

TRAINING AND LOCALISATION POLICY: A CASE STUDY OF SWAZILAND

BY

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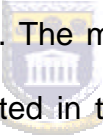
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ABSTRACT

This study covers the period 1966 to the present in Swaziland. This is two years before the country's independence in 1968. These were the terminal years before independence when all initiatives began towards localisation and training. The critical question of why it was necessary to localise is addressed which lays a foundation for the preceding chapters. Localisation marked a new era for African officers who had to be trained first in order for localisation to be more meaningful. These African officers were appointed to posts that were formerly held by British civil servants.

The Swazi Government had to intensify efforts to improve the educational system inherited from the British colonialists.  The main preoccupation of the British had been with law and order. This resulted in the neglect of secondary and higher education at the expense of the Swazi nationals. This explains why all the institutions of higher learning in Swaziland only came into being after independence.

Localisation was not a smooth process as there were obstacles to overcome. The Swaziland Government had to come up with solutions to overcome these obstacles.

The research report examines training and localisation both in the private and public sectors. The trend and pace in both sectors was studied by other

researchers over the years since independence to determine how the country's training and localisation policy was progressing.

The Brain Drain was also discussed in the text, including the impact it has had on both sectors, as well as alternatives that could be adopted to curb or stop this brain drain. Retention of trained personnel was discussed including the question of whether the two sectors were able to retain their professionals. The critical issue of the absence of legislation and the effects that it has had on the training and localisation policy in Swaziland was discussed in detail. The localisation policy's achievements and failures or weaknesses are weighed and lastly, the conclusion and recommendations as a way forward.

Methods used to collect data:



I used both primary and secondary sources to secure detailed background information on the training and localisation policy in Swaziland. These sources were mainly obtained from the Swaziland National Archives.

Interviews were also used because the researcher is able to gather first hand experience from those who have actively been involved in the training and localisation policy. I was able to gather a lot of information by probing my interviewees.

Questionnaires were also used because of the difficulties experienced when trying to secure an appointment for an interview with officials in the private sector.

Findings of the study:

From the mid nineties, there has been a regression in terms of the pace of localisation especially in the private sector. This is a result of many factors, one being that many doors have opened up for the locals since South Africa became independent in 1994. The pay structure within the civil service is low as compared to neighbouring countries such as South Africa, Lesotho and Botswana. Government continues to lose trained personnel because of its inability to retain personnel after training. The brain drain continues to be a serious problem facing the civil service.

In the private sector, the localisation process has been steadily growing over the years especially since the 90's onwards. Positions in Middle management and to some extent, Senior Management have been localised.

Conclusions:

Although the training and localisation policy has had its fair share of problems such as the absence of legislation, the brain drain, the inability to retain trained personnel amongst others, there have been major achievements made by the training and localisation policy. Amongst the achievements worth mentioning is the high level of training maintained by the Swaziland Government since independence. The Swaziland Government is committed to ensuring an adequate supply of suitably qualified personnel to staff the public and private sectors of the economy. The Government of Swaziland has trained a large

percentage of its population and continues to do so even after much donor funding dried up.

The drive for localisation especially in the private sector is growing and fast gaining momentum. Most of the budgets in private sector reflect that the commitment to train locals is there.



DECLARATION

I declare that this research report “Training and Localisation Policy: A Case Study of Swaziland”, is my work and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published or written by others, except where due acknowledgement is made in the text. This report is being submitted for the Master of Public Administration degree at the School of Government, University of the Western Cape. It has not been submitted to any other university, college or institution of higher learning, for the award of any certificate, degree or any other qualification.



Kholekile Favourite Mthethwa

October 2003

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work, first and foremost to the almighty God and the guidance He provided up to this point. Secondly, my greatest and enduring gratitude is to my loving husband Londumane, who not only gave me the moral support and devotion to complete this mission but also had to look after the children during my absence. He had to assume all my responsibilities and I love him for all the sacrifices he had to make.

Lastly, I would like to thank my two sons, Dingiswayo and Sifanelesandze for having to do without a mother for two years. I know that a home without a mother is never complete.

I love you both.



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I would like to thank everyone who assisted me in all possible ways to make my work a success. It is impossible to acknowledge by name all those who contributed to my research and can only express my deep appreciation and recognition that it is in many ways a joint effort.

I would however, like to name a few individuals whose support and assistance were invaluable. My initial acknowledgement is due to my supervisor, Dr. Maphunye, who encouraged me to the end.

Many thanks to all the government officials who took their time off their busy schedules and availed themselves for the interviews. One particular official is Mr. Dickson Mkhonta at the ministry of enterprise and employment. My gratitude also goes to the officials in the private sector for attending to my questionnaire.

It would be a mistake on my part not to mention the assistance given to me by the staff of the Swaziland National Archives. The archives librarian and archivists were always there when I needed them. I should mention the Secretary, Ivy Dlamini and Nomcebo Swali.

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THIS RESEARCH REPORT

ADB -	African Development Bank
CFTC –	Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation
DIVT –	Directorate of Industries and Vocational Training
ECA –	European Commission for Africa
ESAMI –	Eastern and Southern Agency for Management Institute
IDCA –	International Development Centre for Africa
IDM –	Institute of Development Management
ITB –	Industrial Training Board
MMC –	The Mananga Management Centre
PCU.	Primary Curriculum Unit 
PSMP –	Public Sector Management Programme
SADC –	Southern African Development Community
SCOT –	Swaziland College of Technology
SCU –	Secondary Curriculum Unit
SFE & CC –	Swaziland Federation of Employers and the Chamber of Commerce
SIDA –	Swedish International Development Agency
SIMPA –	Swaziland Institute for Management and Public Administration
SIPA –	Swaziland Investment Promotions Authority
SNC –	Swazi National Council
TLC –	Training and Localisation Council

- UBS – University of Botswana and Swaziland
- UBLS – University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland
- UNDP – United Nations Development Programme
- USAID- United States Agency for International Development
- VOCTIM – Vocational and Commercial Training Institute of Matsapha
- WHO – World Health Organization



DEFINITIONS OF MAJOR TERMS AND CONCEPTS USED

1. **Localisation** – full utilization of the indigenous personnel of Swaziland to the very best advantage of the country, but with full recognition of the contribution which the expatriate, with his/her present advantage of greater experience and wider training, could and would be asked to make.
2. **Training** – teaching a particular skill or type of behaviour through regular practice and instruction.
3. **Expatriate** – a person living and working outside their native country. In Swaziland the term expatriate replaced the term British Civil Servant in a new anti-colonial language.
4. **Understudy** – person who learns another role in order to be able to act in their absence or when the time comes to take over.
5. **Apprentice** – a person learning a trade from a skilled employer
6. **Indigenous** – originating or occurring naturally in a particular place, native.
7. **Local** – a local candidate means a person of whatever race seeking employment in the service who:
 - (i) Was born Swaziland; or
 - (ii) Has been accepted into the Swazi community by a process of “kukhonta” (This is allegiance. In this sense you pay allegiance to the King of Swaziland as you have khontaed. Supporting the government of Swaziland as you have been accepted as a Swazi) and

who can produce a certificate of the Ngwenyama-in-Council to that effect or;

- (iii) Is the child of a person defined in (i) and (ii) above and under the age of 21 years.

8. Policy – is a purposive course of action based on currently acceptable societal values, followed in dealing with a problem or matter of concern, and predicting the state of affairs, which would prevail when that purpose has been achieved. (Centre for development and Enterprise, 1995)

9. Private Sector – the part of the national economy not under direct state control.

10. Ngwenyama-in Council- When the King who is called the Ngwenyama (The 'Lion' the traditional title given to the Swazi king by his people) sits with his Council (normally, the Swaziland National Council) to deliberate on certain issues of national importance.



11. Legislative Council- consisting of 24 unofficial members of twelve that would represent Europeans and twelve Swazi.

12. Swazi National Council- a united body to advice the King and Queen Mother on matters of national importance. This was to deal with all matters regulated by Swazi law and custom. It was viewed by many as a 'cultural watchdog' of a parliament confronting new issues and passing new legislation. This is a traditional structure.

13. Secondee- a person who is an expert and is seconded to a place of work or country to impart his/her skills for a specified period.



1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of the study was to investigate why it was deemed necessary to train and localise the public and private sectors by the Swaziland government. The efforts began shortly before Swaziland attained independence in 1968. Many of the initiatives to localisation started in pre- colonial Swaziland in 1966 leading to independence.

The study also examined the drawbacks to training and localisation and how these were overcome. Swaziland inherited and was strongly dependent upon a strongly entrenched cadre of top-level public service and private administrators who were expatriates. The study will also examine how far Localisation has gone to date.

It is important to note that I have used Hilder Kuper's book extensively because she deals with training and localisation as well as education and its background in depth. Authors dealing with these topics on Swaziland are hard to come by. Most of the authors are apparently fascinated by the Monarchy and thus the vast information on this topic.

1.1 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

There have been quite a number of authors like Lungu, Youdi and Kiltinchliffe, Kirk-Greene and others who have delved on the topic of training and localisation, but their point of departure was that they were looking at it from different perspectives. In some countries such as Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland, it was called localisation (I will from time to time refer to these three countries as the BLS countries. These three countries share a common past because they were British protectorates). In the East and Southern African countries, it was called Africanization or Zambianization or Kenyanization, after the specific country's name. No matter what the

difference was in the name, in meaning it was the same. It was a concerted effort to “transform a colonial type civil service into a national one” (Lungu, 1980, pg. 88).

In the following pages, the researcher has endeavoured to examine the publications of others in relation to this study. According to some researchers, their work dates as far back as the 1940's. This is understandably so because most of the former British colonies began attaining independence in the 1950's such as Ghana, India and others. The majority of countries followed suite in the 1960's including Swaziland in 1968.

Tanzania attained independence in 1961 and according to Youdi and Kiltinchliffe (1985) only 1.7% of school- age children attended secondary education in 1963. Only 4.5% of the indigenous populations were wage-earners and only 0.1% of the indigenous people occupied managerial positions requiring high-level training and skill (Youdi and Kiltinchliffe, 1985, pg. 80).

One of the country's main objectives was to accomplish self- sufficiency in the area of manpower at all levels (there is insensitivity to gender issues by some authors as they keep using the term manpower. Understandably so, the book by Youdi and Kiltinchliffe was written in 1985 when gender was not such a “hot” issue as it is today). The Tanzanian Government realized that in order to accomplish this goal, both organizational and management skills had to be sharpened. This exercise entailed establishing the numbers involved at each level of education or skill training, thus personnel surveys

had to be undertaken to form a foundation for making forecasts. A similarity to Swaziland exists here in that there was also a need for this country to take stock of available personnel i.e. professional, technical, and administrative “to carry out the development required for national independence” (Kuper, 1978, pg. 309). A report was compiled and completed in September 1969 by Chief J.O. Udoji from Nigeria. He was brought in to advise on localisation of government posts. The report “revealed the extent to which key positions were still held by expatriates, and made far-reaching recommendations for training and reorganizing the entire civil service” (Udoji, 1969, pg. 3).

Personnel Surveys were carried out in Swaziland during the period 1969-1974. This was carried out in order to estimate educational and training requirements. Estimates of future personnel requirements were to take into account four factors: existing vacancies, wastage, localization and increases in the number of posts. Much of this information was already available but it was necessary to obtain estimates of specific established posts for which increased numbers of staff would be required in the period 1969-74, in the light of the Post Independence Development Plan and the Udoji Report. According to a memorandum from the Economic Advisor to Cabinet, the following factors were to be taken into account so that the estimates would be as reliable as possible:

- a) Increases in posts, particularly in the professional and technical fields, to enable projects outlined in the Post Independence Development Plan to be implemented.

- b) Increases in posts related to projected increases in the population, for example in the fields of health, education, social welfare, etc.
- c) The recommendations in the Udoji Report that attempts should be made to reduce the size of the civil service.
- d) Budgetary pressures which may act as a brake on expansion of the civil service.

The Udoji Survey, which preceded this survey, did not take into account details of occupations (mainly in the clerical and lower technical grades), which were considered in the latter survey (Swaziland National Archives, Manpower Survey, DPM 170, 1971).

In Tanzania, according to the Tobias Report produced in 1967 (Youdi and Kiltinchliffe, 1985, pg.81) concerning the survey of high- level personnel requirements and resources in this country, there was an indication that of the 9,300 persons in all high- level occupations, less than half were Africans. Among the professional and technical staff, numbering 3,100 only 1,300 were Africans, and 1,100 of these were in teaching and health care. According to predictions made at the time, based on available statistics, in order for meaningful Africanization to take place, there would be a need for 4,300 workers over five years. This meant that more than 8,000 additional highly trained professional, technical, executive and craft workers were needed. The situation was further compounded by the fact that these new requirements were mostly in those occupations where shortages were acute and in those occupations demanding the highest investment in training and education.

A similar situation in Swaziland existed in that forecasts were undertaken as in Tanzania. According to a Country Report on Swaziland by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa Personnel and Training Section, the importance of planning, primarily in the forecasts of personnel requirements and their translation into training programmes, was given priority. The basic problem faced by Swaziland in its personnel development programme was the lack of quantification of future personnel requirements. Inventories of the current personnel situation existing in 1969 covered little of the future requirements so necessary for advanced planning.

In Tanzania, Youdi and Kiltinchliffe (1985, pg. 82) viewed the problem of trained personnel, as a constraint in as far as it related to the modern productive sector. The forecasts brought to light the need to get a pool of indigenous personnel, adequately educated and trained to take over managerial positions held by expatriates especially in the public service. Seeing that this was the objective, personnel forecasts narrowed their scope to high- and middle- level personnel to fill positions previously held by expatriates and those that might be created according to new needs. Nearly all newly independent countries adopted this approach in their personnel forecasts including Swaziland. “ The main thrust for manpower forecasting in Tanzania and other countries in Southern and Eastern Africa was to ascertain the type of programmes that could be instituted or expanded in the education and training field and the relevant policies necessary in this sector to develop the necessary personnel resources” (Youdi and Kiltinchliffe,

1985, pg. 83). It stands to reason therefore, that educational and training programmes in these countries were a result of, and closely associated to personnel forecasts.

The major policy in education was to place great emphasis on secondary and higher education. In all former British colonies this problem existed. Secondary and high school education had been neglected and this had adverse effects on these countries when they embarked on the policy of Africanization. "Due to this policy, enrolment in secondary education in the first decade of independence in Tanzania expanded more than three-fold from 12,897 in 1961 to 41,182 in 1970" (Youdi and Kiltinchliffe, 1985, pg. 181).

