their experiences, and reconcile that with his/her own to draw informed conclusions. As

Creswell (2003) observed, humans engage with their world and make sense of it based on their historical and social perspective. This is true for both the participants and the researcher. I was interested in understanding the problem of low growth of ODL in dual mode universities and continued low enrolment, despite continued outcry for more access to higher education.

I needed to have a better understanding of this problem through the points of view of the participants. However, I also came with my own perceptions having worked in an ODL environment for many years and experienced its situation with regard to its status, its expansion process and its performance in expanding access to higher education, in both dual mode and dedicated institutions.

I initially worked for the Department of Non Formal Education, which was a department in the Ministry of Education, providing secondary level ODL programmes, as well as a national literacy programme. Through working in this Department for seventeen years I had observed many constraints impeding the growth of ODL, within a government department, which provided two major national programmes. I gained further experience of working in an ODL environment at the UB in the Distance Education Unit, for three years. For the past nine years to date, I have been working in a dedicated ODL institution (BOCODOL), which initially offered only secondary level programmes but has since extended its mandate to include higher education programmes. Like UB, BOCODOL is a parastatal institution under the MOESD. That has given me a total of about 30 years of experience working within ODL environments in Botswana, as well as closely working with partner institutions within the SADC region, as a staff member of the various institutions in Botswana. Naturally I have also developed interest in reading widely in the field and am familiar with a lot of literature in that regard. My own perceptions and experience in ODL therefore influenced as well as assisted me as I analysed and interpreted the data in the next three chapters, to try and understand the participants' interpretation of the phenomenon. My own perception has been that the Botswana higher education sector has not accorded ODL the support it deserved and needed in order to increase higher education enrolments in this country, over many years of

its existence in the system. My quest therefore was to try and understand what could be contributing to this state of affairs.

My study was influenced by the interpretive/constructivist epistemological perspective because it was exploring people's views and perceptions concerning the development of ODL in the Botswana higher education sector and within UB, in order to understand why the strategy seemed not to significantly improve enrolments in dual mode universities. I explored their perceptions with regard to the performance and challenges of ODL in achieving the intended contribution to the expansion of opportunities to access higher education. I was interested in understanding the problem from the points of view of the participants. Social researchers do not stand apart and stay divorced from the issues and environments in which they are researching. Most of the time, the researched social issue affects them directly because they are part of the environment where this challenge exists. This was actually true in my particular case, which was why I was concerned and wanted to find out more about the problem in the first place. I was coming with my own perceptions concerning the status of ODL within the Botswana higher education sector, the perceived stigma it has had to deal with, its slow expansion process and its performance with regard to expanding access in both dual mode and dedicated institutions. Naturally, my own background and experiences would play a part as I go about collecting and analyzing the data from the various participants and from the literature review. However, I intended to construct my understanding largely on the basis of my participants' perceptions and interpretations of the phenomenon.

4.3 Research Approach

Research in the social and human sciences can use qualitative, quantitative or mixed-mode research approaches. While quantitative research is usually aimed at testing theory, is measured in numbers and data analysed using statistical techniques, the goal of qualitative research is to understand a social problem from multiple perspectives. It is conducted in a natural setting, analysed by identifying, coding and categorizing patterns found in the data (Bryne, 2001; Creswell, 2003; Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003; Trace, 2001). Certain types

of problems are better tackled through certain research approaches and the choice of the preferred approach is usually to a large extent guided by issues that the researcher intends to address and also by the intended usage of the findings. Strauss and Corbin cited in Hoepfl (1997) observe that qualitative methods can be used to understand better, any phenomenon about which little is yet known, or to gain new perspectives on things about which much is already known, or to gain more in-depth information that may be difficult to convey quantitatively. Qualitative research investigates the why and how of decision making, or of phenomena, as compared to what, where, and when of quantitative research (Voeten, 2006; Yin, 2003a). It places much emphasis on close interaction of the researcher with the people researched, the researcher assessing and discovering meaning out of what people who are experiencing a situation have to say about it, and examining their related records, in order to understand the phenomenon better (Creswell, 2003; Woods, 2006). My belief that knowledge is socially constructed influenced me to use qualitative approaches, which allows me to explore the multiple perspectives from both the participants' views and what is contained in the documents available on this topic. Quantitative research, on the other hand, is more concerned with hard evidence to confirm or refute theory or hypothesis. Due to its concern about hard scientific evidence, quantitative research lays more emphasis on quantifying, counting, measuring and producing estimates and averages. If anything, it can be interested in the mathematical significance of people's words, actions and records, rather than their meanings (Hoepfl, 1997; Bianco and Carr-Chellman, 2002).

When it comes to usage, while the use of qualitative research findings is generally to illuminate and have a better understanding of situations or phenomena and even to understand why the situation prevails, the use of quantitative research findings is generally to test hypotheses or theories, as well as to generalize findings from the sample to the population from which it was drawn (Trochim, 2006). This is not to say that findings from quantitative studies do not achieve a better understanding of a phenomenon, or that qualitative research can never be used to test theory and hypotheses, or even its findings be generalized, because in certain cases, some qualitative researchers have used findings for such purposes. For instance, Yin (2009) as cited in Daughtery (2009) effectively demonstrated that case study findings can be generalized. He has given examples of the work

of William Whyte (“*Street Corner Society*”), where a descriptive case study about a neighbourhood could be generalised to other neighbourhoods. His similar example is the recent study by Neustadt and Fineberg on effects and mechanisms of mass immunisation of swine flu in America, findings of which could be generalisable to other parts of the world. The report (“*The Swine Flu Affair: Decision Making on a Slippery Disease*”) is made available at <http://www.iom.edu/?id=65926> (Daughtery, 2009).

However, it is generally perceived that if the intention is to test, verify or refute a theory or hypothesis, or to generalise the findings, then usually quantitative research is seen as the more appropriate and preferred approach for the study. On the other hand, if the researcher wants to achieve a better or in-depth understanding of a phenomenon, then usually the preference is towards qualitative research approaches. Creswell (2003) observes that research occurs within a continuum between qualitative and quantitative approaches, with some researchers leaning more towards qualitative, while the others would be more towards the quantitative approaches, depending on their research questions. This means, on the whole, that one approach would have more emphasis either towards the use of scientific instruments of data collection and quantitative data, and another towards having the researcher as the instrument of data collection and finding deeper meaning in such data.

Though there continues to be debate between qualitative and quantitative approaches, many scholars (Creswell, 2003; Woods, 2006; Trochim, 2006; Yin, 2003b; Patton, 2002) have indicated that there are advantages and disadvantages in any of the two approaches in conducting social research. Each research approach has its strategies, with their strengths and challenges. Therefore a researcher has to deal with the challenge of appropriately matching the research methods to the issue being researched, or to ensure a good fit between research questions and research methods (Patton, 1990; Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2005). Gibson and Duncan (2002), as well as Trochim (2006), observe that increasingly researchers are interested in blending the two traditions in a mixed-mode approach, attempting to get the best out of each (Tau, 2006a). Such researchers aim to draw liberally from both qualitative and quantitative approaches, reduce limitations of either and derive benefits from the

strengths of each. However, mixing or blending qualitative and quantitative approaches also has been observed to have its challenges (Bryman, 2004b).