There were critical areas that were lacking as identified by the human resource forecasts such as skills in engineering, medical, agriculture etc. this was the case even in Swaziland. Replacing foreign skills with local skills in the economy has been a prime objective of the personnel development programmes. A great number of foreign experts remained in the economy after this policy was put in place. Justifications had to be made as to their needs and their numbers. The Tobias study on Tanzania revealed that firstly, quite a number of these foreign experts occupied advisory roles, which were deemed still necessary at the time. Secondly, a factor that was reassuring was that the number of foreign experts was not as large as envisaged. Thirdly, those who occupied established posts were not necessarily replaceable because of their experience, which was in demand for the exchange of knowledge with the indigenous experts e.g. medical doctors. Another explanation for the persistence of foreign experts was that

they were still needed because personnel programmes had failed to produce the required human resources in adequate numbers e.g. in occupations such as accounting, auditing, teaching and scientific expertise.

There is a similarity in Swaziland to that of Tanzania in that according to the Udoji Report in 1969 all key positions were still in the hands of expatriates (Udoji, 1969, pg. 3). No local facilities existed for training professionals such as engineers, medical doctors, etc. In the late 1970's, the Swaziland government's main concern was that secondary education did not offer much science subjects to enable students to qualify for training in more specialized fields such as medicine.

The Tobias study revealed that there was a need to review policy objectives concerning the utilization of foreign skills in the economy, and to ascertain whether more efforts should be made to produce the appropriate human resource to replace the majority of these. Another consideration would be whether it was necessary to retain some proportion of foreign skills to enhance the exchange of experiences and knowledge, according to Youdi and Kiltinchliffe (1985, pg. 182).

According to Kirk- Greene (1974) "Africanization was seen as a chance for African bureaucrats to share with their fellow- countrymen how they perceived problems of African administration, this had no bearing on whether it was inherited or had been created, and this included their viewpoints on how these inherent problems may be addressed" (Kirk-

Greene, 1974, pg. 264). In other words Africanization can be viewed as an attempt to decolonize.

Africanization saw the first generation of Africa's senior administrators. Most of these civil servants "had direct experience of working as senior service colleagues with expatriate officers in an unambiguously colonial civil service" (Kirk- Greene, 1974, pg. 264). These African administrators served in a senior service capacity and in many cases in a junior service capacity as well. Those who worked in a junior service capacity did so with British officers for quite a number of years before independence.

According to Kirk- Greene, these African administrators can be categorized into two:



Pioneers- "They were all men appointed to senior service rank in the local civil service, in the hey day of colonial administration, before constitutional change had envisaged anything like a definite date for self- government, and before Africanization had become a goal of any political reality or a term of any training significance." (Kirk- Greene, 1974, Ibid). These consisted of the professions of medicine, law and teaching who worked as colleagues with expatriate officers.

Old Guard- these were senior African administrators who had a wealth of experience as compared to the Pioneers. This group mainly comprised Permanent Secretaries, Ambassadors, Chairmen of Standing Committees or Commissions and public servants of equal rank.

Firstly, the Second Generation of African administrators were the first group of officers to be “appointed to a deliberately Africanizing Administrative Service” (Ibid). This was the period in Africa between 1957 and 1965 and in some countries up to 1968.

Secondly, most of these Africans were trained as District Officers/Commissioners, and this was a deliberate act. One thing that is worth noting is that to date these posts have been retained in most of these post-colonial African countries that were ruled by the British. Some of these posts such as court interpreters are no longer needed. The training here was not of a high level and mainly consisted of a specific nature, crash- programmes etc. Their successor generations have been taught public administration to degree level at the various universities in Africa. One can rightfully say that they have been educated rather than trained before appointment as Kirk-Greene puts it.

Thirdly, they can be viewed as the last group of African administrators to work with the gradually declining cadre of expatriate District Commissioners/Officers as colleagues. Kirk-Greene calls this Second Generation, the Young Guard.

The Third Generation of African administrators can be distinguished from the other two generations by the fact that they are younger, entry point is graduate level, they have hardly had any previous in-service experience. They also have had no experience of working with the cadre of colonial administrators. They are mainly found in the middle and upper ranks of the

civil service where they exude a lot of influence. “Intellectually, they are an administrative force just as much as the far fewer but opportunely placed Pioneers were” (Kirk- Greene, 1974, pg. 266).

We have a similar case in Swaziland whereby graduates who are fresh from university join the civil service. Most of them have degrees in administration, commerce etc. They have no knowledge of what it was like working with British colonial administrators. They are viewed by the old administrators who have been promoted to upper scales through experience as threats to their positions.

Shortly after independence, the post- colonial African states faced an acute shortage of trained and experienced indigenous personnel. The Anglophone countries were worse off in comparison with the Francophone countries. This can be attributed to “the deliberate withholding of Secondary education until the 1940’s, and of locally based higher education throughout the colonial period” (Tordoff, 1984, pg. 133). Tordoff further states that in some countries such as Zambia, another contributing factor was that during the colonial period, even junior whites such as typists, road building, mechanics etc. monopolized posts. Most of these countries lacked technicians when entering independence (Tordoff, 1984, Ibid).

1.2 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

The most common feature of the colonial government in Swaziland was the dominant presence of British expatriates both in the public and private sectors. The order of preference was European first and Swazis last. This meant that the Europeans were better trained as opposed to the Swazis. The British colonial

government had neglected secondary education to the disadvantage of the Swazis when the training and localisation initiatives started and were put into place. The British expatriates monopolized even junior posts. As a result of this negligence, the educational system in Swaziland was still at its rudimentary stages by 1968, at the time of independence.

Therefore, the main problem to be studied in this research was the dominant presence of British expatriates both in the public and private sectors. The inequality of educational opportunities afforded to the Europeans put the locals at a disadvantage, and led to Europeans being better trained and able to assume higher positions within the government structure.

1.3 GUIDING ASSUMPTIONS

1. The negligence of the educational system for the locals by the British colonial government impacted negatively on the efforts to put in place the training and localisation policy in post- colonial Swaziland.
2. There was resistance to the training and localisation policy especially by the expatriates who felt threatened.
3. Currently, staff complement is inadequate to cover the entire country i.e. inspections and visits concerned with training and localisation.
4. The brain drain has had a crippling effect on the training and localisation policy, and there are serious current problems on retaining trained personnel.
5. There are positive attributes to the training and localisation policy that are evident today.

1.4 THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

These were:

- 1.To examine the training and localisation policy in Swaziland and its significance to the locals.
2. To examine the training process and personnel shortages.
3. To examine why there was a need for Swaziland to embark on localisation.
- 4.To examine the obstacles and drawbacks to training and localisation in Swaziland.
- 5.To assess the achievements made to date and the ministry responsible for this policy.
6. To make recommendations as a way forward.



1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

My research is based on a case study on Swaziland relating to the training and localisation policy. I used mainly primary sources from the Swaziland National Archives. These sources included government files, reports, newspapers, gazettes etc. Secondary sources were also consulted on this topic. Interviews were used, focusing my attention on officials from the creating Ministries (ministries that give birth to the file) and departments such as the Deputy Prime Minister's Office, Ministry of Public Service and Information, and the Ministry of Enterprise and Employment, Ministry of Natural Resources Land use and Energy and Immigration department under the Ministry of Home Affairs. The two ministries i.e. Ministries of Public Service and Information and the Ministry of Enterprise and Employment are very important because that is where the policy is currently administered.

Officers from the two ministries were interviewed. I also interviewed senior personnel members from the private sector i.e. various companies, as well as sending out questionnaires to officials in the private sectors. Companies that were sent questionnaires were Ubombo Sugar Company, Swazi MTN, Sappi Usuthu, Swaziland Federation of Employers and the Chamber of Commerce.

The total number of interviews was eight and I sent out altogether ten questionnaires.

Why the Interview Method?

I chose interviews (See Interview Schedule on p.127) because the method was useful in securing important information. One is able to guide the interviewee when they begin to digress to ascertain relevant information. It is an important method to gather first hand experience of those who have actively participated in the process of administration; e.g. when interviewing the Senior Localisation Officer, he was able to give tangible examples when making a point. He had the experience and knew what he was talking about. The public officials really opened up and were willing to back up what they said with documented evidence.

The questionnaires were a last minute resort because it proved difficult to secure appointments for interviews with officials in the private sector. They were always out in meetings and were hard to reach. The disadvantage with this method was that some of the responses were inadequate and much time was wasted in that I had to go back to the respondents for further clarifications and additions.

The questionnaires were structured and the interviews were semi-structured.

Data Collection:

In selecting companies to be interviewed, I considered factors such as how long the company had been in existence i.e. security and stability of the company. This was done so as to avoid the fly- by- night or unregistered companies.

In terms of the public sector, consideration was given to mainly the Ministries dealing with training and localisation. These were relevant to this qualitative study.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of the study is that there is great concern throughout the continent to establish an African civil service, which will be relevant to local development needs. The former British colonialists did not concern themselves with local development and the issue of patriotism was non-existent. Their mentality was that they owed their allegiance to England and were civil servants of the British Queen. All-important decisions were made in Britain concerning Swaziland. In post -colonial Swaziland, we see a shift in the way things are done at government level and there is a concerted effort to involve the locals as they are in a better position to understand the political aspirations of the now independent country of Swaziland. Training plays a critical role in preparing the Swazi people and strengthening the professional attributes of the civil service.

The Swazi researchers might benefit from my research especially the Swaziland government, the private sector and the academic world.

1.7 TEN KEY WORDS USED IN THE RESEARCH

1. Localisation – Full utilization of the indigenous personnel of Swaziland to the very best advantage of the country but with full recognition of the contributions which the expatriate, with his/ her present advantage of greater experience and wider training, could and would be asked to make.
2. Training – Teaching a particular skill or type of behaviour through regular practice and instruction.
3. Expatriate – A person living outside their native country.
4. Under Study – A person who learns another role in order to be able to act in their absence. Study a role as an under study in order to take over when the time comes.
5. Apprentice – A person learning a trade from a skilled employer.
6. Indigenous – Originating or occurring naturally in a particular place, native.
7. Local – A local candidate means a person of whatever race seeking employment in the service who-

- (i) was born in Swaziland; or
- (ii) has been accepted into the Swazi community by a process of “kukhonta”(This is allegiance. In this sense, you pay allegiance to the King of Swaziland as you have khontaed) and who can produce a certificate of the Ngwenyama-in-Council (Ngwenyama is the Lion;

traditional title for the Swazi king when he sits with his council) to that effect or

- (iii) is the child of a person defined in (i) and (ii) above and under the age of 21 years.

8. Policy – Policy is a purposive course of action based on currently acceptable societal values, followed in dealing with a problem or matter of concern, and predicting the state of affairs, which would prevail when that purpose has been achieved. (Centre for Development and Enterprise, 1995)

9. Public Sector – The part of an economy that is controlled by the State

10. Private Sector – The part of the national economy not under direct State Control.



1.8 OUTLINE OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter 1

Chapter one provides an introduction and background to the study, problem statement, literature review, and objectives of the study, guiding assumptions of the study, significance of the study and lastly, the research methodology.

Chapter 2

The Historical Background of Swaziland

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will attempt to address the historical overview of Swaziland. Attention will focus on Swaziland under British rule, issues leading to training

and localisation of the Swaziland Civil Service. Focus will particularly deal in-depth with the question of why there was a need to localize. Lastly, the drawbacks to localization will be looked at as well as the remedies to these drawbacks.

2.2 General information on Swaziland

The general information will include the geographical location of Swaziland, size, natural features, political setup, economy, government, industry and commerce, mining and agriculture.

2.3 A Brief Historical Background on Swaziland under colonial rule

This part will briefly touch on Swaziland under colonial rule.



2.4 History of Localisation in the Swaziland Civil Service

This section deals with localisation at its inception towards the late sixties and what led to this. The various initiatives that were taken will be discussed.

2.5 Why the Need to Localise?

The discussion will be centred on the issue of why there was a need to localize. There were a number of reasons behind this move and this section will bring this to light.

2.6 Drawbacks to Localisation

The problems will be examined. Localisation impacted negatively on some professions, although it was intended for a good purpose. Other problems cropped up affecting localisation will also be discussed.

2.7 Efforts made to solve localisation problems

This section deals with initiatives to localise such as training, bonding system and a brief discussion on the current Training and Localisation Policy.

2.8 Summary

Chapter 3

Education and Training in Swaziland during British rule and Post-Independence training initiatives

3.1 Introduction

The background provided in this chapter will prove to be quite crucial as it laid the foundation of the African civil service and determined the loopholes created by the British rule as a consequence of the inadequate education system that existed at the time. Swaziland made an effort to address these problems. This chapter will provide a better understanding of how it became important for Swaziland to address the education and training issues as a way forward to localisation. The existing Training Policy will be discussed briefly.

3.2 Background to the Educational System During British Colonial Rule

The background provided in this chapter will prove to be quite crucial as it laid the foundation of the civil service and determined the loopholes created by the British rule and how Swaziland was going to address these. This is to provide a better understanding of how it became important for Swaziland to address the education and training issue as a way forward to localisation.

3.3 Loopholes Created by the British through inadequate educational opportunities for the local Swazis

This section examines the educational inequalities created by the British between the locals and the Europeans. The inadequate educational opportunities for the locals were to have a negative effect on the African Civil Service.

3.4 Efforts Made to Address British Education System and problems encountered

Various initiatives were made to correct the weaknesses of the educational system that had been left behind by the British. Local training needs were addressed, paving the way for the localisation process to be put in place.



3.5 Background on Higher Education in Swaziland

This section provides a background on higher education in the country. The discussion focuses on the various institutions of higher learning established by the government after independence and the services provided by each. Amongst these institutions are the University of Botswana and Swaziland, Swaziland College of Technology, Vocational and Commercial Training Institute Matsapha and lastly, Personnel Development.

3.6 A Brief Discussion of the current Training Policy in Swaziland

The existing training policy is discussed.

3.7 Summary

Chapter 4

Training and Localisation in the Private Sector

4.1 Introduction

The focus in this chapter will be on the Commissions and Councils that were put in place in order to initiate the localisation process. The problems encountered by these two as well as solutions will be looked at. Background information will be provided pertaining to the Training and Localisation Council and the Private Sector Localisation Committee. Other issues discussed in this section are coordination between government and the private sector, the pace of localisation in the private sector on training and localisation, Draft Human Resource Planning and Development Bill 2003 and lastly, private sector progress in training and localisation.



Chapter 5

Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1.1 Introduction

The achievements made by the training and localisation policy to date will be focused on. A conclusion will be arrived at as well as recommendations as a way forward. Amongst other issues to be discussed in this chapter will be an analysis of the education and training during the colonial period and the prevailing situation in both sectors, achievements made by the training and localisation policy and lastly recommendations and the summary.

CHAPTER TWO

The Historical Background of Swaziland

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the historical overview of Swaziland. Attention will focus on Swaziland under British rule, specifically on issues leading to training and localisation of the Swaziland Civil service. Focus will particularly deal in -depth with the question of why there was a need to localise. Lastly, the drawbacks faced by Swaziland as well as the solutions will be addressed.

2.2 General Information on Swaziland

The Swazi people are descendants of the Nguni who migrated from Central Africa several hundred years ago. They moved down the east coast of Africa and settled under the leadership of Dlamini III. Under Ngwane III, the first leader to settle in what would become Swaziland, the descendants of this group saw expansion to the west and north, with his grandson, Sobhuza II, continuing this policy of expansion and engendering the Swazi nation.

In the 1880,s, foreign settlers secured many valuable commercial and agricultural concessions while the British and the then Transvaal governments demarcated the territory between them. Swaziland became a protectorate attached to the Transvaal when British colonial rule was established in 1903 and then a separate High Commission Territory under colonial administration. Under the leadership of Sobhuza II, the country became independent in 1968.

In 1986, King Mswati III ascended to the throne.

2.2.1 Geographic Location

Swaziland is situated between South Africa on the north, west and south and Mozambique border on the east. Maputo is less than 160 kilometres away and Johannesburg is approximately 370 kilometres away.

2.2.2 Political Set-up

As a dual monarchy, the king rules in conjunction with the queen mother (who may be the king's actual mother or, on her demise, a senior wife). Executive power is vested in the king who rules in consultation with the cabinet (headed by a prime minister), the bicameral parliament and the Swazi National Council, known as Libandla (comprising the traditional side). The legal system operates also on a dual basis i.e. constitutional courts interpret and administer modified Roman-Dutch law, and is paralleled by Swazi national courts administering Swazi law and custom.

2.2.3 Economy

- Being extremely vulnerable to what happens in the global state of affairs, Swaziland's small, open and export-driven economy has seen both direct and indirect impacts on growth prospects. The drop in commodity prices and the weakening of currency did not bode well for the kingdom, with a reduced rate of net inflows in foreign direct investment aggravating the already-serious unemployment situation. Unfavourable weather conditions and an increasing inflation rate have compounded the situation.

2.2.4 Government

- The Government of the Kingdom of Swaziland has embarked on a number of activities to address the issues of sustainable development and economic growth. A number of legislative bills, initiatives, policies and programmes covering a range of vital areas in the interests of the whole nation are currently being tabled in parliament. Ministries are attempting to ensure prudent expenditure management to improve the economic situation. For 2002/2003, the budget allocation of resources is specifically focused on key priority areas:
- Employment
- Poverty alleviation
- The fight against the HIV/Aids scourge



2.3 A Brief Historical Background of Swaziland under Colonial Rule

Swaziland was a British Protectorate until the 1960's when according to Kuper; efforts were made to form an interim Legislative Council (drawn from members of the Swazi National Council and the European Advisory Council). The British entrusted the Council with the responsibility of writing a constitution in preparation for the granting of independence in 1968. The British's main preoccupation was with law and order. The education of the Swazis was neglected by the British administration. (Kuper, 1978, Pg.225).

2.4 History of Localisation in the Swaziland Civil Service

The Swaziland government only contemplated localisation in the early nineteen sixties. This was due to the pressure applied to Swaziland by the colonial office for reports on measures taken or projected in building up a

local civil service. The colonial office was also under pressure from inside and outside the British parliament, which meant that steps had to be taken to kick-start the process of localisation. The colonial office recognised and accepted the importance of building up a local civil service according to Kuper. This marked a new era for African officers who were freely appointed to posts that were formerly held by Europeans, so that by the middle of 1965, there were 65 African officers in such posts. (Kuper, 1978, Pg. 282).

In order to accelerate the pace of localisation, a number of steps were taken with regards to appointments and the provision of training facilities. One was to appoint a Public Service Commission on which there were two Swazi members according to a High Commission's Notice No. 34 of 1963 and was (and still is) required by law to give precedence to local candidates when considering applications for first appointment. The relevant section, No. 24(1) of High Commission's Notice No. 34 of 1963, states-"In making recommendations for appointments to the service, the Commission shall be given to the appointment of a candidate other than a local candidate unless and until, after a review of the claims of all local candidates who have applied, the Commission is satisfied that no qualified and suitable local candidate is available. Where no suitable local candidate is available, the Commission shall advise whether a non-local shall fill the office on contract terms. In giving its advice, the Commission shall have regard to the information available as to the probability of further vacancies occurring in the same grade of office, and to the need to attract the best available candidate" (Luke Report, 1966, Pg. 1-2).

In November 1965, Mr. T.C. Luke was appointed by the Swaziland Government to head a Localisation Commission. The Commission came out with long-term and short-term recommendations. The long-term recommendations were concerned with the improvement of the educational system and the short-term recommendations were referred to urgent measures that would have to be taken to transform the civil service from a colonial to an indigenous service.

However, none of these recommendations were adopted and implemented. Why the recommendations were never implemented is not stated in the files. The result was that on the eve of independence, most of the controlling posts in the civil service were still held by expatriate officers (Luke report, 1965, Pg. 6).



Some of the recommendations were as follows:

1. The practice of employing an expatriate in charge of training would have to stop for political reasons. Training was meant to lead to localisation and some expatriates felt threatened by this policy because it entailed job loss on their part.
2. There was a recommendation that tests for promotion should be established. If government required officers to pass such tests, detailed syllabi should be prepared and made available to trainees and government should make positive efforts to prepare officers to pass the tests (Swaziland National Archives, Localisation Commission Recommendations, 1966, Pg. 2-3).

3. The need for local stenographers to be trained. The absence of local stenographers was attributed to the poor standard of English and general education made training difficult.
4. Training for typists should normally be given on a day release or evening basis. Although this would mean that training would take longer, it was possible that the product would be better because trainees would have more time in which to absorb instruction. A high failure rate in the present course might be attributed to lack this” (Localisation Commission Recommendations, 1966, pg.9).
5. Recommended the appointment of an Advisory Committee on Civil Service Training to improve the machinery of training.

According to Kuper, the British considered that they had at last introduced machinery essential for efficient and enlightened administration; they did not question their right or, on the whole, their ability, to control its direction. “Though Indirect Rule was originally formulated to develop African political institutions, in countries with white settler populations such as Swaziland, or Kenya, parallelism or dualism seemed the wisest course to the British with strict vigilance at all intersections. If the possibility of independence had been suggested, it would have been dismissed as absurd; it is unlikely that the Swazis themselves envisaged that within Sobhuza’s lifetime he would rule not only their own affairs but those of the settlers, and with their support” (Kuper, 1978, Pg.180).

The transfer of senior expatriate officials, particularly Resident Commissioners and government Secretaries, from one colony to the other

contrasted with the traditional Swazi system of permanent and at times hereditary appointment to high office. Swazis found it difficult to comprehend why senior officials in the civil service had to be frequently moved around.

There was a feeling that the British tended to treat all British colonies, more especially the three High Commission Territories (Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland) as identical, regardless of their difference in history and problems. "Men conversant with one territory were not necessarily able to deal with situations in others" (Kuper, 1978, Pg. 181).

In September 1968, Swaziland became independent and according to Udoji one of the conditions for her independence that was laid down by the British government was the acceptance of compensation and retirement benefit schemes for her expatriate officers who were going to be affected by the localisation policy to be implemented. "In order, however, to remove the uncertainty in the minds of expatriate officers about their future in the service, a review of the position and tenure of office of every expatriate in the service was conducted by a select committee" (Udoji, 1969, Pg. 2). According to the report, 347 contract officers received new contracts by the end of the review that corresponded with the length of time the services of each were required.

It was clear in everybody's mind that the localisation policy had to take a more aggressive stand in order to achieve its aims. The policy was published in ministerial statements and government circulars. The training and localisation policy fell under the Department of establishment and Training. It is stated in the policy that opportunities are to be given to locals to take over positions both in the private and public sectors. This policy

obliges the department to localise all posts in the country so long as local personnel is available.

2.5 Why The Need To localise?

The aim of government's localisation policy was to increase the proportion of Swazis in the public service, especially in senior posts, and to ensure that whenever possible preferences would be given to a Swazi candidate in filling vacancies by direct entry. "This was seen as a chance for the African bureaucrats to share with their fellow countrymen how they perceived problems of African administration, this had no bearing on whether it was inherited or had been created, and this included their viewpoints on how these inherent problems may be addressed" (Kirk-Greene, 1974, Pg. 263).



Localisation entailed replacing British expatriate civil servants by Swazi nationals. This was predominantly emphasized in the years of independence when colonial officers dominated most upper-level civil service posts. This process of Africanization entailed more than just replacing white faces in transforming the public service into an African one. "The aim was to realize the ideals and aspirations of post-independence governments"(Lungu, 1980, Pg. 88).

Africanization by definition was construed as "a process of transforming a colonial type civil service into a national one. In addition to changes in citizenship and perhaps the race of personnel, the process was also envisaged to include training and development of the public service and a change in the spirit of service in accordance with the policies of new governments" (Ibid).

Adu (who has also written on the same topic in Lungu's article) argues that localisation was undertaken for political, economic, socio-cultural and security reasons. Politically, attaining independence would have to be equated with an African administration for reasons of nationalistic honour, pride and legitimacy (Ibid).

The political struggle to gain independence from colonialists can be viewed as an expression of the wish of the Swazi people to manage and be in control of their own affairs. It was also an expression of the wish to build a more responsible and answerable public service, more embracing in terms of national constituency that was a direct opposite of the colonial civil service whose scope was narrow. The assumption was that a national citizen would feel more obliged to address the concerns of the local population. With the British expatriate, it was a different scenario in the sense that they were sent by the British government. They therefore had no sense of obligation to the nationals and paid allegiance to the Queen in England.

Economically, there was a need to localise because the British expatriates were a drain on the economy of Swaziland. Expatriate personnel consisted of old British colonial officials who were often very skilled and enjoyed high salaries. There were cases where the British expatriates possessed similar educational qualifications with nationals, but they (expatriates) received higher salaries with added benefits such as inducement allowances, settling-in allowances, children's allowances, loan facilities, educational allowances, specialist medical attention fund, medical treatment, widows and orphans

pension fund etc. These were privileges that the locals could not benefit from.

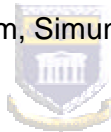
Because of the high salaries by expatriate personnel, it becomes a drain on African exchange reserves. "The presence of expatriate personnel also acts as a cost-push factor in that Africans with comparable qualifications demand for equal salaries and fringe benefits" (Lungu, 1980, Pg. 89).

King Sobhuza II was greatly concerned "with the tensions set up through the greater rewards, financial and social, accorded to civil servants employed by the British compared with the permanent local officials of the S.N.C. The contrast was physically visible in the two local centres Mbabane (the capital city of Swaziland) which had grown into a modern town with large comfortable homes for civil servants and all amenities; and Lobamba (this town is regarded as the ritual centre because of the various traditional activities that take place there as well as the rituals), where the men of the nation (who were well known to the Swazis but not to the British expatriates) had smaller, inferior quarters" (Kuper, 1978.pgs.282-283). The expatriates were regarded as the financially advantaged in terms of financial gains and benefits as opposed to the locals.

A memorandum in 1971 written by an Acting Permanent Secretary responding to minutes of a meeting on personnel planning reads as follows: "The Minister cited an example of an expatriate officer who came and adopted an attitude that bars the advancement of the indigenous people in employment circles. But you find that when another expatriate comes looking for a job, no matter how ignorant or uneducated he may be, he will

find a post and his salary will be more than that of a local man with the proper qualifications” (Swaziland National Archives, Manpower Survey File, DPM 171, folio# 120, 1971).

Economic concerns go beyond those of personnel costs to embrace the promotion of national development such as the infrastructures. “In the colonial era, the civil service was primarily concerned with the maintenance of law and order, the collection of taxes, the provision of modest social services and small scale public projects” (Ibid). After independence, the Swazi government concerned itself with projects aimed at economic development and wide social service programmes with the intent of improving the welfare of the Swazis. These would include amongst others the Luphohlo Dam, Maguga Dam, Simunye Sugar etc.



Socio-cultural concerns became prevalent because the colonial civil service was not in touch with the Swazi society that they served. Some of our Swazi traditions that we hold dear to us were seen as barbaric e.g. Incwala, which is an annual traditional event which is revered by the Swazis. It is an event when the nation gathers at the cattle byre in Lobamba to sing and dance to sacred songs. Incwala is regarded as a national prayer to thank God for the rain and the first fruits of the season. Also, it is believed that the leaders are fortified by mystic powers during this time. In one ritual, young men use their bare hands to slaughter a bull. “By 1921, British rule appeared sufficiently entrenched for its officials to view the Incwala as “a pageant” that did not threaten their supremacy nor challenge their legitimacy” (Kuper, 1978, Pg. 66).

Another custom practised by the Swazis is the Lusekwane. This is an event involving the male youths to bring in branches of lusekwane. Lusekwane is a magical tree. "The branches are used to cover the sanctuary in which the king is ritually reborn. If a boy had secretly violated the code of purity and, or slept with a married woman, the leaves of his branch of the lusekwane would wilt and he would be disgraced, beaten, ostracised and his conduct judged less an ordinary offence than a defilement of the nation" (Ibid).

The culture of the expatriate was often filled with racial prejudices. Post independent Swaziland wanted to make the civil servant more aware of the socio-cultural setting. "African officials were expected to know and understand local psychology and attitudes, predominantly in the rural areas" (Lungu, 1980, Pg. 89).



National security was a final concern. Sensitive ministries and departments such as the Swaziland Police Department, the Swaziland Defence Force, The Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Intelligence Units needed loyal and patriotic personnel to serve the government. At times it was difficult to trust foreign officials on issues that were deemed sensitive and highly secret e.g. the issue of concessions in Swaziland. At times the parent country might have conflicting views and interests. It became important and critical that nationals staff these ministries and departments, thus Africanization became a matter of national security and of utmost importance.

Appointments, promotions and transfers in the senior grades were effected in London by the colonial office. Middle and lower grades of the civil service

were staffed locally within the colonies but preferences were given to European personnel to the disadvantage of the few qualifying Swazis at the time. This was characteristically the colonial civil service. When a Swazi was well qualified, he or she was totally excluded from senior grades. "Until the last years of British colonial rule, Africans mainly staffed the lower grades. They were confined to clerical and executive positions. Localisation sought to change the situation to include Africans in the merit principle at all levels in the public service" (Kuper, 1978, Pg. 280).