I placed this research within the social and human sciences since I was interested in comparing people's theories and ideas about ODL and its value within the Botswana higher education sector, with their observations and interpretation in order to explore what perceptions and conclusions they had with regard to the value and contribution of ODL towards increasing participation in higher education. In Chapter 1, as well as in this chapter, I have indicated that I found the qualitative approach to be the most appropriate for this study. Scholars have described the qualitative research model as one that aims to understand the social world from the viewpoint of participants, through detailed descriptions of their cognitive and symbolic actions, and through the richness of meaning associated with observable behaviour (Myers, 2000; Hoepfl, 1997; Voeten, 2006; Woods, 2006). I perceived this research approach to allow me the opportunity to explore the views, opinions and perceptions of the people who have some work experience in one way or the other with ODL within the Botswana higher education context. I have also indicated that I am coming into this research from the constructivist/interpretive perspective, where reality is socially constructed, influenced by several factors and can be multifaceted, due to multiple perspectives. Therefore, I did not expect to come up with one answer or one reality as to what could be contributing to the delays in the growth and expansion of ODL in the UB set up or even why there continued to be such low enrolment figures for the UB ODL mode. However, I was of the opinion that even though there is no absolute truth to be discovered, with a carefully chosen research approach and further carefully chosen data collection and analysis strategies and procedures, one should be able to put together people's opinions, views and perceptions from their own experiences and come up with a plausible concluding perspective about the phenomenon.

The Qualitative approach seemed the most appropriate for this study because it had the potential to enable me to derive a deeper understanding of the situation, where ODL did not seem to grow fast enough in dual mode institutions to make a significant impact on increased participation in higher education. Qualitative researchers often carefully listen to what

people say and/or closely observe their attitudes, behaviours, beliefs, fears, perceptions, as well as examine the records that they may have about the phenomenon in order to illuminate the issue and achieve a better understanding. My intention was to understand why ODL seemed not to increase enrolments more significantly than the face-to-face mode in dual mode universities, as was expected to be the case in accordance with the theories and principles of ODL (Peters, 1967; Keegan, 1996; Moore, 2007; Holmberg, 1986; Perraton, 1991). I also intended to understand why ODL in dual mode universities seemed not to grow as well as its counterpart face-to-face mode in the same institutions. Law *et al* (1998) suggested that qualitative research was much more relevant when a researcher was ‘seeking meaning and understanding’, which was what I intended to achieve through this research. Qualitative research usually involves the exploration of a topic or issue in depth, with emphasis on seeking information from the people who are experiencing or are involved in the issue (Law *et al*, 1998; Patton, 2002, Woods, 2006; Gough and Madill, 2007; Trochim, 2006). This study primarily explored what the participants perceived to be contributory to the state of continued low growth of ODL and low enrolments through the mode in dual mode settings, particularly at the UB. Their perceptions at their varying levels with regard to the equivalency of ODL and on-campus face-to-face education in delivering higher education would assist me in determining whether in practice ODL was considered important in the expansion of access to higher education as was the case in theory and on paper. Interacting with the participants would also help me to deduce and explain some of the factors which seemed to be contributory to the status of higher education level ODL in Botswana, as the participants perceive it to be. Trochim (2006) observed that a researcher, who wanted to achieve a deep understanding of the issues, could count on the qualitative research approach, which he believed has special value for investigating complex and sensitive issues. Though qualitative and quantitative approaches can be mixed in one study and achieve the desired goal (Bryman, 2004b; Tau, 2006a) as well as help to provide method triangulation (Patton, 1999), I believe that for this particular study qualitative methods are sufficient. The mixed mode approach would utilise both qualitative and quantitative methods. This would involve designing instruments for both qualitative and quantitative data collection. For this study it seemed unnecessary to apply both approaches since the qualitative approach alone would do the job adequately and within the time limit of the study.

Hope (2006), Morgan (2000), Kennedy and Duffy (2004) expect ODL to perform better in dual mode institutions than in dedicated ODL institutions, since within dual mode universities there are already resources like fully qualified and experienced faculty, lecture rooms, laboratories and usually state of the art facilities including ICTs, that both modes can collaboratively utilise maximally and achieve a high level of success in terms of expanding opportunities for access to good quality higher education. However, in practice, ODL within dual mode universities generally seemed not to meet these expectations (Dodds, 2002; Jegede, 2002; Ipaye, 2007).

4.4 Choice of the Research Methods

Various scholars (Yin, 2003a; Bryman, 2004a; Law *et al*, 1998; Neuman, 2006) discussed several social research methods that investigators can choose from. These included, but were not limited to phenomenology, ethnography, case study, survey, experiment, document analysis, and analysis of archival records and histories. Surveys and experimental research designs are usually more inclined towards addressing quantitative research questions and to manipulative and control measures. So I decided to discount them from consideration for this study, which required context-based multiple perspectives in order to arrive at an understanding of the situation. Data collection in ethnographic and phenomenological designs, both of which depend mainly on observation, usually requires the researcher to be on-location, or physically staying with a cultural group in their natural setting for a prolonged period for observation, taking field notes, sometimes conducting interviews, engaging in informal conversations with participants, taking photographs, as well as audio and/or video recordings (Somekh and Lewin, 2005). The emphasis in the fieldwork, as Somekh and Lewin (2005) observed, is very much on getting to know the ‘insider’ perspective by long-term emersion in the field, observing participants going about their ordinary business in their natural setting. This study did not require long-term emersion in the field.

I tended to agree with Trochim (2006) that if one really wanted to try to achieve a deep understanding of how people think about certain issues, some type of in-depth interviewing

would probably be called for. I found the case study method to be more appropriate for this study mainly because of its emphasis on study-in-depth (Somekh and Lewin, 2005; Neuman, 2006), exploring context-based knowledge and experiences of participants and other data sources. As Neuman (2006) rightly observed, in case study research a researcher conducts an in-depth study or examination of an extensive amount of information about few units or cases for one period or across multiple periods of time. This study aimed at examining data from multiple sources about the low performance of ODL in dual mode institutions, with regard to opening up opportunities for participation in higher education. Hayes (2006) submitted that case studies communicate directly with the implementers and initiators of education. In this study, I actually wanted to explore the perceptions of initiators, policy makers and implementers firstly, in order to understand the situation of ODL in dual mode institutions, and secondly, for the results of this study to be available to the implementers and initiators. I expected direct access to experiences of the people involved in this situation to assist me to understand what might be contributory to the situation of continued slow growth of ODL and continued low enrolments through ODL within dual mode institutions, in the face of high unmet demands for higher education. I wanted to understand how this situation could have developed, how it might have affected enrolments at UB and other dual mode universities in the region, and how it could ultimately be changed or improved. Flyvbjerg (2006) explains that context-dependent knowledge and experience is at the centre of the case study research method. He argues that experts operate on the basis of intimate context-dependent knowledge and experience in their area of expertise. Case studies are about such context-dependent knowledge and experiences of the selected participants, who are the people who should know better about their context.