It was during the build up towards independence "that localisation became a crucially controversial issue, a struggle between Swazis and other Africans" (Ibid). The British were sympathetic with the ambitions of the Swazis to take control of the administrative process of government "but argued that until the supply of suitably qualified local officers could be increased, it would be necessary to look for expatriates both within the civil service and from outside Swaziland" (Ibid). However, the need to build up a local civil service was acknowledged by the colonial office in the early 60's and (as stated earlier) by 1965, sixty-five posts formerly in the hands of whites were now occupied by Africans (Ibid).

Another factor that one could say precipitated the need to localise was that at times the appointment of British officials who were appointed by the British government was in theory based on one's experience and seniority. Nepotism was abhorred and dismissed as irrelevant. "This conflict in views became more obvious and critical during the period of the Legislative Council and was accentuated by the fact that the government interpreted

localisation as Africanization and did not distinguish between Swazi and non-Swazi Africans”(Kuper, 1978, Pg. 282). A lot of non-Swazis, who mainly hailed from South Africa, were among those who were recipients of scholarships and promotions. This did not go down well with the local population.

“At independence there were insistent demands by politicians and trade unionists that the public service should be Africanized without delay” (Tordoff, 1984, Pg. 133). There was a positive response by the Swazi government to localisation pressures. There was a negation to the “colonial approach” which entailed waiting for graduates from university. Instead, Swaziland and other post-colonial countries utilized local officers who were given intensive training. Sometimes the “job analysis” approach was also used; this entailed relating the organization of work and the qualification required for a post to the local personnel available, even if this meant splitting a job formerly held by a European officer into two” (Ibid, pg. 134). In Swaziland and other African countries, understudies were used in that the local was placed under the British expatriate as their understudy. This meant that the African was likely to take over the post when expatriate left. At times this process took longer than expected as the expatriate was in no hurry to leave. The result of this was that the expatriate kept reporting that the local was not ready for the take over. These delaying tactics frustrated the locals and the localisation process.

There was a need to localise because the proportion of European civil servants to Africans was highly unequal. Professor Ali Shaath in his paper

quotes sourced that gave an estimation of 100,000 European civil servants in Africa in 1958 (Hyden, 1975, Pg. 110). In Swaziland for example, “out of 2,730 posts in the civil service in 1965, (500 were in the super scale, executive, technical and professional grades) only 64 were held by Swazis” (Luke, 1966, Pg. 6). (See Table 1 on pg. 62).

“It should be further remembered that Africanization mostly affected the top and middle echelons of the government hierarchy. Hence, it has affected the most strategic positions in each government organization. Africanization has usually started with the senior generalist positions and key positions in other public institutions, notably the public corporations” (Hyden, 1975, Pg. 89).

2.6 Drawbacks to Localisation

“The rapid localisation in the 70's, particularly promotion of Swazis to positions of policy-making for which they had received no formal training, severely weakened and limited the ability of the state and its bureaucracy to adequately address postindependence problems and demands” (Dlamini, 1992, Pg. 173). Localisation in Swaziland had a negative impact particularly on the teaching profession. As Wamalwa had observed, “the process...resulted...in the ‘milking’ of the teaching service. Many teachers found themselves overnight in the highest administrative and management positions... These officers, knowledgeable in their own fields, found themselves in virtually important positions without having the required experience and training and with only a very limited knowledge of the rules and regulations under which they were to function. This put these otherwise loyal and dedicated officers under great strain, which was in turn reflected on the whole service” (Wamalwa, 1976, Pg. 15).

The civil service was also affected negatively in that standards of efficiency declined “as unqualified men and women failed to comprehend and deal with the problems and complexities of the administration of the public sector and therefore could not perform to expected standards” (Interview with a senior government official, Ministry of Public Service and Information, July 2002). The end result was that these officers became frustrated and their morale declined because they were ill equipped due to a lack of relevant training. They were unable “to play a leading role in the transformation of the complex administrative machinery they had inherited from their colonial predecessors” (Dlamini, 1992, Pg. 173).

The Swazis learned with great shock at the last meeting in 1967 of the Legislative Council, “that at self-government every permanent secretary would be a British expatriate, with five Swazis in supernumerary posts” (Kuper, 1978, Pg.293). This goes to prove that localisation was quite a bitter pill to swallow for the British, thus they tried by all means to perpetuate the status quo. The British were in no hurry to implement localisation, and the Swazis on the contrary were very eager to implement it and would not tolerate any delaying tactics by the British.

King Sobhuza commented: “The British will change, but will take their time and will not move as quickly as we desire. We understand how unpleasant it must be to sacrifice one’s own livelihood for the sake of the next man and give up something nice, which you already possess. The British attitude is a natural one, but it is the human material on which the wealth of the country

must be based. Foreign training is necessary but good teachers; as well as good pupils are needed. And we must find people with the right attitude as well as skills to keep up the standards of efficiency” (Kuper, 1978, Pg. 293).

Another limiting factor to localisation was that the African administrator had a tough time trying to bring aboard British organization and methods of administration to an African setting or environment. This, as Burke, observed “bequeathed the new states with a bewildering hybrid bureaucracy, possessed of such complex intricate practices and statutes as to invite serious difficulty when they are staffed by local personnel...” (Burke, 1967, Pg. 368).

Posts were supposed to be advertised so that locals were given priority, but the opposite occurred as expatriates were given first preference over locals. Workers’ committees especially in the private sector through the Training and Localisation Council lodged strong objections.

Another drawback was that technicians trained for seven years, but after this period of training, the apprentice was still pronounced unfit and below the required grade. Localisation at this point, in the 70’s, seemed to take place at technical level (mainly technicians were trained) and not at higher levels. However, one needs to note that the situation has greatly improved over the years. The undesirable situation existed because of the historical background to the education and training in Swaziland during the British rule. Preoccupation during colonial era was with technical training. The

British had downplayed higher education to the disadvantage of the Swazis when independence was attained and the localisation policy formulated.

By 1976, according to a report by Gharthey on Localisation of Professional Training and Qualifications in African Countries, Swaziland had not gone very far in her localisation of training and qualifications in most professions and vocations. Professions such as law, medicine and engineering, which seemed to have been reasonably well localised in several African countries e.g. Nigeria, Ghana, Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, were not localised in Swaziland in the 1970's.

Although the Swaziland College of Commerce had been training technicians in the areas of technology, management and accountancy, no local facilities existed at the time for training engineers, accountants, managers, system analysts, computer programmers, bankers, insurance personnel, medical specialists/experts. Of course, this has changed since the seventies. (Report on Localisation of Professional Training and Qualifications in African Countries, 1976, Pg. 3).

The fragmentation of localisation responsibilities also presented problems. The situation in 1975 was such that the essential responsibilities for localisation were vested in many organizations, councils, and committees who mostly operated in a vacuum, each pursuing the same goal, but often going in opposite directions:


At the time there was a Personnel Planning Unit, a Scholarship Selection Board, Training and Localisation Council, Regional Testing Centre, Careers Guide Campaign, National Employment Service, On-the-job training

schemes, an association of training officers and many other similar bodies operating under several different ministries. It was felt that the coordination of these bodies, and most probably the elimination of some, should be the responsibility of one central highly powered organization that had executive power. This controlling executive body would consist of relevant Ministers and their respective Permanent Secretaries together with senior representatives of the private sector.

Another obstacle was the deliberate acts of sabotage by the foremen with the intension of frustrating the locals. They would wait until the last year of the trainee's apprenticeship, and then they would pronounce him/her unfit for the job. The trainee would go away with the notion that they could not make the grade. Admittedly, the apprentice would have no experience but this was the work of the expatriate who had the skills and was expected to share these with the locals.

There were some companies that were not sincere to government regarding localisation. An example is Usuthu Pulp Company where there was great resistance at first according to a letter from the chairman of the training and localisation council to the General Manager of Usuthu Pulp Company. The communication dated December 14, 1977 reads in part: "The refusal of the company to comply with the government's simple requirements has taken over nine (9) months and up until now there has been no finality" (Swaziland National Archives, Training and Localisation Programme, 1977).

There is the policy of not granting permanent residence permits to expatriates which has the negative result of giving them a sense of insecurity and thus not performing to the expected standard. There is always that fear that the permit might not be renewed after a two year term. Job security is important to anyone who has a family. Expatriates wanted to be assured that their jobs were safe. The two-year temporary permits sometimes worked to the government's disadvantage in that some expatriates would suddenly hand in their notice to find a place where job security would be guaranteed. In the end, some companies suffered because of these temporary residence permits, as finding a suitable candidate would take time.

Ironically, Swaziland's trained personnel are attracted outside the borders of Swaziland by higher salaries. This is the problem of the brain drain whereby the country spends many resources training locals, only to lose them on completion of training. "We cannot retain trained personnel because nationals are trained and become frustrated because of the pay and often resort to crossing the border [into neighbouring countries], or even going abroad" (Interview with Senior Localisation Officer, Ministry of Enterprise and Employment, June 2002). In other words, the free movement of labour within the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region has been more of a curse than a blessing to Swaziland.

According to the Public Sector Management Program (PSMP) government argues that the public service has to be reduced because too much money is spent on salaries; this thus means that government has cut down on

recruiting. The end result is that a lot of ministries and departments are critically understaffed. The localisation department has suffered and has not been able to perform satisfactorily. “The personnel compliment to cover the entire country is only five. This explains why when it comes to the private sector, the concentration has only been on the large industries because of the ministry’s capacity” (Ibid).

Prior to 1997, training and localisation fell under the portfolio of the then Ministry of Labour and Public Service. In 1997, the ministry was split and it became the Ministry of Public Service and Information the Ministry of Enterprise and Employment respectively. The splitting of the ministry has created many problems. “Planning between localisation and training was abandoned. This has had a negative effect on both training and localisation as the two go hand in hand” (Interview, Principal Personnel Officer, Human Resource Planning and Development, May 2003).

“The Brain Drain has taken its toll on our trained personnel. Bonding is a mechanism that has been put in place to address this problem. However, this is a short-term solution and has not had the desired effect. When government officers finish serving their bonding period, they leave the public sector. They leave for South Africa on the pretext that they are coming back; when they get there they nationalize and find employment. At one stage we even contemplated liaising with the South African Trade Mission [in Mbabane] regarding this issue. Another reason for the brain drain is that there are no incentives and promotions are not based on the merit system. Some of us have stayed on not because we are content. It is difficult to just

uproot and leave” (Interview, Principal Personnel Officer, Human Resource Planning and Development, May 2003).

The bonding system was introduced during the early years of Africanization. This came about because “there was a need to retain African high-level personnel and eventually have it replace foreign talents” (Hyden, 1971, pg. 91). However, over the years, this has proven to be an ineffective tool because once locals complete the bonding period, they leave for greener pastures.

According to the *Weekend Observer of May 10-11, 2003*, the government of Swaziland, in a bid to curb the exodus of these nurses who have been leaving the country for greener pastures, was at the time of writing rumoured to be on the verge of recruiting nurses from Zimbabwe. A large number of nurses have left the service to work in countries such as England, Wales, Canada, South Africa, Saudi Arabia, and even Japan. The number of nurses leaving the country for greener pastures seems to be steadily growing according to the President of the Swaziland Nurses Association.

“It is rumoured that government is planning to bring in nurses from Zimbabwe to address this anomaly, instead of sitting down with our association and thrash out issues to find a lasting solution. Although this is still a rumour but government could resort to such an endeavour, as the nurses are leaving Swaziland in droves, to go and work in countries where their skills and expertise is appreciated and well remunerated.” (*Weekend Observer, May 10-11, 2003*, Pg. 6). Nurses specializing in certain medical fields are in demand in many parts of the world. Their being in demand and being able to secure employment even

in the first world countries is an indication that they are qualified, yet government does not recognize them as professionals but refers to them as 'technical staff'. In such circumstances, countries that recognize their competitive edge will coax them to their countries at the expense of Swazi people who trained them.

The President of Swaziland Nurses Association mentioned that already, about 40 nurses had left the country from January to April 2003 and the number was growing steadily.

2.7 Efforts Made to Solve Localisation Problems

Because of the many problems faced by localisation, efforts had to be made to try and find remedies.

The Swaziland Training Report for 1974/75 compiled by the Establishment office, indicated that a total of 795 students had been sent outside the country for training. Of this number, 109 in business and public administration, and 19 in other unspecified fields of study.

The government had proposed a new set of training objectives in the proposed schemes of service. The Staff Training Institute has been charged with the task of implementing such training schemes. Attempts were made to have some regional cooperation between Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. The benefits to be derived from such cooperation could be enormous. Examples of such benefits would include the pooling of resources to provide educational facilities, sharing the use of such facilities, providing a wider market for trained personnel, and forming regional professional associations.

An example of this regional cooperation was the establishment of a Regional Testing Resource and Training Centre. With the assistance of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the governments of Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi and Swaziland functioned on a co-operative arrangement starting from December 1969. The headquarters was in Malawi and the branch office in Botswana serving the Southern African Countries; another branch was established in Swaziland in 1972.

Objective of the Centre

The stated objective of the centre was to create, develop and adapt a modern regional testing programme designed to meet the requirements of the governments of Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi and Swaziland and to suit the conditions existing in these four countries and their educational institutions with the capacity to serve the private sector (Swaziland National Archives, Manpower Survey, DPM 170, 1971).

Functions of the Centre

1. The stated functions of the Centre would, subject to provisions of the legislation, include the following:
 - a. undertake research projects on, and shall develop and implement, a system of tests to meet the needs of the co-operating countries and designed for student selection into secondary schools, and technical and vocational training institutions;

- b. advise the Ministries responsible for education in, and the universities within the co-operating countries on the development and effective use of testing programmes for their respective educational systems;
- c. conduct applied research, and shall develop new tests, subject to priorities and policies determined by the Board and consistent with requests from, and/or needs of the co-operating countries;
- d. when and where appropriate, devise tests and train and orientate education officials and teachers in the administration of such tests in schools and other institutions;
- e. in order to complement the education programme, the centre shall undertake research projects on, and develop and implement a system of testing to supplement existing Public Service Selection Procedures, where so requested.

(Source: Swaziland National Archives, Manpower Survey, DPM 170, 1971).

Local Counterparts

An example is the vacancy for a Manpower Specialist (gender insensitivity) in the Labour Office, Mbabane. The only suitable candidate interviewed for this vacancy was a British expatriate. If appointed, it was recommended that a local counterpart be identified to understudy the expatriate. This was in accordance with the localisation policy.