Critics of case study research like Miles (1979) as cited in Schell (1992) believed that a case study was useful for exploratory or preliminary phases of hierarchically arranged research programmes, while surveys and histories would be used for the descriptive phase. In their opinion, experiments would be the only ones that could be used for explanatory or causal research. However, several scholars, including Yin (2003b), have demonstrated that case study research can actually be used for all three purposes. A case study can be exploratory and aim at defining questions and hypotheses of a study, or at exploring the ideas from data

sources. It can also be descriptive, where it presents a complete description of a phenomenon within its context, or be explanatory and answer the why question, where its data may have a bearing on cause and effect relationships and explain how events happened (Bachor, 2000; Yin, 2003b; Hayes, 2006; Creswell, 2003; Bryman, 2004b; Somekh and Lewin, 2005). Soy (1997) and Schell (1992) agree on the point that case study research generally answers one or more questions which begin with "how" or "why," and that such questions would usually be targeted to a limited number of events or conditions and their inter-relationships. I believed that a case study focused on the Botswana education environment and the UB dual mode specifically, would give me the necessary in-depth probe through which I should be able to get a better understanding of why ODL in dual mode institutions seemed not to grow rapidly enough to improve access to higher education better than the face-to-face mode.

4.4.1 Limitations and Challenges of the Case Study Method

Notwithstanding several advantages in the use of the case study method, its critics believe that the study of a small number of cases can offer no grounds for establishing reliability or generality of findings (Soy, 1997). Others argue that the intense exposure to study of the case can bias the findings (Bachor, 2000). Some critics like Miles cited in Schell (1992), dismiss case study research as useful only as an exploratory tool. However, proponents of case study research have refuted such concerns and allegations and continued to use the case study research with success (Yin, 2003b). It has been demonstrated that case studies can actually be used for exploratory, explanatory and descriptive purposes (Yin, 2003b; Neuman, 2006) and that findings from some case studies can be generalisable (Schell, 1992). Soy (1997) also postulates that since the research object in a case study is often a program, an entity, a person, or a group of people, the object is likely to be intricately connected to political, social, historical, and personal issues. This he argues provides wide ranging possibilities for questions and adds complexity to the case study. Some of its challenges as noted by Hayes (2006) include the possibility of undermining institutional structures and/or triggering concealed tensions between different members, as deeply hidden resentments, concerns and priorities may get drawn out. I fully concur with this observation because when the researcher starts probing, they just might, without realising it, trigger certain experiences and

probably sensitive issues, which might result in tension or an awkward situation at work. Though interested in in-depth knowledge and understanding of the researched issue, a researcher or interviewer needs to go into data collection in an institution mindful of such possible apprehensions and take all precautions to minimise his or her contribution towards manifestation of any of these concerns. When they do appear to surface, the researcher should not encourage them. It is also an ethical concern that a researcher should aim at not harming the institution or the people being researched. I concur with Woods (2006) that it would be desirable to leave the participants in a better rather than a worse condition after the research, and to protect their identities in disseminating the research “through, for example, the use of pseudonyms” as necessary. As my study did not deal with personal or sensitive issues this would not be a threat.

One other challenge that seemed to be of major concern in case study research, particularly for people who would ultimately read the report or evaluate the conclusions reached, was the degree to which the evidence presented would be representative of the participants’ viewpoints, as opposed to representing more the researcher's own viewpoints (Bachor, 2000). In this research incepts have been drawn from the transcribed interviews and used as evidence, when interpreting data and ultimately drawing conclusions. Researchers also usually face a challenge with regard to structuring of data, whether a structure has to be determined before or after data had been collected. Punch (2005) discussed the dilemma that researchers usually face when they had to make a choice on the issue of “structure before” or “structure after”, pointing out that qualitative data can be unstructured at the point of collection, as can be the case with transcripts from an open-ended interview or field notes from participant observation. In such cases, the structure would emerge during data analysis. Since structure comes out of the data through codes and categories, if it is determined before data is collected, it might result in the researcher imposing the structure on the data and participants not able to give their views and opinions freely. If, on the other hand, it is structured after data, the challenge would be in making standardised comparisons, which becomes difficult. This study introduced some form of structure before data was collected. Table 1.2 in Chapter 1 was aimed at introducing some form of categories within which data might be considered to fall. However, this was employed only as a guide or as an indicative

structure. The data collection process allowed for other emerging categories and emerging structures of data. Flexibility was thus allowed with regard to pre-determining and/or allowing structure to emerge.

Another major challenge, not peculiar to just case study method, but for conducting any research, is gaining access into a given institution for that purpose. My experience in this study was fortunately of very few challenges in that regard. The few challenges are worth noting here, possibly for awareness of future researchers. Considering that my investigation had to do with ODL at higher education level, I first of all wrote a letter in December 2007, to the UB requesting permission to conduct this study (Attached with other permission request letters as **Addendum B**). A similar letter was written to the Tertiary Education Council. At the time, I was not aware that I had to have asked for permission to undertake a study in Botswana, from the MOESD, even before I approached the other institutions. It was only when I was presenting a similar request letter to the Planning Statistics & Research Unit of the Ministry, as one of the identified sites for the research that I became aware of this anomaly that I had created. This was duly corrected. However, I was the one introducing myself when requesting for permission and this was not acceptable to the MOESD. They needed an introductory letter or note from my University. However, my first Supervisor at the University of Pretoria was not familiar with this requirement.

Some delays were experienced here since none of the institutions in Botswana would consider my request if it was not accompanied by a Research Permit from the MOESD, allowing me to undertake a research within Botswana. Ultimately I requested the officer of the MOESD to write to my Supervisor for the introductory letter, which was immediately released and the process dully initiated. I noted this as probably one of the possible temporary setbacks or delays that a researcher being supervised from one country with its own set of procedures and undertaking research in another country having its own different set of procedures should anticipate and make time for in the project plan, to reduce anxiety. Following this small delay, the Tertiary Education Council considered my proposal and acceded to my request. At the UB there were further delays while they were conducting their own ethical clearance issues. However, ultimately I was given permission to undertake the

research. So a researcher should never underestimate the time it could take to get permission to undertake a research study in an institution, or at identified sites.

4.5 Choice of the Data Collection Instruments

Patton (2002), Woods (2006), Neill (2006) and Trochim (2006) all discussed interviews, observations and review of documents as the three main techniques or strategies of gathering and analysing qualitative data. All three of these techniques can be used together in a case study research, two of them can be combined, or only one can be used. However, Patton (2002) warns that studies that use only one technique of data collection are more susceptible to errors linked to weaknesses of that particular technique. He points to the advantage of combining techniques, as they help to provide cross-data validity checks. When discussing the four kinds of triangulation that promote verification and validation of qualitative data, Patton (2002) also refers to triangulation of sources, which may help in checking out the consistency of data from different data sources. I decided to combine semi-structured interviews with document review mainly for cross-data validity checks.

4.5.1 Interviews

I chose to use semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions to avail the participants an opportunity to give information freely. This technique allows a more relaxed discussion between the researcher and the participant and has the potential to shed more light on the issue being discussed. It allows follow-up questions and more probing as the discussion unfolds (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2003a; Patton, 1999; Hayes, 2006; Neuman, 2006).