A memorandum from the Government Economic Advisor reads as follows: “on account of planning I am anxious to get a manpower planner to Swaziland as soon as possible. During the recent negotiations on British aid in London, I

talked to Mr. Whitelegg, Ministry of Overseas Development about our governments' request for a manpower planner. He answered that his ministry wanted to confirm that a local counterpart is available. Therefore, I recommend that your office now confirm that a local counterpart has been found, and ask for information about the candidates to be submitted. If you have no other counterpart, you may use the name James Nxumalo, who is now working with me; he has a Masters degree in Economics. If another counterpart is found later on the name can be changed" (Swaziland National Archives, Manpower Survey, DPM 170, 1971 folio 32).

A list of qualified local people was to be made available to companies in order for them to be aware of local available personnel before recruiting from outside Swaziland.



Apart from the bonding system as earlier explained, the government is currently working on a new salary scale in an effort to try and retain the professional personnel.

The new Training and Localisation Policy states that local candidates will now be awarded scholarships to attend universities and colleges only in the region and Africa. Before 1994, local candidates were sent mostly abroad for their training even if the course was available in neighbouring South Africa. "The cost of sending one candidate to the U.K. is approximately the same as sending 3 or 4 candidates to South Africa because of the strength of the pound to a Rand. Swaziland has benefited immensely by this change in training policy" (Interview, Director, Human Resource Division, June 2002)

2.8 Summary

From the reasons given above there was a need to localise; it becomes clear that there were internal and external factors driving the process. When localisation was eventually effected, Swaziland had to contend with the problems head on.

This chapter has dealt with the following issues:

- a) Brief Historical background of Swaziland under Colonial Rule
- b) History of localisation in the Swaziland Civil Service
- c) Drawbacks and challenges to localisation
- d) Challenges to localisation
- e) Efforts made to solve localisation problems



The next chapter looks at:

- e) Background to the educational system during British colonial rule
- f) Loopholes created by the British through inadequate educational opportunities for the local Swazis
- g) Efforts made to address British education and problems encountered
- h) Background on higher education in Swaziland
- i) A brief discussion of the current training policy in Swaziland

CHAPTER THREE

Education and Training in Swaziland during British Rule and Post Independence Training Initiatives

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The background provided in this chapter is quite crucial as it lays the foundation of an Africanized Swazi civil service and examines the loopholes created by British rule as a consequence of the inadequate education that existed. Swaziland made an effort to address these problems. This chapter will explain how it became important for Swaziland to address the education and training issues as a way towards localisation. The existing Training Policy will be discussed briefly.



3.2 BACKGROUND TO THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM DURING BRITISH COLONIAL RULE

“The object of all administrative training should be to develop and sharpen the officer’s inborn qualities and to enable him to learn more quickly from experience. The training experience is continuous whether it is formal or on-the-job. Senior officers have a responsibility to ensure that junior officers understand not only the ‘how’ but also the ‘why’ of what they are doing” (Rweyemamu and Hyden, 1975, pg.21).

It was necessary for Swazis to learn how to read and write in order to be able to equip them for the running of government machinery and be able “to deal with the complicated documents by which whites claimed their right to rule” (Kuper,

1978, pg. 43). Swazis had learnt a bitter lesson from the concessions whereby the British had taken large portions of Swazi land. The Queen Regent Labotsibeni once asked her tutor Robert Grandon, a coloured man from Cape Town, "in what does the power of the whites lie? And before he could reply, she gave her own answer, "it lies in money and in books" (Kuper, 1978, pg. 43). In the beginning, there were no local government schools. Missionaries were sent over from Britain to educate the Swazis, but their primary aim was conversion. The British scrutinized the teachers who were sent to teach the Swazis and were often suspicious of them. The British always had a say on matters concerning the teachers. The following is an extract from a letter written by the Resident Commissioner to the Secretary of the Native Affairs Department on 25 June 1909."Lord Selbourne asks for absolutely trustworthy Native to educate Paramount Chief (a name used by the British when referring to the traditional ruler whom they considered subordinate to a local Resident Commissioner i.e. King Sobhuza II). A tactful man is needed whose presence at great place would tend to combat advice of certain half enlightened natives whose influence is harmful" (Kuper, 1978, pg. 44).

In subsequent years, Labotsibeni imposed a levy on her people, basically to promote the development of education. It is evident that it was mainly the Swazi leaders who took the initiative to have their people educated. The British were less concerned as they viewed this with suspicion. The number of pupils at Zombodze (the town where King Sobhuza II was born and that was in the 1800s the capital of Swaziland, this school was named after this town) gradually increased.

"Labotsibeni wanted education for as many of her people as possible and,

besides those who went with the King to Lovedale (a high school in the [then] Cape Province in 1915), a number of others were educated by the nation. Though many elders were uncertain of the advantages of school education (which took boys from the more manly and traditional outdoor tasks, and which conservatives interpreted as throwing away Swazi customs in favour of those of foreigners), eventually 'a regiment of children' was educated in well known schools in South Africa- Ohlange, Tigerkloof and Amanzimtoti as well as Lovedale" (Kuper, 1978, pg. 50). All expenses were borne by the Swazi nation and not the British government. This included full fees, uniforms and pocket money. The school at Zombodze increased to over 100 pupils. There were two teachers in two classrooms.

Although many of the British Resident Commissioners neglected the educational aspects of the Swazis, there is one Resident Commissioner who is worth mentioning as he was the direct opposite. He was T. Ainsworth Dickson, who encouraged the formation of a Swaziland Progressive Association as a center for the non-white intelligentsia with separate committees for Africans and for coloureds in each of the districts to represent the interest of a new school-educated political elite" (Kuper, 1978, pg. 103). However, the King was cautioned against this formation, as it would create a division between the educated and uneducated. "The matter was discussed in the council, of which some of the most astute and highly respected members had little or no formal schooling, while others equally but not more important were well educated by current western standards" (Ibid). For most of the positions requiring special knowledge, foreigners were recruited from outside Swaziland (mainly Africans who were Zulus and Xhosas). This was because the number of educated

Swazis employed in the country was too small.

King Sobhuza was deeply concerned with the quality of education accorded to his people. Segregation reigned in all the schools and the British colonialists accepted this. "For white children primary education up to standard six was free and compulsory; for Swazi children education was neither free nor compulsory and some 70% of Swazi children between 6 and 16 received no education at all" (Kuper, 1978, pg. 104). Eighteen pounds was paid for a white child and a meager 1-pound per annum for an African child at school. A substantial amount of money spent on education for Swazis came from the National Fund, which was started by Queen Regent Labotsibeni. This goes to show how the British were less concerned about educating the Swazis. King Sobhuza opened the first High School in 1931.



There were new posts, which needed to be filled in the S.N.C. (Swaziland National Council) and S.N.T. (Swaziland National Treasury)." It was difficult to find the right personnel with the requisite administrative and technical knowledge. Swaziland had very limited facilities for either practical or academic education, but every year a few Swazis were sent on government scholarships, for both higher and specialized education, to the Union [of South Africa]" (Kuper, 1978, pg. 181). According to figures from Swaziland Annual Reports, 1949, 1950, 1952, European children's education up to 16 years (or on successful completion of standard VII- Junior Certificate) was free and compulsory. However, for African children, it was not. Enrolment figures for the period 1949-52 show a slight increase but by 1952 still represented less than 20% of the school age African population.

Localisation started during the terminal years of colonialism. This process was slow during the pre-independence era and this can largely be attributed to the poor record of colonial administration in the education and training of indigenous Swazis. By the time of independence in 1968, education for the Swazis' industry and commerce was virtually neglected during the colonial era. As a result of this, the educational system in Swaziland was still at its rudimentary stages by this time.

3.3 LOOPHOLES CREATED BY THE BRITISH THROUGH INADEQUATE EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE LOCAL SWAZIS

From the time of independence, there was a determined effort by Swaziland to localise the public sector, primarily and latterly the private sector.

Swaziland inherited and was dependent upon a strongly entrenched cadre of top-level public service administrators who were expatriates. In colonial days, there was a problem in that the order of preference was European first and African last. This resulted in Europeans being better trained and equipped than Swazis. When independence was attained, this fact was recognized and something had to be done to acquire requisite skills and experience by the African majority.

There were problems related to localisation in the public sector. In 1977 for example, 600 posts were held by expatriates and because of the tightness of the government budget, there were no posts for qualified Swazi nationals who had been sent abroad for training in the different fields. No provision had been made by government to absorb them or alternatively to make the locals work

alongside their expatriate counterparts. Localisation in Swaziland started rather late, unlike in many former British African territories. Because the British government could not make up its mind about the future of Swaziland until the early 60's, the colonial government pursued "a very colonial and functional staffing policy" (Udoji, 1969, pg. 1). This policy entailed getting the job done regardless of who did it.

Another problem that compounded matters was Swaziland's geographical location to South Africa where people who were not white were excluded from skilled jobs, irrespective of their grade. Expatriates were recruited from Britain and South Africa. This meant that no consideration was given to the recruitment and training of the Swazis to run the civil service. It appeared that Britain was perpetuating the apartheid policy in Swaziland.



Administrative costs for running government machinery were borne by subsidies from the British Treasury or alternatively selling crown and revenue accrued from the collection of different taxes that were introduced by the British, much against the wishes of the Swazis. Developing the natural resources so that the country pays for its administration was completely ignored by the British government.

Because of the poor record of the colonial administration in the education and training of indigenous Swazis, there was a negative impact on Swaziland in that when the colonial officers departed, only a few educated and trained Swazis were available to run the civil service. It thus follows that at the time of independence in 1968, the majority of posts were still in the hands of expatriate

officers as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Localisation of the Civil Service, 1968

Cadre	No. Of Posts	No. Of Officers
Super scale	59	2
Administrative	52	13
Professional	74	4
Executive	120	57
Technical	150	26
Police (A.S.P. to S.S.P)	29	4
Police inspectorate	31	14
Education	31	14
Secretarial	85	38
Total	631	172

Source: Udoji, J.O., Training and Localisation of the Swaziland Civil Service, Mbabane, Government Printer, 1969.

3.4 EFFORTS MADE TO ADDRESS BRITISH EDUCATION SYSTEM AND PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED

According to the Fourth National Development Plan, the general objectives for education and training were:

1. To work towards the achievement of the goal of universal primary education by 1985.
2. To offer the products of the primary system further education and training concomitant with the needs of the individual and personnel needs of the nation.

3.To co-ordinate the efforts of all institutions working in the field of education and training to:

- a) Cope with the strong and diversified demand for education and;
- b) Improve the quality of education and training at all levels (Fourth National Development Plan, 1983/84-87-88, pg. 240).

In the 1982 school year, there were a total of 26,469 secondary (Forms 1-3) school students compared with the planned number of 22,500. The total enrolment increased from 20,584 in 1978, representing an average increase of 1,471 pupils, or 6.5 percent per annum (See Figure 35 Appendix A). Of the total 1982 enrolment, 20,968 were in Forms 1-3 and 5,501 were in Forms 4-5 (See Table 3.38 Appendix B and 3.39 Appendix C) (Fourth National development Plan, 1983/84-87-88, pg. 244).



There was a shortage of qualified teachers in secondary schools: 329 in 1982. The shortage of qualified teachers was particularly acute in the fields of mathematics, science and technology. These were subjects that were important to the development of the country as well as to the policy of localisation (Ibid, pg. 247).

A summary of enrolments in teacher training institutions for the period 1972-82 is shown in Table 3.40 Appendix D). Ngwane Teachers' Training College opened in 1982 and produced its first graduates in 1984 (Ibid, pg. 249-251). Despite progress in teacher training, there were still a substantial number of unqualified teachers by 1982 (See Table 3.41 Appendix E).

It was deemed necessary to kick start the process of localisation by “taking stock of available personnel, professional, technical and administrative, to carry out the development required for national independence” (Udoji, 1969, pg. 3). Udoji’s report was an eye opener regarding the fact that key positions were still in the reorganization of the entire civil service. “The King-in-Council accepted these as realistic and specific- the search for talent among Swaziland nationals, intensive on-the-job training, a time limit for certain jobs to be vacated by expatriates and filled by the new men, the coordination of post-school education and occupational opportunities, the urgency of certified directives regarding positions necessary for effective change, and the setting up of a new Department of establishment and Training” (Kuper, 1978, pg. 309).

In 1951, Matsapha and Mahamba Methodist Schools became full secondary schools, thus opening opportunities for Swazis to matriculate in their own country instead of in the then Union of South Africa. A Trade School was started which gave practical fields in building and mechanics. In 1950, the first apprentices were ready for employment.

Formerly, educated Africans served as scribes and translators, “but recognition of secretaries by colonial government was new and conferred high formal status and responsibilities” (Kuper, 1978, pg. 182). At this time, the most educated men were Msindazwe Sukati and Polycarp Dlamini. There were a few educated women who were educated at the time, although not mentioned by the author. Among these were Makholwa Dlamini, Maggie Makhubu and others. There were, however, others also educated with new officers (originally titled Land Utilization Officers) who had been appointed to implement plans at the grass

root levels” (Swaziland National Archives, ST 150/49 no. 772/v, pg. 856).

There has been much progress in terms of school curriculum. The school curriculum has been diversified by the introduction of practical and occupational subjects such as agriculture, home economics and elementary technology. A summary of progress in this field is presented in Table 3.42 Appendix F.

In 1978, there were 35 secondary teachers of agriculture, of whom 60 percent were expatriates. By 1982, the number of secondary teachers in agriculture had risen to 108, of which 10 percent were expatriates (Fourth National Development Plan, 1983/84-87-88, pg. 251).

The range of technical subjects at High School level was expanded to include engineering science and electronics. Curriculum reform at primary and secondary levels was spearheaded by donor support. The Primary Curriculum Unit (PCU) operated in full collaboration with the Eastern Michigan University, contracted by the United States Agency for Development. The Secondary Unit (SCU) operated in collaboration with United Nations educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation and the Swedish International Development Agency. Fourteen nationals received overseas professional training.

According to the development plan, the African Development Bank funded the Pre-vocational Education Project. These included agriculture, home economics, commercial subjects (i.e. woodwork, metalwork, building, welding, fabrication and technical drawing). Higher Technical Institutions include Swaziland College of Technology and Vocational Training Institute of Management (Development Plan, 1966-67-1998-99, pg. 149-150). French is now taught in a number of

schools assisted over a number of years by the Belgian government. A number of posts requiring French teachers have been localised over the years as more and more Swazis have specialized in the French language. In the past, French was only taught by Europeans or by people from French speaking African countries. The economic role of the postsecondary sub-sector is to provide middle and high-level personnel for both the public and private sectors.

3.5 BACKGROUND ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN SWAZILAND

3.5.1 UNIVERSITY OF BOTSWANA AND SWAZILAND

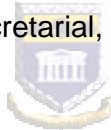
In 1976, the University of Botswana and Swaziland was established. It had two constituent colleges i.e. the University of Botswana and the University College of Swaziland. On 1 July 1982, this formal bilateral arrangement was brought to an end by mutual consent and UBS was separated into the University of Botswana and the University of Swaziland (Uniswa) respectively. The University aims to be a centre of academic and intellectual excellence; to preserve and transmit the nation's cultural heritage while contributing to the generation of new knowledge through research; and provide programmes and courses that are relevant to the personnel needs of the country.

The University of Swaziland, like other national universities in other African countries at similar stages of economic and social development, focuses its activities primarily on the training needs of the country. The University had five faculties at the time (i.e. the 70s) mainly agriculture, education, humanities, science, social science. Each faculty offers a diploma or degree and some masters' programme in the respective disciplines. All arts and science students take a compulsory parallel diploma in education as part of their course

curriculum. The institution has grown steadily and its plans have anticipated continual growth (See Table 45 Appendix G and Table 3.47 Appendix H). Table 45 indicates that the number of staff and students will continue to increase over time.

3.5.2 SWAZILAND COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY

SCOT is the principal institution of higher-level technical and vocational education and training in Swaziland. It offers a range of craft and technician programmes. These programmes fall into four areas: engineering and science (e.g. mechanical, electrical, motor vehicle and medical engineering, building and civil engineering, water technology and construction); education (e.g. teacher training for both technical and commercial subjects); and business administration (e.g. accounting, secretarial, catering and hotel management).



According to the Development Plan, Scot, like the University of Swaziland would benefit from a coherent tertiary policy, including technical and vocational issues, and from an improved system of national personnel forecasting. Besides its own surveys of industry, the institution does receive some guidance from the Directorate of Industrial Vocational Training (DIVT) See Table 46 Appendix I for staff and total enrolment numbers. This table shows a steady increase in student enrolment, rising from 772 in 1994 to 1000 in 1996. This represents a 30% increase. Staff numbers are expected to increase from 68 to 72 over the same period, and this represents a 6% increase (Development Plan, 1996/96-1998-99, pg. 151-152).

3.5.3 VOCATIONAL AND COMMERCIAL TRAINING INSTITUTE MATSAPHA

VOCTIM is situated at Matsapha (Swaziland's major industrial town situated on the Lusushwana river, 8 kilometres west of Manzini) offers technical, vocational and commercial subjects to prepare students for opportunities in the labour market and self-employment. The institution surveys the needs of industries and mounts courses directed at satisfying these needs.

Training at VOCTIM is aimed at the craft level and includes a significant proportion of time on industrial placement; this is something which ideally should be reflected in the final certificate, but which is not possible so long as City and Guilds is preferred to VOCTIM's own certificate. In many ways, its output is complementary to that of SCOT although this has not been formalized through any quantitative policy on craft and technician training. The policy requirements for technical and vocational educational education for SCOT apply equally to VOCTIM.

3.5.4 PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT

The Government of Swaziland is committed to maximizing the use of local human resources and ensuring an adequate supply of suitably qualified personnel to staff the public and private sectors of the country. Several institutions assist in this aim, three of which fall under the Ministry of Public Service and Information:

1. DIVT- this draws up standards for trade testing. It also through its Board provides guidance to the technical and vocational institutions as to the type of training courses required to meet the personnel requirements industry.

2. The in-service training section of the Personnel Development and Training Division- this is a clearinghouse that administers requests from government agencies, and offers from donors, for staff training in appropriate institutions in Swaziland and overseas. Included within its responsibility is the Ministry of Works and Construction's large training project funded by the ADB. It also ensures appropriate bonding arrangements are made so that officers trained at government expense return to the civil service for at least a minimum period.
3. Swaziland Institute of Management and Public Administration- this institute provides a variety of long and short-term training programmes for every level in government, parastatals and private organizations, and NGOS.



Swaziland has the responsibility for human resource development within the member countries of SADC and so hosts the organisation's Regional Training Centre in Mbabane, with a mandate to appraise the full range of member countries' technical, professional and management training requirements. Additionally there are three Swaziland based regional human resource development institutes, which operate on a strictly cost recovery basis: -

- a) Institute of Development Management- this is a facility jointly owned by the governments of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. Each country has its own campus and the local institute shares facilities with SIMPA. This institute mainly offers short-term and problem specific management courses with participation coming from within the countries and regionally. It caters for government, parastatals, and private organizations.
- b) Eastern and Southern Agency for Management Institute- its headquarters

are in Tanzania and it is represented in Swaziland. It runs a wide range of management training courses at its centre throughout the region.

- c) Mananga Management Centre- it runs courses for both public and private sector middle and senior management. It covers Africa and overseas countries. The emphasis is on agriculture.

Besides these regional undertakings, there are a growing number of smaller private companies that provide specialist training, especially in the use of computers e.g. International Development Centre for Africa (IDCA), International Networking Training Centre (NTC).


The sub-committee endorsed the concept of the establishment of the National Board for Higher Education. This Central Government body was to control higher education and to promote further development of high-level and middle-level personnel training on a national basis. National Colleges were to be responsible to one common authority.

The Scholarship Selection Board was set up to ensure that persons were to be trained in the crucial and important areas of study. One important concern in the late 70s by government was that secondary education did not offer much science subjects to enable students to qualify for training in more specialized fields such as medicine, agriculture etc. One needs to note at this point however that the situation has changed drastically with the improvement of the National Curriculum Centre.

3.6 A BRIEF DISCUSSION OF THE CURRENT TRAINING POLICY IN SWAZILAND

According to this policy, the main “aim is to establish a clear vision and policy framework to guide the introduction and implementation of new policy guidelines, procedures and practices aimed at transforming Public Service Training into a dynamic, needs-based and pro-active instrument: capable of playing an integral and strategic part in the process of strengthening individual and institutional capacity within the Public Service”(Training Policy for the Public Service of the Government of the Kingdom of Swaziland).

The policy anticipates a new system of Public Service Training that will be among other things:

- 
- a) Strategically linked to a broader process of administrative transformation, institution building and human resources development within the public service.
 - b) Effectively organized, coordinated and accredited in ways, which promote quality, accountability and cost effectiveness.
 - c) Capable of promoting equality of opportunity and access for the nominated personnel to meaningful training and development experiences.
 - d) Capable of facilitating the development of effective career paths for all public servants.
 - e) Demand-led, needs based, competency oriented.

The new public service training policy will be guided by the following vision:
“The development of a dedicated, productive and people-centred public

servant whose potential [is] fully developed through the comprehensive provisions of appropriate and adequate training and supervision or leadership at all levels” (Swaziland Training Policy for the Public Service of the Kingdom of Swaziland, 2000, pg. 2).

Key objectives of this policy will be the following:

- a) To establish clear and effective national norms and standards within reference to training principles, priorities, guidelines and practices.
- b) To promote a common public service organizational culture that supports training and the ethos of a new development-oriented professionalism within the service.
- c) To establish appropriate institutional arrangements for the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the policy.



The policy provides for all government ministries and departments to determine their own training requirements and priorities and to plan their own training programmes to meet local needs in consultation with the Human Resources Division of the Ministry of Public Service and Information. The Policy concentrates on the training needs and requirements of serving officials. This will be vital in ensuring that the service is able to attract, recruit and retain high quality personnel. Master training plans will be prepared annually for departments and will include functional or work specific training, and general training. Individual work plans based on the master plan will be developed. As a rule, training will be job specific or performance related one or more of the three methods needs will carry out procedures relating to assessment training:

- a) Competence-based analysis
- b) Needs-based analysis
- d) Skill-based analysis

Once approval for attendance of training has been received from the Ministry of Public Service and Information, the Training Officers and/or the Ministry of Public Service and Information must satisfy themselves that such training is not available within the Public Service. If the Public Service cannot present the training, the following options can be considered, taking into account, for example, the quality of training, financial implications, etc.:

- a) Local training institutions (e.g. SIMPA)
- b) Regional Agencies (e.g. SADC, ESAMI, IDM etc.); and
- c) International donors (e.g. Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation, United Nations  Development Programme, European Commission for Africa, and World Health Organisation).

Training will be available to any government employee who is a Swazi. In exceptional cases non-Swazis may be considered for short-term training, seminars, workshops and conferences after obtaining permission from the Minister of Public Service and Information.

An individual who undertakes a long-term training programme shall upon completion/termination of that programme return and serve government or his/her organization normally for a period of at least twenty-four months before that individual can be considered for an additional and/or further long-term training. Officers whose age shall be 45 or above shall not be eligible for training programmes that are more than nine months.

The loss of high quality personnel to other sectors constitutes a 'brain -drain' from the public service. In addition, there is the general adverse effect on government human resources development planning process. In an effort to rectify this situation, the government shall apply the In-service Training Bonding Agreement to all existing and new training courses that take an officer away from his/her station for a period of more than six months.

In the event of any bonded officer leaving the Public Service without approval, the full financial penalties as stipulated in his/her Bonding Agreement, shall be enforced. The bonding period shall be determined as follows:

PERIOD OF TRAINING	BONDING PERIOD	SALARY ARRANG
6-12 months	2 years	100%(1 st yr.)
13-24 months	3 years	75%(2 nd yr)
24-36 months	4 years	50%(3 rd yr)
Above 36 months	5 years	20%(4 th yr)

Source: Swaziland Training Policy for the Kingdom of Swaziland, 2000, Government Printers .

A range of different mechanisms will be used for monitoring the performance of public sector officials affected with the Ministry of Public Service and Information (HRD Division).

Evaluation mechanism will also be developed to compliment the monitoring process. Such mechanism will be directly related to the aims, objectives and anticipated outcomes of the policy.

3.7 SUMMARY

This chapter clearly reveals the fact that the British had no interest in educating the Swazis and equipping them with the relevant skills in the event that the British left. The geographical location of Swaziland was also a disadvantage in that the apartheid policy of South Africa rubbed onto neighbouring Swaziland. The white children were given priority over Swazi children in terms of education. The few Swazis who received education at the time did so due to the efforts of the Queen Regent Labotsibeni and later, King Sobhuza. During the terminal years of independence, Swaziland had to recall the few educated Swazis who had emigrated to South Africa. A substantial amount of Africans from neighbouring countries were also recruited because of the acute shortage of skilled nationals.



The next chapter will examine the following:

- a) Background Information on the Private Sector
- b) Training and Localisation Committee
- c) Co-ordination between Government and the Private Sector
- d) Pace of Localisation in the Private Sector and reasons behind this
- e) Problems faced by the Private Sector on Training and Localisation
- f) Draft Human Resources Planning and Development Bill 2003
- g) Private Sector progress in Localisation

CHAPTER FOUR

4. TRAINING AND LOCALISATION IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR

4.1 INTRODUCTION:

The focus in this Chapter will be on the mechanisms put in place within the private sector to assist the government in executing the training and localisation policy. These are the localisation committees, Councils and Boards.

Focus will also be placed on the pace at which localisation has been moving in the private sector in comparison with the public sector.

4.2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

There were guidelines prepared by the government representing official policy on localisation. The Federation of Employers stressed a desire for government to make a clear statement of its policy to provide guidance to private concerns in the planning of their own training and localisation programmes.

In the Third National Development Plan one of the government's main objective is to pursue a vigorous policy of localisation in the public and private sectors (Third National Development Plan, 1978-79-1982-83, pg. 54).

4.3 TRAINING AND LOCALISATION COUNCIL

A training and Localisation Council was established in 1970. The Training and Localisation Council would be a high level body composed of representatives both of government and of the private sector.

Functions of Training and Localisation Council:

1. Its general function would be to advise on the formulation and coordination of training and localisation programmes as a whole. It was felt that the existence of this council would strengthen the efforts to promote training and localisation.
2. To set content of courses and training programmes required.
3. Arrange distribution of activities between existing and proposed training facilities and schools.
4. Render advice on immigration policy.
5. Visiting companies in the private sector and ministries and departments in the public sector. It is furnished with a list of staff members and their respective duties, names of trainees, or apprentices understudying the expatriate officers and duration of training as well as when each officer will be ready to take over.
6. Training and localisation in the public and private sectors.



The Training and Localisation Council was located within the Prime Minister's Office in 1971. "The Training and Localisation Council was charged with the task of inter alia, reassessing the country's requirements for trained manpower (gender insensitivity), reviewing and coordinating educational and training programmes and activities and advising the Chief Executive on implementation of the government's localisation programme" (Swaziland National Archives, Swaziland Government Circular CO/DPS/6.1971).

LOCALISATION OF THE CIVIL SERVICE, 1977

Cadre	No. Of Posts held by Citizens	No. Of Posts held by Non Citizens	Percentage localised
Super scale	75	9	89
Professional	69	109	39
General	1293	25	98
Technical	785	70	92
Secretarial	214	6	97
Subordinate	688	6	99
Nursing	322	10	97
Prisons	781	9	99
Industrial	608	26	96
Unclassified	60	51	-
TOTAL	4,895	321	94

Source: ColClough, C and Digby, P.W., Skills for the future: Education and Manpower (gender insensitivity) Perspectives in Swaziland, 1978.

Terms of Reference for the Training and Localisation Council at its inception:

- a) To make periodic reassessment of the requirements of the public and private sectors for trained personnel.
- b) To collect and distribute information on all persons presently under training institutes or on other training programmes.
- c) To review present educational and training activities in the light of personnel requirements and to advise on any needed extension or modification;

- d) To advise on the coordination of various educational and training programmes being carried out in both the public and the private sectors;
- e) To review the localisation programmes of government concerns on their implementation;
- f) To prepare periodic reports of the localisation position together with recommendations for any necessary changes in policy or legislation;
- g) To advise on the development of employment and careers guidance services both to channel job seekers to vacancies and to make young people more aware of the careers open to them.

As the localisation process progressed, it was felt that the Training and Localisation Council's terms of reference needed to be revisited as some areas were overlooked:



- a) Activities of the Training Divisions in preparation for direct take over of duties from expatriate personnel in all spheres of employment;
- b) Placement services and their administration;
- c) Involvement of Immigration Department in respect of employment of expatriates in the country's economy;
- d) Job-orientation exercise;
- e) System of preparing Training and Localisation Programmes by the appropriate authorities (Swaziland National Archives, DPM 215, Ministry of Local Administration, 1971)

4.4 Private Sector Localisation Committee

There were guidelines prepared by the government representing official policy on localisation. The Swaziland Federation of Employers stressed a desire for government to make a clear statement of its policy to provide guidance to private concerns in the planning of their own training and localisation programmes.

This committee agreed that action to translate general principles into agreed programmes for training and localisation was to be undertaken with haste. This task was difficult and required close consultation between government and private sector concerns.