4.5.2 Document Review

Institutional records can include policy documents, reports of studies undertaken by the institution or progress reports on planned implementation, among other documents. These would provide both the institutional expectations in terms of policies and plans, as well as report the actual performance on implementation. Institutional documents I was able to

review are listed under Table 4.2 below. Sources reflected in Table 4.3 actually proved useful for comparison with experiences elsewhere.

I decided to combine interviews with examining the institutional documents to provide triangulation through data sources (Patton, 2002). It also allowed me to determine whether there was consistency or a mismatch between policy expectations and practice, or implementation with regard to the expansion of ODL in the Botswana higher education sector generally and the UB specifically, with regard to increasing opportunities for participation in higher education and training. Sometimes policy expectations and what is contained in implementation plans do not necessarily translate into action as expected during the implementation stage. Thus the review of documents like institutional policies, plans, reports and other documents compared to the experiences of practitioners illuminated the relationship between policy and practice. The exercise shed some light on what could be contributory towards the delay of growth of ODL in the UB dual mode system and why despite the introduction of ODL more than a decade before, the ODL mode of provision still attracted very low enrolments into UB programmes.

4.6 Sampling

Marshal (1996), Voeten (2006) and Trochim (2006) draw a distinction between qualitative and quantitative sampling, which is influenced in each case by the main aim of the approach. They pointed out that the main aim of the quantitative approach is to test predetermined hypotheses and produce generalisable results. Trochim (2006) explains that sampling involves selecting “units” from a population of interest in order to study them, then generalising the results back to the population from which they were selected. One of the sampling methods that would be more appropriate for a quantitative study would be random sampling. In random sampling, every member of the population of interest stands a chance to be selected into the sample. The sample has to be as proportionate and representative as possible of the larger population from which it is being drawn, so that the results can later be generalised back to the population knowing that the sample was representative.

Qualitative studies, on the other hand, aim at illuminating and bringing more understanding on the researched issue, or are more concerned about finding reasons behind various aspects of human behaviour (Voeten, 2006). These are inclined to answering the more humanistic “why” and “how” questions (Marshall, 1996; Voeten, 2006). This case study attempted to bring to the fore some indications of why ODL within dual mode institutions might be slow to expand and seemingly inadequate in addressing the problem of shortage of opportunities for higher education. Marshall (1996) pointed out that while the measurement of utility of results for quantitative studies was usually generalisability, for qualitative studies it was usually applicability (Marshall, 1996). While the conclusions drawn from the Botswana experience through this case study were not intended to be generalisable, it was envisaged that they might be relevant and applicable in some other Southern African settings and therefore lessons could be learnt. Improved understanding of complex human issues was more important than generalisability of results for this study, as Marshall (1996) observed with regard to qualitative research.

Random sampling would not be the most suitable method for this study. It was necessary to select relevant institutions and relevant people who could shed light based on their experience regarding the researched issue. I actually found purposive sampling to be the most suitable criterion to select the participants. In purposive sampling, the researcher purposely selects people that he or she knows have some knowledge of the phenomenon being researched and therefore their contribution would have authenticity, credibility and trustworthiness. The researcher would therefore have criteria in terms of what kind of knowledge and/or experience the person should have on the subject in order for them to be selected for participation. Table 1.2 gives indications of some of the expected experience and knowledge of the phenomenon by the selected participants. The sample in this case could therefore not be randomly selected.

I selected the UB as the main data source for this case study since it was the main dual mode higher education provider in Botswana at the time of the study. It had firmly adopted ODL as one of its delivery modes since 1991, when CCE was established to be the outreach arm of the University and to advance ODL within the University. This gave UB vast experience in

the development and delivery of ODL and its performance, as well as challenges with regard to expanding opportunities for participation in higher education in Botswana. The Tertiary Education Council and the MOESD being major stakeholder institutions responsible for policy at national level were also included as data sources for the study. In each of these institutions I targeted personnel that had experience with ODL, either as policy and decision makers, or as practitioners or implementers of policies. UB students in both ODL and face-to-face programmes were planned to be included in the sample, as people perceived to be directly affected by equivalency issues in the provision of UB programmes through either ODL or face-to-face. Unfortunately students were ultimately left out of the sample due to logistical constraints. Therefore I selected a purposive sample to interview, from the people who were actively involved in ODL at higher education level in Botswana, in their various capacities from these three institutions.

Not uncommon in qualitative studies, the sample size for this study was influenced more by the concern about people who were more likely to provide insight and understanding into the problem of the slow growth of ODL at higher education level in Botswana, rather than concerns of generalisability of the findings (Marshall, 1996). This is why the sample consisted of policy makers and practitioners or implementers. It was not the intention of the study to produce generalisable findings, but to illuminate what could be contributory to the slow growth of ODL in dual mode higher education institutions, seen through the eyes of the people who had worked in such an environment in Botswana, and how this could have affected enrolments at this level. Rather than generalisability of the findings, the question of their relevance and applicability to other dual mode institutions in Southern Africa was of more concern for this study.

A total of 28 participants were sampled initially. However, when they were approached, 25 consented to participate in the study. During the actual data collection phase, only 17 were ultimately interviewed as Table 4.1 illustrates.

Table 4.1 – List of Participants per Selected Institution

Institution	Kinds of Participants	Number of participants
UB	Policy makers/planners	3
	Lecturers	9
	Administrators	1
TEC	Policy makers/planners	3
Ministry of Education & Skills Development	Policy makers/planners	1
Total		17

Trochim (2006) calls the people who actually take part in the study a sub-sample of the sample population. In this study, though the sample population was 28, the sub-sample became 17, consisting of 1 participant from the MOESD’s Division of Planning, Statistics and Research, 3 from TEC and the remaining 13 from UB. All the participants were adult men and women above 21 years old, who had worked in their various portfolios for more than two years.

4.7 The Data Collection Experience

I used semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions that were pre-prepared to guide the interviews, as well as document analysis as my two data collection techniques for the case study method I had chosen. The interviews were tape recorded and later transcribed. Even though people were interviewed from different institutions and also across different status positions in those institutions, and therefore this afforded the study some form of data triangulation (Patton, 2002), this would still be too limited compared to when the study was using more than one data gathering strategies. A combination of interviews and document review was meant to also provide methodological triangulation (Patton, 2002).

All the interviews, except one, were on one-to-one basis, in the participants’ work environment, either in an office or in a participant chosen space within their work

environment. Out of the 25 participants who had consented to participate, 17 were able to go through with the interviews. However, out of the 17 participants, three preferred to be interviewed as a group and even though this was not according to my original plan, I had to consent to their preference and conduct a focus group interview. This demonstrated, in a way, the flexibility characteristic of qualitative research, since it deals with human subjects and the researcher has to be sensitive to their conditions and be as flexible and accommodating as possible. So though 17 people participated, there were only 15 interview sessions. I conducted all the 15 interviews myself, one as a group interview and fourteen as one-to-one interviews. The interviews lasted for a period of about three months (November 2008 –January 2009).

The data collection period became longer than anticipated because of scheduling constraints, mainly on the part of the participants. Some would suddenly realise that they had a clash with other activities and rescheduled. Sometimes I would arrive at the participant's office at the appointed time, only to find that he or she had left for another activity. Confirming the appointment a day before helped with some but not with the other participants. Some would receive a short notice assignment which was taking them away from the office, or even from the country and rescheduling would be necessary. I sent the participants a letter of consent (attached as **Addendum A**), which they all signed. All the participants from the three institutions preferred their own workplaces as venues for the interviews, which were mainly their individual offices. At TEC the officers kindly made an arrangement for me to meet each of the three participants in turns, in the library downstairs. Due to health problems, I could not access their offices accessible only through stair cases in a double storey building. So they made an alternative arrangement to accommodate me. I was grateful and this was expressed to each one of the participants, just before the commencement of the interview session. At the UB all offices were accessible either from the ground floor or through a lift, except for one Department, which was housed in the second floor of a building with a lift that was out of order for the whole time I was conducting the interviews. As a result, I was not able to interview the two participants from that Department due to my inability to reach the second floor through stair cases. An alternative venue seemed not to be feasible.

Transcribing took an average of a week per interview session of about one hour. The first four interviews actually took more than two months to transcribe. I was transcribing only in the evenings on weekdays, and over weekends since I was employed full-time with a full-time workload, and studying as a distance education student. This arrangement was a very big challenge throughout the study period. Merely transcribing ended up taking the best part of 2009 to complete (from February to around early August 2009). To devote significant amounts of time to study I had to request for leave of absence from work. Initially I thought of engaging other people, or at least one other person, to assist me with transcribing since it was proving to be a long, slow process. However, I decided against the idea when I noticed that doing the transcribing personally proved to be helpful as I was beginning to form impressions of patterns or themes as I was listening to the audio recordings, in line with what Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003) envisaged. They observed that usually right from the beginning, the researcher starts to see some patterns of data or themes emerging as he or she starts to engage with the data. I also discovered that there were a few information gaps, which needed follow up with participants or where participants had mentioned or referred me to some documents.

As indicated earlier, the experience from this exercise was very informative and also revealing of inherent challenges that emerged. When transcribing Interview No. 1 around February 2009, for instance, I realised that data was missing from the audio. This could have happened either at the recording stage during the interview or at the stage of transferring data from the recording device to the CD for purposes of data storage and retrieval, as well as to create space on the digital recorder. Unfortunately it was not possible to do the interview all over again. It had been very difficult for the participant in question to slot me in his busy schedule in the first instance. Therefore, I concluded that to go back and request for a re-doing of the interview was going to be an un-accomplishable mission. However, what remained on the CD was the bulk of the interview, very valuable data and an important contribution to the study. Certain issues needed to be followed up with Participant 1, to close up any gaps in the missing information. It became possible much later in the year, at the stage of verifying the transcript with the participant, to secure another slot to make the

necessary follow up. The participant requested for a short meeting to give me feedback on the interview transcript.

For document review and analysis, I selected the documents that were most relevant for the study from each of the three institutions, though most of the documents came from UB and TEC. Few policy documents came from MOESD and this was typical since only a few such documents were relevant for the study. Some of the documents were available through TEC as the Ministry's assigned institution to generate some policies, like the Tertiary Education Policy and the Human Resource Development Strategy. From MOESD I was able to get the two Education Policies (1977 and 1994) as well as the National Development plans and the National Vision 2016 documents in terms of policy documents. Table 4.2 below shows the documents selected for review from the three institutions within Botswana, while Table 4.3 indicates other documents from other sources, which were valuable for the document review process, particularly for comparison purposes.

Table 4.2: List of Documents Reviewed from the Selected Institutions

UB	TEC	MOESD
University of Botswana. 1999. <i>University Development Plan 1997/98 – 2002/03</i> . Gaborone: University of Botswana.	Republic of Botswana. Ministry of Education and Skills Development. 2008. <i>Tertiary Education Policy: Government White Paper No.37</i> . Gaborone: MOESD.	Republic of Botswana. Ministry of Education. 2001. <i>Strategic Plan 2001 – 2006</i> Gaborone: Ministry of Education
University of Botswana. 2000. <i>UB Beyond 10,000: A Strategy for Growth</i> . Gaborone: University of Botswana.	Tertiary Education Council. 2006. <i>A Proposal for a Tertiary Education Policy for Botswana: Executive Report</i> . Gaborone: TEC.	Republic of Botswana. 1977. <i>National Policy on Education: Education for Kagisano</i> . Gaborone: Government Printer.
University of Botswana. 2004. <i>Shaping our Future: UB's Strategic Priorities and</i>	Tertiary Education Council <i>Strategic Plan to 2009</i> . Gaborone: TEC.	Republic of Botswana. 1994. <i>Government Paper No.2 of 1994: The Revised National</i>

<p><i>Actions to 2009 and Beyond.</i> Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>		<p><i>Policy on Education.</i> Gaborone: Government Printer.</p>
<p>University of Botswana. 2008a. <i>A Strategy for Excellence: The UB Strategic Plan to 2016 and Beyond.</i> Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Tertiary Education Council 2008b. <i>Tertiary Education Formulating the NDP 10 Plan: Consultation Paper.</i> Gaborone: TEC.</p>	<p>Republic of Botswana. Ministry of Finance and Development Planning. 2002. <i>National Development Plan (NDP) 9.</i> Gaborone: Government Printer</p>
<p>University of Botswana. 2005. <i>Distance Education Mainstreaming Policy.</i> Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Tertiary Education Council. 2007. <i>Just the Facts: Tertiary Education Demographics 1997 – 2005.</i> Gaborone: TEC.</p>	<p>Republic of Botswana. 2008. <i>National Development Plan (NDP) 10.</i> Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning</p>
<p>University of Botswana. 2008f. <i>Learning and Teaching Policy.</i> Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Tertiary Education Council. 2008a. <i>Policy and Planning Brief No. 3: The Demographics of Tertiary Education.</i> Gaborone: TEC.</p>	<p>Republic of Botswana. 2007. <i>Keynote Policy Paper for National Development Plan 10.</i> Gaborone: Ministry of Finance and Development Planning</p>
<p>Task Force on Enrolment Planning and Management. 2007. <i>Report on Enrolment Planning and Management</i> Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Tertiary Education Council. 2006. <i>National Human Resource Development Strategy: Summary Background Paper.</i> Gaborone: TEC.</p>	<p>Department of Youth & Culture 1996. <i>National Youth Policy.</i> Gaborone: Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs</p>
<p>University of Botswana. 2006. <i>Annual Report 2005/6.</i> Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Molutsi, P. 2006. From the Executive Secretary's Desk. <i>Tertiary Education Affairs</i>, (1):1.</p>	<p>Botswana Federation of Trade Unions. 2007. <i>Policy on Education in Botswana.</i></p>
<p>Tau, O. S. 2006. <i>Structures and Process in Dual-Mode</i></p>	<p>Deloitte and Tertiary Education Council. <i>Realising Our</i></p>	<p>Republic of Botswana. Ministry of Education. 2004. <i>The</i></p>