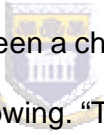
4.5 Coordination between Government and Private Sector



Government was willing to welcome requests from the private sector for assistance in meeting their training requirements. Government also wished to acquaint the private sector with the young persons going through its training and scholarship programmes. Government availed information about these trainees and their performance. The private sector was also given access to details of students undergoing higher-level education or training by government. Government urged employers to employ students during vacations to familiarize and give them the necessary experience needed to fill many posts in the private sector. Government encouraged the private sector on recruitment and in-service training for the students.

4.6 Pace of Localisation in Private Sector and Reasons Behind This

The Private Sector's progress in localisation had been slow over the years as compared to the public sector, especially in the seventies and eighties. This poor performance in implementing localisation programmes in the private sector can be attributed to the fact that "due to the sensitive nature of foreign investments and government's concentrated efforts to speed up Africanisation in the public sector where, public bureaucracy being more visible, it was easier to demonstrate that independence had indeed been accomplished" (Dlamini, 1992, pg.174). Another reason is that "besides due to external control, the companies are reluctant to localise to avoid dependency relationship" (Wamalwa, 1976, Pg. 34).

One can safely say that there has been a change in this pace since the midnineties from slow to steadily growing.  "The pace has been steadily growing because Ubombo Sugar Company (company located in the Lubombo region on the Eastern side of Swaziland) has had an Assistant General Manager being a Swazi. In the eighties and before, this was not the case. Swazis now occupy high and middle management positions. The drive for localisation has grown and is gaining momentum. The objective is to remove expatriates and offer locals positions purely on merit e.g. Plant engineers, Shift engineers etc" (interview, Human Resources Development Manager, Ubombo Sugar Company, June, 2003).

There have been differing views regarding the slow pace at which the localisation programme seems to be taking place in the private sector. The view of public officials is that "the stumbling block is the absence of relevant

legislation to promote the localisation programmes that has been put in place. However, the absence of legislation was a deliberate attempt by government in order not to scare foreign investors” (Interview, Senior Localisation Officer, Ministry of Enterprise and Employment, June 2002) There have been developments regarding legislation on localisation. After South Africa attained independence in 1994, investors were relocating to South Africa in huge numbers. Trained local personnel were also moving to South Africa in search of greener pastures.

However, private sector officials feel that the main motivating factor has been politics in the public sector regarding the issue of localisation and this is not based on economic factors per say (Interview, Executive Industry Official, Swaziland Federation of Employers, July, 2002).



The Public Sector officials argue, “another reason for the slow pace in implementing localisation programmes in the private sector is due to the fact that there is an acute shortage of personnel in the localisation section within the Ministry of Enterprise and Employment to carry out its responsibilities. We believe that the process could be speeded up if we had more personnel” (Interview, Senior Localisation Officer, Ministry of Enterprise and Employment, June 2002). Because of the shortage of staff, the TLC has not met with officials of the private sector for the past two years. However, the private sector is continuing with the Localisation process and continues to submit reports to government.

LOCALISATION IN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS 1970– 1982

Period	Public sector		Private sector		Whole economy	
	Type A %	Type B %	Type A %	Type B %	Type A %	Type B %
1970-1972	80	74	47	36	70	48
1973-1977	83	93	52	60	74	75
1978-1982	90	97	54	72	80	82
1970-1982	85	89	51	59	75	70

Note: Type A = Professional Technical, Administrative and Management Jobs.
Type B = Blue Collar jobs

Source: Adopted from M.S. Matsebula, Human Resources Development in Swaziland: Role of Domestic and Foreign Sources in the Context of a Basic Needs Approach, 1984.



4.7 PROBLEMS FACED BY PRIVATE SECTOR ON TRAINING AND LOCALISATION.

A Trade School was started as far back as 1947, making training available in practical fields such as building and mechanics. By the end of 1950, the first apprentices were ready for employment. In the early seventies, this Trade School changed names to Swaziland College of Technology (SCOT). There were various complaints from the different companies that training at SCOT was not of the best. Hence the companies were burdened with having to enrich the training on the job.

A Report on Inspections and Visits:

A report on the above was carried out by the secretariat. Agreements were reached on important training programmes and localisation plans with a number

of major companies. But for lack of legislative backing these may not be endorsed nor are they obligatory to the employers. The report reads in part: “During the course of their duty, valuable data was collected, which information will prove useful when future decisions and plans are made on localisation. A new form designed by the secretariat will bind the employer to implement the agreed programme plans” (Report on Inspections and Visits, 1980, pg.8). Major companies were visited and inspected. The report reads thus in part concerning the construction industry: “The problems of and frustrations in the construction industry have already been put before the council. The training programmes will not be fulfilled and the localisation plans realised until some form of preferential treatment is given to Swazi-owned or Swazi-based companies. Unless dominance of our powerful neighbours in the construction industry is curtailed, there will be no trained and skilled Swazi Artisans and technicians for years to come and thus the localisation plans will stagnate, and Swaziland will continue to depend on other countries to do her construction work” (Ibid). The irony here was local industries were frustrating the locals to such an extent that they had to seek employment in South Africa.

It was not possible to train people to suit all the requirements of the various companies, but each company was empowered with the responsibility of polishing the apprentice to suit the company’s requirements.

At this time (the 70’s), localisation was thought of in the technician level and very few isolated cases in the clerical and administrative cadres. The main fear was that, if this continued, localisation would be incomplete as the focus was mainly on the technical side.

The standard of the artisans in Swaziland was accepted in the Republic of South Africa but not in Swaziland; hence artisans emigrated to South Africa where they were paid much higher salaries. There was non-recognition of City and Guilds Examination Certificate in the Kingdom of Swaziland, but the Republic of South Africa recognised it.

The country had enough technicians to take over from expatriates but these big companies did not accept them. The big companies were placing ceilings for the locals. There were blockages after qualifying and Swazis faced many obstacles at work. The apprentice would train and after he/she had qualified, would be told that he/she was not good enough for the job he/she had trained for. This resulted in the number of expatriates increasing in the companies. There was silent discrimination practiced by the big industries.



The Swazi government now requests big employers in the private sector to prepare training programmes and submit them to the Labour Department. The cooperation was very poor in the seventies. This was according to a Minute written to the Deputy Prime Minister by the Assistant Minister. It reads thus: "Some expatriates who enjoy the confidence of most of the managers in the country would be happy to delay a take over by local persons and they will do everything in their power to establish a machinery to achieve their objective and the Localisation Council will undoubtedly give this machinery. All we need is not Councils but coordination with Manpower (gender insensitivity) Planning Office. The starting point would be announcing publicly government policy as discussed by the Localisation Committee and follow the pattern of other African

States namely Zambia, Tanzania and Kenya” (Swaziland National Archives, Manpower Survey, DPM 170, 1971).

In as far as the Committee was concerned, one of the setbacks suffered by it was that there was a lack of a full time Executive to implement its decisions and carry out investigative work on its behalf.

The Committee encountered problems when monitoring training and localisation programmes. It found that there was no government machinery to enforce employers to implement the localisation plans and apply the training programmes. The Application Form for Temporary Residence Permit had no provision to bind the employer and expatriate employee to train counterpart staff. The authority of the Training and Localisation Council is not supported by legislation. To achieve meaningful localisation will entail several changes for both the employer and employee.



Lack of legislation has posed numerous problems in that on the number of visits that were made by government to the private companies, agreements were reached on important training programmes and localisation plans. But for lack of legislative backing, these agreements may not be endorsed nor are they obligatory to the employers. (At the time of writing this report, the relevant Bill was to be tabled before Parliament in 2003).

Another major drawback (in the 70's) to immediate and meaningful localisation was the limited supply of qualified candidates in industry and commerce to take up positions of responsibility. The cause is historical in that private companies did not make selections on the grounds of education, qualifications or with a view to later develop the Swazi candidate to senior positions. It was rumoured

that candidates who were 'not-so-educated' were preferred in the past. Many employers have, however, made amends for the oversight. However, this position can be said to have changed for the better.

Because the government has been experiencing problems due to the shortage of staff, "for the past two years, we have not met public officials. This is supposed to be annually, but we do submit reports on the progress we are making. In this way, government is kept abreast with what is going on" (Interview with the Human Resources Development Manager, Ubombo Sugar Company, June, 2003). Both the Localising Committee and the TLC have not met in the past two years.

The TLC "could be strengthened in addressing some of the problems faced by the entire country such as regular interventions by the government in terms of residence permits. These are not user friendly in that it becomes difficult to extend someone's permit even if valid reasons are advanced" (Interview, Human Resources Development Manager, Ubombo Sugar Company, June 2003).

The problem of the brain drain is also prevalent in the private sector, although it is not as serious as in the public sector. "All human beings at one stage find themselves stagnant and want a change of environment and greener pastures. The brain drain is a trend experienced worldwide. I am happy to say that we have not had an influx" (Ibid).

4.8 DRAFT HUMAN RESOURCES PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT BILL 2003 (EXCERPT)

At the time of writing, this Bill was to be tabled before Parliament by the Minister for Employment and Enterprise in 2003(as stated in the previous section). In a section entitled Registration of apprentice, section 36 clause (1) it reads thus:

1. A person who wishes to become an apprentice in a designated trade and who is-

- (a) 16 years of age or older; and
- (b) A citizen of the country,

may apply to the Secretary for registration as a candidate for apprenticeship. Part IV of the Bill is entitled "Preference As To Recruitment". Section 49 (1) reads thus: An employer who contemplates recruiting a person shall advertise the post in the local media.

2. Where there is not suitable candidate locally, for the advertised post, the employer may then advertise externally.

3. Local candidates shall be given preference in work positions where they possess the required skill for the advertised job

Work Permits

50 (1) an employer who intends to employ an expatriate shall, as a prerequisite for the granting of a work permit, submit a training and succession plan to the sub-committee of the National Training and Qualifications Authority.

(2) The Sub-Committee shall grant a work permit for such period as it may consider reasonable in the circumstances but such period shall not exceed five years at a time.

4.9 PRIVATE SECTOR PROGRESS IN TRAINING AND LOCALISATION

According to the Third National Development Plan, government was offering generous tax allowances to manufacturing firms that trained their employees as an incentive for private sectors to train their employees. Government intended to widen the coverage of this incentive to other sectors in order to advance rapid localisation. “This by itself is not enough and to achieve more rapid localisation in the private sector, government intends to exercise tighter control over the work permit system and to introduce a training levy. To this end, the staffing of the Labour Department will be strengthened. In future, before granting work permits for non-Swazis the Labour Department will require employers to submit a localisation plan setting target dates for the hiring and training of counterpart staff. Work permits will be renewed only after evidence is provided of satisfactory progress in implementing localisation plans” (Third National Development Plan, 1978-79-1982-83, pg. 56)

This proposed training levy scheme would supplement the existing system of tax allowances for training costs. This training would be administered by the ITB. A levy on wages paid to expatriates would be collected from employers in the private sector. This money would be channelled by the ITB into various training programmes. “Strict application of this scheme, and the work permit policies can be expected to reduce the number of expatriates in the

private sector by half by the end of the plan period” (Third National Development Plan, 1978-79-1982-83, pg. 56).

According to the Development Plan, in 1983, public sector localisation had been almost 95 per cent achieved. The expectation was that by the end of 1983, virtually all government posts would be held by Swazis, the exception being highly specialised posts (Ibid).

One of its main objectives under the Third National Development Plan was “training for localisation”. According to the Fourth national Development Plan, in 1981, over half the 3,000 non-Swazis employed in the country were private sector professionals, administrative or skilled manual workers (See Table 3.53 Appendix J).



According to the Human Resources Development Manager at Ubombo Sugar Company, the government together with the company are committed to training and localisation programmes. The government offers training programmes to the private sector and they attend. The Swazi government is also willing to hand over trained personnel. Names of candidates from the private sector who are competent to benefit from government training programmes (long-term) are handed over to the government. The private sector has benefited from this co-operation with the government to a certain extent.

The Ubombo Philosophy on training is that the company extends all its facilities to promote training and localisation policies.

“There are programmes in place at Ubombo to promote training such as the engineer in training. This is part of our effort to develop our technical

expertise. We send out our trainees to the highly reputed plants or training schools” (Interview, Human Resources Development Manager, Ubombo Sugar Company, June 2003).

According to this manager, localisation in the industry has done well, especially from the nineties onwards. The Holding Company though is South African-based (Illovo Group); 60% is South African and 40% Tibiyo Takangwane. (King Sobhuza II established Tibiyo Takangwane, through a royal charter. Its objective was to complement the Swaziland government’s national development efforts. In order to achieve its goals, Tibiyo actively promotes the establishment of viable projects in mining, agriculture, agro - industry, commerce/ industry services, all of which will contribute to the economic prosperity of the country. Tibiyo invites suitable and experienced foreign as well as local partners to either form joint venture projects with it or to run Tibiyo’s wholly owned projects under a management contract).

“We have secondees from South Africa for a 3 year period. This would be seen as a deacceleration of the localisation process. However, this is not the case because these secondees train the locals who are then ready to take over from the expatriates thereafter” (Interview, Human Resources Development Manager, Ubombo Sugar Company, June 2003). Local people are taking over managerial positions in the company according to the Human Resources Development Manager and the trend has been rising since the nineties. An advantage of using the secondee system is that they are there for a short while, whilst in the past, the position was not so clear. You were never sure when the expatriate would vacate the position. The

company's structure is now based on a ratio of 50/50, whilst before, the expatriates monopolised the senior positions in the private sector.

“Localisation in the nineties has been more focused on key performance areas with the majority of managers being locals from front line managers and above. There are programmes that have been put in place such as technical operational practices, best practices etc. to eliminate possibilities of expatriates taking over middle and high management positions” (Ibid).

One of the strengths of the TLC is that it serves as the government's watchdog and because of this, the local people are given an opportunity to take over managerial positions. At Ubombo Sugar Company, the position of HRD was solely for expatriates for the past 20-30 years. The position is for the first time in 20-30 years now in the hands of a local. The good news is that she happens to be a woman, which is also a first for this company regarding this position. This is a really thumb up for Swaziland who in my opinion still leaves much to be desired in gender issues.

The Human Resource Bill has been a great stride for Swaziland in the Public Sector. The Bill addresses issues such as the number of locals expected to be in management positions in a certain company. It stipulates the number of years an expatriate is expected to stay i.e. 3 years and then a local takes over.

4.10 SUMMARY

This chapter has dealt with the various initiatives that were put in place to kick-start the localisation process in the private sector. It also examined

problems encountered by the private sector and the progress that has been made. The new bill has also been discussed.

The next chapter will discuss the following issues:

- a) Analysis of the Education and Training during the colonial period and the prevailing situation in both sectors.
- b) Achievements made by the Training and Localisation Policy.