<p><i>Institutions: Implications for Development.</i> Paper delivered at PCF4, March 2006, Barbados.</p>	<p><i>Potential: A Formulation Study to Develop A National Human Resource Development Strategy for Botswana – Final Report.</i> Ministry of Finance and Development Planning and Ministry of Education.</p>	<p><i>Development of Education in Botswana.</i> Paper delivered at the 47th International Conference on Education, 8 – 11 September 2004, Geneva, Switzerland.</p>
<p>Tau, O. S. 2008. <i>Designing the UB Distance Education System: A Systems Approach.</i> Paper presented at the PCF5, July 2008, London.</p>	<p>Central Statistics Office – <i>Table 1: 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001 Census Demographic Indicators: Botswana</i></p>	<p>Republic of Botswana. Ministry of Education. 1998. <i>Botswana College of Distance and Open Learning Act No. 20 of 1998.</i> Gaborone: Government Printer.</p>
<p>University of Botswana. 2008b. <i>Facts and Figures.</i> Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Central Statistics Office, <i>Table 1: Enrolment at All Levels by Sex [1995 - 2004] – Botswana</i></p>	<p>Republic of Botswana. Department of Tertiary Education and Financing. 2008. <i>Guidelines Governing Award of Sponsorship.</i> Gaborone: MOESD</p>
<p>University of Botswana. 2008c. <i>Fact Book 2007/08.</i> Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Central Statistics Office, <i>Statsupdate March 2009</i></p>	<p>Jefferis, K. and Kapaletswe, F. 2008. <i>Botswana Country Overview 2008/9.</i> Capital Resources.</p>
<p>University of Botswana. 2008d. <i>Report: Enrolment Planning & Management.</i> Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Central Statistics Office, <i>Statsupdate June 2008</i></p>	<p>Khama, S.K.I. 2008. State of the Nation Address: His Excellency Lt. Gen. Seretse Khama Ian Khama, President of the Republic of Botswana, to the Opening of the Fifth Session of the Ninth Parliament, Republic of Botswana. <i>Tautona Times</i>, 35 (Special Edition) 3 November 2008.</p>
<p>University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Central Statistics Office. 2008.</p>	<p>Presidential Task Force for a Long-term Vision for Botswana</p>

<p>2008e. <i>Student Enrolment Plan 2009 – 2015</i>. Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p><i>Statsupdate Sept 2008</i>. Gaborone: Central Statistics Office</p>	<p>(1997): <i>Vision 2016: Towards prosperity for All</i>. Gaborone: Ministry of Finance.</p>
<p>University of Botswana. 2008. <i>UB Research Strategy</i>. Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Central Statistics Office. 2008. <i>Statsupdate Dec 2008</i>. Gaborone: Central Statistics Office</p>	<p>Leburu-Sianga, F. and Malobe, E. 2000. <i>ADEA Prospective Stocktaking Capacity Building Study: A Focus on Human Resource Development for the Ministry of Education Botswana</i>. Gaborone: Ministry of Education.</p>
<p>Dodds, T., Gaskell, A. and Mills, R. 2008. <i>UB: A National Needs Assessment Study for Tertiary-level ODL in Botswana</i>, Centre for Educational Research and Development, St Edmund's College.</p>	<p>Central Statistics Office. 2008. <i>Population Projections for Botswana 2001-2031</i>. Gaborone: Central Statistics Office</p>	<p>Business and Economic Advisory Council. 2006. <i>Botswana - A Strategy for Economic Diversification and Sustainable Growth</i>. Gaborone: Business and Economic Advisory Council.</p>
<p>Serpell, R. 2008. <i>Review of the Academic Organisation of the UB</i>. Gaborone: University of Botswana.</p>	<p>Central Statistics Office. 2008. <i>Education Statistics 2008</i>. Gaborone: Central Statistics Office</p>	<p>Mokaeya, B. 1986. <i>Department of Non Formal Education Information Brochure</i>. Gaborone: Department of Non Formal Education</p>
<p>Dodds, T. and Youngman, F. 1994. Distance Education in Botswana: Progress and Prospects. <i>The Journal of Distance Education</i>, 9(1): 61 – 79.</p>	<p>Central Statistics Office. 2006. <i>Botswana Demographic Survey 2006</i>. Gaborone: Central Statistics Office</p>	
<p>Nhundu, J. and Kamau, J. 2002. <i>From Correspondence to Open & Distance Learning</i>:</p>	<p>Republic of Botswana and United Nations (2005): <i>Botswana Millennium</i></p>	

<i>the Experiences of Botswana.</i> Paper presented at PCF 2, Durban.	<i>Development Goals Status Report 2004: Achievements, Future Challenges and Choices.</i>	
Kamau, J. 2007. <i>Retraining Primary School Teachers Against Diminishing Resources: Is Distance Education the Answer?</i> Conference Paper, UNESCO, Second Regional Seminar for Africa, Accra Ghana	United Nations Development Programme. <i>Botswana Human Development Report 2005: Harnessing Science and Technology for Human Development.</i> Gaborone. UNDP	
Kamau, J. 2002. <i>Teachers Upgrading as a Measure to alleviate Poverty through the Distance Mode of Delivery,</i> retrieved from: http://www.gla.ac.uk/centres/ cradall/docs/Botswana- papers/Kamaupaper_39.pdf	Integrated Consultancies and Resources Centre. 2004. <i>Report on Botswana Leadership Development Initiative Workshop.</i> Francistown. Botswana. UNDP	

For comparative purposes I also referred to some of the documents from the SADC region and beyond as Table 4.3 below indicates

Table 4.3: List of Documents Referred to from SADC and Beyond

SADC	Beyond SADC
Pityana, B. N. 2008. <i>A Decade of Education and Development in Africa: The Promise of ODL.</i> UNISA, Pretoria.	Ipaye, B. 2007. <i>Organisation of Dual Mode Distance Education Institutions in Nigeria: present and future,</i> National Open University of Nigeria.
SARUA. 2008. <i>Towards a Common Future: Higher Education in the SADC Region.</i> Available at http://www.sarua.org/files/countryreports/	Simonson, M. 2002. Policy and Distance Education, <i>The Quarterly Review of Distance Education</i> , 3(2): v – vii.

Country_Report_Botswana.pdf [Accessed 6 September 2010].	
Robbins, D., Wilson-Strydom and Hoosen, S. 2009. <i>SARUA Handbook 2009: A Guide to the Public Universities of Southern Africa</i> . Johannesburg: SARUA.	Badu-Nyarko, S.K. 2006. Faculty Attitudes towards Distance Education: A Review of the Literature. <i>International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning</i> , 3(5): 59-71.
SADC. 1997. <i>Protocol on Education and Training</i> . Blantyre. Available at http://www.sadc.int/english/protocols/p_education_and_training.html [Accessed on 26/03/2009].	Rockwell, S. K., Schauer, J., Fritz, S. M. & Marx, D. B. 1999. Incentives and Obstacles Influencing Higher Education Faculty and Administrators to Teach Via Distance, <i>Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration</i> , 2(4).
SADC. <i>Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan</i> . SADC	Bates, A. W. T. 2000. <i>Distance Education in Dual Mode Higher Education Institutions: Challenges and Changes</i> . Vancouver: University of British Columbia: Division of Continuing Studies.
SADC. Social Development Department. 2006. <i>Appraisal Report: Southern African Development Community (SADC) Capacity Building in ODL (ODL) Project</i> . Gaborone: SADC.	Hope, A. 2006. <i>Factors for Success in Dual Mode Institution</i> . Hong Kong:
University of Namibia. 2007. <i>The University of Namibia Annual Report 2007</i> . UNAM.	Daniel, J. Kanwar, A. & Uvalić-Trumbić, S. 2007. <i>Mass Tertiary Education in the Developing World: Distant Prospect or Distinct Possibility?</i> Vancouver: COL.
University of Namibia. Centre for External Studies. 2008. <i>Annual Report 2008</i> . University of Namibia.	Mbwesa, J.K. 2009. Adults in Higher Education: The role of Distance Education in Kenya with Special Reference to the Faculty of External Studies. University of Nairobi.
DEASA. 2004. <i>Strategic Perspective: Action Plans and Objectives 2004 – 2005</i> . Distance Education Association of Southern Africa.	Jegade, O. 2002. <i>Integrated ICT-Support for ODL in Nigeria: The Vision, the Mission and the Journey So Far</i> . Abuja: Federal Ministry of Education.
Lephalala, M. and Pienaar, C. 2007. Writing Centres: Promoting Access in Open Distance Learning, <i>UIC Writing Centre and Public Space Conference Series</i> , 4(2). UNISA.	Lawless, C. and Richardson, J.T.E. 2004. Monitoring the Experiences of Graduates in Distance Education. <i>Studies in Higher Education</i> , 29(3): 353 – 374.
Siaciwena, R. 2006. Challenges of a Dual Mode Institution: The Case of the University of Zambia. Paper presented at the PCF4, Barbados.	Ekhaguere, G. 2000. African Higher Education and Training: Opportunities and Challenges, <i>Higher Education in Europe</i> , 25(3).
Dodds, T. 2002. <i>Why is Open Learning Failing the Masses of Africa? Abstract for a Workshop</i>	MacGregor, K. 2008. Lag in Sub-Saharan Participation, <i>University World News – Africa</i>

<p><i>Introduction on Distance and Open Learning for Adult Basic and Non-Formal Education in Africa</i>, Pan-Commonwealth Forum on Open Learning, Durban.</p>	<p>Edition, Issue: 0003, 27 April 2008.</p>
<p>Centre for Higher Education Transformation. 2004. <i>Higher Education and Development: Reflecting on the Challenges</i>. Sunnyside, Pretoria: CHET.</p>	<p>Morgan, P. 2000. <i>Strengthening the Stakes: Combining Distance and Face-to-face Strategies – Preliminary Discussion Issues</i>. St Augustine: University of West Indies.</p>
<p>Crowder, M. (ed.). 1984. <i>Education for Development in Botswana: Proceedings Of A Symposium Held By The Botswana Society At The National Museum And Art Gallery 15 - 19 August 1983</i>. Gaborone: The Botswana Society, Macmillan Botswana Publishing Co. (Pty) Ltd.</p>	<p>Perraton, H. 1991. <i>Administrative Structures for Distance Education</i>. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.</p>
<p>University of Pretoria. 2009. <i>UP in a Nutshell 2009</i>. University of Pretoria</p>	<p>Rockwell, S. K., Schauer, J., Fritz, S. M. & Marx, D. B. 1999. Incentives and Obstacles Influencing Higher Education Faculty and Administrators to Teach Via Distance. <i>Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration</i>, 2(4).</p>
<p>UNESCO. 2007. <i>EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008</i>. Paris: UNESCO</p>	<p>Romiszowski, A. 2004. <i>A Study of Distance Education Public Policy and Practice in Higher Education Sectors of Selected Countries</i>, Council on Higher Education.</p>
	<p>Mensah, S.K.E. and Owusu-Mansah, F. 2002. <i>Priorities and Strategies for Capacity Building in Tertiary Distance Education for Human Resource Development in Ghana</i>. World Bank.</p>
	<p>Sikwibele, A.L. and Mungoo, J.K. 2009. Distance Learning and Teacher Education in Botswana: Opportunities and Challenges. <i>The International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning</i>, Vol. 10, No. 4, September 2009</p>
	<p>Mokaeya, B. 1992. <i>The Changing Role of the Distance Education Programme in the Botswana Department of Non Formal Education</i>. University of London and International Extension College</p>
	<p>Kanwar, A. and Daniel, J. 2008. <i>The Scope and Demand for Tertiary Education and Current Resources Available to Commonwealth Member States</i>, COL</p>
	<p>Nage-Sibande, B. 2005. The Development of Distance Education in Botswana. <i>The Quarterly</i></p>

	<i>Review of Distance Education, Vol. 6, No.4, 2005 pp. 243 – 252</i>
	Colclough, C. and McCarthy, S. 1980. <i>The Political Economy of Botswana: A Study of Growth and Distribution</i> . Oxford: Oxford University Press
	Mogae, F. 2005. <i>Botswana's Development Experience: Lecture by President Festus Mogae at the Institute of Development Studies, 21/2/05</i> , Sussex University
	World Economic Forum, World Bank and African Development Bank. 2009. <i>The African Competitiveness Report</i> . Geneva: The World Economic Forum
	Aguti, J. N. 2006. <i>Education for national development: The Makerere University dual mode experience</i> . Makerere University. Department of Distance Education.

4.8 Data Analysis

Data analysis involves effectively making sense of the data collected, which actually starts at the time of data collection and tends to be a continuous and iterative process until no further data needs to be collected on the researched issue (Basit, 2003). Table 1.2 in Chapter One gave an indication of the areas to be analysed closely to assess the perceptions of the UB community with regard to the equivalency of ODL and face-to-face modes of education provision at UB. Transcribing all fifteen interviews I recorded via audio with permission from the respondents was another important step towards the analysis of the data collected. Patton (1999), as well as McBride and Schostak (2008), posited that data analysis was partly a matter of intuition and partly a matter of being systematic and methodical. They contended that qualitative data analysis is a creative process that depends on the analyst's creative insights and conceptual capability. However, beyond the analyst's creative insight there is also an explicitly systematic technical side of qualitative analysis. As cited in Tellis (1997), Yin (1994) stated that data analysis consists of examining, categorizing, tabulating, or recombining the evidence. Coding and developing categories and segments is the next major process in data analysis (McBride and Schostak, 2008).

While quantitative research and its statistical analysis follow formulas and rules, qualitative research analysis does not have such formulas and rules and there is no single best way of doing qualitative analysis (Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003). The analysis of case study is actually seen as one of the least developed aspects of the qualitative research methodologies (Tellis, 1997). Even though the analysis of case study is not yet well developed as Tellis (1997) and Basit (2003) observe, the researcher still has an obligation to bring order and understanding to data, and to be methodical in reporting sufficient details of data collection and the processes of data analysis (Patton, 1999; Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003). This requires creativity, discipline and a systematic approach (Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003). For this case study, I decided to use the “content analysis”, method of data analysis, as described by Trace (2001). I also chose to use manual analysis, which involves organising and labelling data by hand. I found manual analysis to be cost-effective since it does not require any additional resources. It is also seen as typically the best when the amount of data generated is manageable (CDC, 2009).

4.9 Qualitative Content Analysis as a Method of Data Analysis

Originally and traditionally, content analysis was developed as a quantitative method of data analysis, which emerged within the fields of sociology and mass communication or communication science, as a technique of converting qualitative data to quantitative data (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006; Stemler, 2001; Mayring, 2000). Through this technique researchers used standardised measurements to code, characterise and compare 'texts' and utilised the method mainly to translate narrative data into numbers or frequencies (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006). As a quantitative method, content analysis focused on the internal features of a text, and determined the presence of certain words, concepts, themes, phrases, characters, or sentences, in order to quantify this presence in an objective manner.

However, more recently, content analysis has emerged as a qualitative method of data analysis, whose approaches focus on analysing both the explicit, manifest content of a text, as well as interpretations of the 'latent content' of texts or content that can be interpreted or interpolated

from the text, even though it might not necessarily have been explicitly stated (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006). In congruence with this argument by Cohen and Crabtree (2006), Holsti (1969) cited in Stemler (2001) also sees qualitative content analysis broadly as a technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages. The method is strongly focused on categorization and data coding and is meant to describe the variety of responses, rather than their frequency (INLS, 2006; Mayring, 2000). Qualitative content analysis is seen as a data analysis technique in which many words of text are compressed into fewer content categories (Stemler, 2001; Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003). Text or narrative data can come in different forms and from a variety of sources. For instance, they can come from interview transcripts, discussions, newspaper headlines or articles, documents, log or diary notes, field notes, conversations (Mayring, 2000; Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003). The data for this study came mainly from institutional documents and transcripts from the fifteen interviews conducted.

Content analysis as a method of data analysis is generally applied to text-based data or narrative formats like interview transcripts and published literature. Interviews and review of literature are the data sources that I used for this case study, as already indicated. The objective of content analysis as a method of data analysis is to examine the data qualitatively in order to get at aspects of meaning (Trace, 2001) in order to derive a better understanding of the phenomenon. Content analysis “aims at capturing the essence” and “nature of the phenomenon (Neil, 2006). He observes a sense of total immersion in the text by the researcher, who pays particular attention to detail through deep reading and thinking about textual data, as well as sorting and categorising data to come up with themes. Geertz (2000) cited by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2000) in its article *“Interpretivist Research Strategies: Case study”* submits that the qualitative case study researcher tends to produce an account characterised by what he and Neil (2006) refer to as ‘thick description’. Content analysis needs reading and re-reading of the data (Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003; Trace, 2001), which ultimately results in the thick description (Neil, 2006). In this study, the data came from interview transcripts, as well as the documents that were studied.

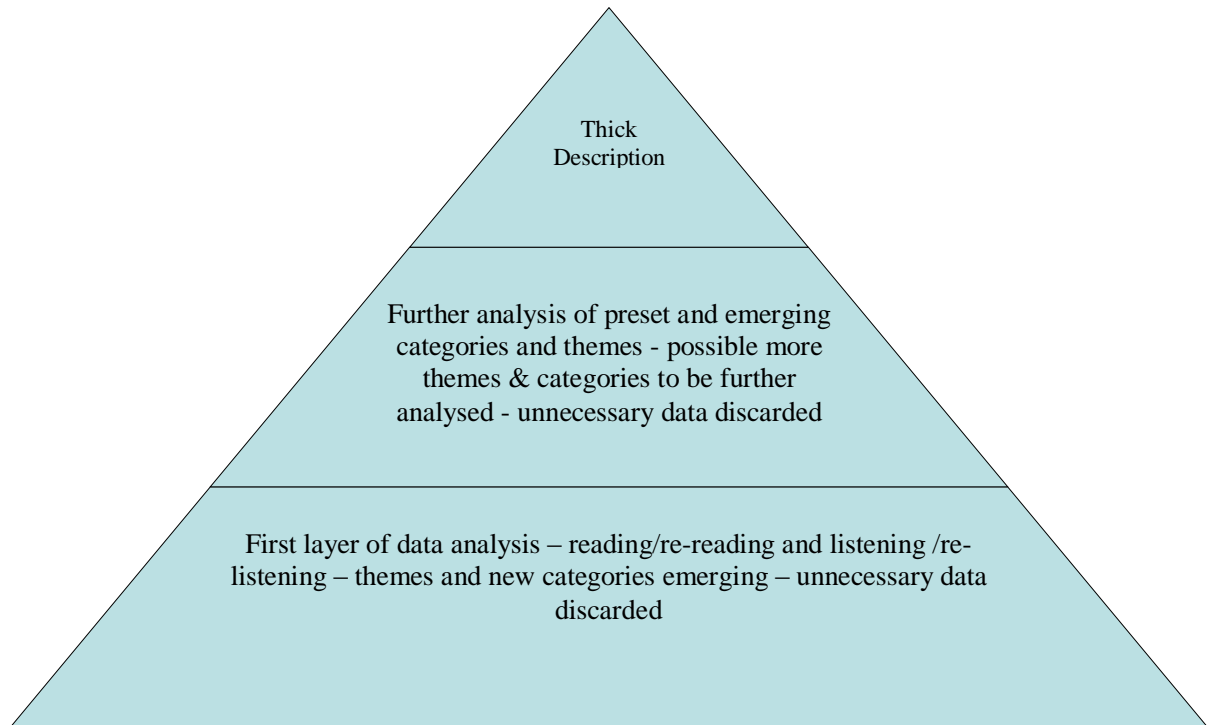


Figure 4.1 Data Analysis & Interpretation Pyramid

I start with a large amount of data, raw as it was collected from the sources. At the bottom of the pyramid (see Figure 4.1) is such large data, which is then analysed. In this study the analysis involves listening to the tapes further and continuing to read and re-read the data and to code them, using both preset and emergent categories or indexes, or codes as necessary, with more emphasis on emergent categories and themes. Emergent categories allow the researcher to continue to build new themes until no new categories or sub-themes emerge. Though it may be necessary to start with preset categories, it is advisable to mix these with emergent categories since preset categories tend to limit the coding and analysis process. The in-depth reading and re-reading will also result in determining limitations of the data, since not all data collected may be of value. That which turns out not be of value is discarded. It is necessary in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 to explain limitations of the data, as they emerge during the in-depth analysis and to determine the emerging level of analysis.

4.10 Conclusion

In this chapter I have explained what influenced me to adopt the qualitative approach for this study and my reasons for choosing the case study method instead of the other methods available in qualitative research. The chapter has indicated that I chose to use semi-structured interviews and review of documents as my data collection instruments to achieve verification and validation of the data. I also purposively selected my samples from three institutions which are concerned with higher education ODL in Botswana. The sample population also comprises people of various positions within their institutions. The selection of methods and the mixing of respondents and institutions are intended to provide some form of triangulation and also to promote verification and validation of data. My interpretivist/constructivist perspective has influenced me to adopt the content analysis method of analysing data whereupon I employ both preset and emergent categories of data as necessary. The literature reviewed has influenced my decision to assess the data within the principles of the equivalency theory which puts much emphasis on equivalent value of the learning experiences and their outcome, with regard to both ODL and on-campus face-to-face modes of education delivery.

When I analysed and interpreted the data in the next three chapters, I assessed how the UB dual mode system applied the concepts of the equivalency theory when expanding access to its programmes through both ODL and on-campus face-to-face provision.