The chapter will also conclude the study and outline its recommendations.



CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

5.1.1 Introduction

This Chapter will analyse the prevailing situation in both the public and private sectors regarding training and localisation. It will also examine the achievements made by the training and localisation policy in trying to reverse the unequal education and training opportunities created and perpetuated by the British Colonial System. Further, it will compare the trends in the private and public sectors and furnish reasons for this as well as bringing to light efforts made to correct the prevailing problems.

Conclusion and recommendations will be advanced as a way forward.



5.1.2 Analysis of Education and Training during the colonial period and the prevailing situation in both sectors

The previous chapters have brought to light how the British colonialists neglected secondary education for local Swazis and how the budget for education favoured the European children as opposed to the locals. As mentioned in the previous chapters, it was through Queen Regent Labotsibeni's efforts that most high schools were built such as Zombodze, Matsapha, and Mahamba High Schools. Many of the schools for higher learning came into being after independence. The localisation process gained momentum in the years following independence in 1968 to the 80's, especially in the public sector. Initially, Swaziland produced many graduates from the Universities of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. It was later in 1976 when the University of Botswana and Swaziland was established after Lesotho had pulled out. In 1982,

this formal bilateral arrangement was brought to an end by mutual consent and UBS was separated into the University of Swaziland respectively. During these years, Swaziland was sending its local candidates to the local university and the University of Botswana and abroad for training. Donor funds were by then easy to secure such as CFTC, USAID, UNESCO etc. Some of these donors have since dried up or have focused their attention elsewhere, thus the need for the Government of Swaziland to change its training policy and put more emphasis on the need to train regionally and in Africa. In 1994, South Africa attained independence, which was a blessing for Swaziland because the cost of training has gone down. The reason for this is that the Lilangeni is at par with the Rand as compared to the value of the Dollar or Pound to the Lilangeni.

Although in the beginning not having legislation was a deliberate and calculated attempt not to scare investors, after 1994 this became problematic for Swaziland. The absence of legislation was a result of fear of the unknown. Swaziland is nestled between South Africa and Mozambique and this explains why South Africa's independence in 1994 affected Swaziland negatively. Unlike before, Swaziland found itself having to compete with South Africa for investors, who had flocked into Swaziland because of the apartheid laws. The country is nowadays constantly competing with South Africa to entice investors. Another problem experienced by Swaziland due to the absence of legislation is that, as the Training Officer of Sappi Usuthu put it, "the absence of legislation has led to the localisation policy being like a toothless dog. They do not have the final authority on issues affecting their function" (Interview, Training Officer, Sappi Usuthu, June, 2003).

A Draft Bill has been tabled before Parliament as mentioned earlier because of MP's lobbying. Political support from government is lacking. Progress will be realized if there is commitment on the part of government. Swaziland has not been successful in realising positive results to the fullest in localisation because of the absence of legislation.

Swaziland had to make a belated attempt in drafting legislation because both Mozambique and South Africa's economies are stabilizing. The country has had to take a firm stand on the localisation policy. The two countries are putting Swaziland in a difficult situation because retaining trained personnel is a problem, and the economy is not doing well. It seems that Swaziland is training for other countries.



From the mid nineties, the public sector has regressed in terms of the pace of localisation especially in the public sector. This can be attributed to the fact that South Africa gained independence in 1994 and this opened many doors for the locals. The pay structure within the civil service in Swaziland is very low as compared to neighbouring countries such as South Africa, Lesotho, and Botswana. Swaziland is continuing to lose trained personnel. The situation was further compounded by the free movement of labour within the SADC region, which is working against Swaziland. Apart from the bonding system, there is no long-term mechanism that has been put in place to retain trained personnel. The brain drain continues to deplete the civil service of its trained personnel. The bonding system has not had the desired effect. The Government of Swaziland continues to train its local personnel only to lose it to the private sector or neighbouring countries.

The recent restructuring of salaries has so far proven to be a disaster as the majority of civil servants were dissatisfied with the new salaries (mainly professionals) because initially this restructuring of salaries was meant to curb the brain drain and retain professionals within the civil service. The Circular No. 8 of 2003, which was released in May 2003 to effect the new salaries, was suspended because of the public outcry from civil servants. Civil servants have made appeals and it remains to be seen what will happen next.

In most of the Ministries, posts that were previously localised from expatriates have reverted to black expatriates from neighbouring countries. To quote a few cases, for instance in the Ministry of Public Service and Information the post of Assistant Management Analyst is from the Democratic Republic of Congo; in the Ministry of Natural Resources and Energy, the post of land evaluator was previously localised, but due to frustrations and low pay, the local resigned and was recruited by the private sector. The post was then advertised and a Zambian national was recruited. When looking closely, one finds that most of these expatriates are from the SADC region. This is because of the SADC concept of allowing free movement of persons to gain employment anywhere in the SADC region. There are key positions in every country that are reserved for trained local personnel, and if there is free movement of personnel, a contradiction will arise in terms of the localisation policy. The post of land evaluator is to date occupied by a Ghanaian. The Advisor to the Prime Minister is a British expatriate. The Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs has recruited several black expatriates, for instance the post of Director of Public Prosecution has been monopolized by foreigners. For a number of years a Ghanaian national occupied the post and after he left, a Kenyan national was

recruited. Court of Appeal Judges were all from South Africa and have since resigned. According to the *Times of Swaziland*, July 29, 2003, most lawyers in the country are not happy about the reports that government will run advertisements in Zimbabwean, Ugandan, and Zambian newspapers seeking Court of Appeal Judges. The local lawyers are very unhappy about this move and feel that government is looking down upon them. Such a move clearly shows that government does not trust them in terms of ensuring the smooth and unbiased administration of justice. They feel that government should seek local candidates to fill the posts instead of seeking foreign candidates. The President of the Law Society had this to say, "I think it's crazy. In fact, it doesn't make sense at all. As far as we are concerned, we do have judges of the Court of Appeal. In fact, I don't think that seeking foreign judges is a good idea because in Zambia for instance, they use the English Law whilst Swaziland uses the Roman Dutch Law as the general law" (Interview with the President of the Law Society by *Times of Swaziland*, July 29, 2003). Problems are bound to arise due to the differences in the kind of laws used.

Expatriates have also monopolized the post of Chief Justice. For instance, the outgoing Chief Justice was from South Africa while the previous one was from England. It remains to be seen whether the post will ever be localised.

In the 70's and 80's some of the technical and professional posts were still occupied by expatriates. This can be attributed to the fact that the education system was unable to cope with the country's demands for technical and professional cadres." This scenario is still prevalent even today as the few Swazis with technical qualifications opt to work for the industries and parastatal sector, to the detriment of the civil service. One cause for this is the strong

dislike for working under expatriate engineers, some of whom are under-qualified. The civil service has lost quite a substantial number of the technical and professional cadres to South Africa where the pay is high as compared to Swaziland” (Interview, Swazi Engineer, Ministry of Natural Resources, Land Utilisation and Energy, June 2003).

Swaziland has recently embarked on a Medium Term Budgetary Process. It is part of the EU-funded project. There were various reasons for this project and the main one is the lack of discipline in fiscal policy, which in turn leads to:

- ❑ Contradictions between policies and allocation of resources.
- ❑ Undermining macro-economic stability.
- ❑ Resulting in increasing deficits and inadequate funding for some high priority operations



A consultant has been recruited from Ghana to undertake this exercise. There are qualifying Swazis who are capable and the reason for going outside the country is not clear except that locals are not given a fair chance to prove themselves. There is this general belief that anything foreign is better when it comes to trained personnel. Instead of improving the salary structure, the government goes outside to recruit, incurring more expenses because of the allowances given to expatriates. The government is clearly undermining the localisation process, and the brain drain is taking its toll because due to prevailing frustrations. The Government of Swaziland has not found an effective mechanism to retain its trained personnel, which is to the detriment of the country, as the budget has to be stretched to accommodate the allowances given to expatriates.

There are some professions that have been hit hard by the brain drain such as nursing, medicine and teaching. Professionals from these fields have mainly emigrated to South Africa, Britain and even Arab-countries. The government has had to recruit nurses mainly from Zimbabwe, doctors from Zambia, Zimbabwe and Ethiopia and West Africa. Most teachers have emigrated to neighbouring countries such as South Africa and Botswana. Instead of addressing the retention of trained personnel issue, the government has plans to establish a medical school in the country where doctors and other medical staff will be trained. This will not solve the problem as doctors and nurses will be trained and leave for greener pastures. Thus, Swaziland might still be training for other countries, hence a vicious cycle.

In the Private Sector, (mainly the companies I interviewed) I observed that the localisation process has been steadily growing over the years especially from the 90s onwards. Positions in Middle Management and to some extent Senior Management have been localised. The drive for localisation has grown and is gaining momentum. For example at Ubombo Sugar, the position of Human Resources Development Manager was for the past 20-30 years solely for expatriates. The position of CEO at Swazi MTN has recently been localised, the position of president of SFE has been localised, as well as the CEO position, and training officer post at Sappi Usuthu.

At Sappi Usuthu, Junior positions up to Middle management level have been localised 100% whilst senior management positions have been localised 20%. The number of expatriates has declined considerably over the years (see Sappi Usuthu tables, Appendices K, L, M).

At Swazi MTN, locally recruited and appointed nationals have filled all senior management positions. The trend since the 90's is indeed steadily growing in the private sector as opposed to the public sector for the reasons that I have advanced.

5.1.3 Achievements made by the Training and Localisation Policy

There have been a number of major achievements that have been made by the training and localisation policy in trying to reverse the unequal education and training opportunities created and perpetuated by the British Colonial System.

In a bid to empower Swazis, Mobile Telephone Networks has appointed a Swazi Local to assume the position of the outgoing Chief Executive Officer.

The newly appointed CEO will be the first Swazi national to occupy such a high profiled position in the company. This move is in line with the localisation policy to localise senior positions. The new CEO has been promoted from Chief Technical Officer to the present position. He has vast experience in the telecommunications industry as he was previously employed by the Swaziland Posts and Telecommunications (SPTC), MTN South Africa and Telkom South Africa. Because of this new appointment to a senior management position, all senior management positions within Swazi MTN will be filled by locally recruited and appointed nationals. The incoming CEO has an advantage because of his vast experience in the local and South African telecommunications industries and possesses an MSc in Electrical Engineering from the United States and a Post Graduate Diploma from the United Kingdom. Because of his vast experience as well as exposure to both fixed-line and cellular networks, it is widely believed that the CEO will have no difficulty in carrying out his duties.

For the first time in the life of the Swaziland Federation of Employers, the President is a local. The Executive Director of this newly merged Federation of Employers - Chamber of Commerce is the second local to be appointed in this post. The only first here is that she is a woman.

The pace of localisation has been steadily growing in the private sector with most middle management and some senior management positions being occupied by Swazis. The drive for localisation is growing and gaining momentum. The budget in most of the companies I interviewed is 100% or a little under which is committed to training locals.

Government is committed to maximising the use of local human resources and ensuring an adequate supply of suitably qualified personnel to staff the public and private sectors of the economy. For the localisation programme to be operationalised, government has to invest in human capital since a well-developed system of training is an important attraction to investors.

Three government institutions, namely the Swaziland Institute of Management and Administration (SIMPA), and the Directorate of Industrial and Vocational Training and the In-Service Training Section of the Ministry of Labour and Public Service (MOLPS), are responsible for assisting in the achievement of this goal.

SIMPA evolved from the then Staff Training Institute that catered mainly for junior government officer courses in clerical, secretarial and basic accounting skills. In 1975, SIMPA widened its activities to provide a variety of training

programmes for every level of government and parastatal organisations. The institution now caters for private as well as public organisations.

The In- Service Training Section of the Manpower (gender insensitivity) Development and Training Division, MOLPS, is a clearinghouse, which administers requests from government agencies for staff training in appropriate institutions in Swaziland and overseas.

Progress that has been made with the localisation policy cannot be overlooked in the civil service. There were positive achievements in all fields i.e. economic, cultural, and social by the efforts of Swazis. The BLS countries joined forces to accelerate pressure on South Africa to join a new Customs Agreement on December 11, 1969. Swaziland benefited immensely and was able to balance her budget. Swazis forged trade links with other independent African countries and other continents. To a large extent, I think patriotism and the wish to see one's country competing with others played a great part and gave them a sense of pride as locals. The King once said, "It is in the interest of all who work and earn in Swaziland to give full participation to the indigenous people so that they may not see industry or any other business as a foreign exploitation but as part of their own work" (Kuper, 1978, pg. 310).

The Government of Swaziland has trained a large percentage of its population and continues to do so even after much donor funding dried up. Many senior positions have now been localised, which is a plus for Swaziland when looking back at the colonial period. Further, training opportunities are available to all Swazis who qualify and are made a priority, as the drive is to localise.

5.2 Recommendations

In trying to improve the existing situation in order to address the loopholes that exist in the localisation policy, there should be coordination between localisation, training and the Ministry of Education. This coordination would be ideal after the report on the Skills Survey is published. The fragmentation of these ministries and departments is not good for training and localisation. Currently, the Localisation Department falls under the Ministry of Enterprise and Employment and the Training Department falls under the Ministry of Public Service and Employment. The two departments should fall under one ministry. The Localisation department is not receiving the necessary support from the Ministry of Enterprise and Employment. The Localisation department reports directly to Labour, which is not concerned with localisation but with Industrial Relations. The situation was much better when the department was with the Ministry of Public Service and Information because the training section had an interest in localisation as you train to localise.

The government has to raise revenue to train locals as in most developing countries. The government advocated the concept of the Training Levy, although it was never implemented. It has been practised in other countries. It was unfortunate that it never received support from the relevant stakeholders. Smaller companies felt they would not be able to compete with bigger companies in recruiting trained personnel because the big companies would be able to pay more. Government was to contribute towards this levy as well as the private sectors. This idea would have been ideal in that this fund would have helped government in training its personnel.

A contradiction arises in that the companies are concerned about production whilst the government is concerned about localising posts within the companies. Training locals then becomes a burden for the employer. It is most unfortunate that this fund did not take off the ground. Steps should be taken to revive the training levy.

The localisation department is a misfit in the current ministry that it falls under in that a conflict of interest arises. The commerce department falls under the same ministry and is concerned about investing investors. There is the Swaziland Investment Promotions Authority, which is a parastatal falling under the same ministry. The Managing Director of SIPA reports to the Minister. SIPA and Commerce are mainly concerned about promoting investment and never concern themselves about training and localisation. This is where the conflict of interest arises in that Training and Localisation emphasizes regulatory measures to ensure that the two are given priority. Commerce and SIPA never inform investors about government expectations i.e. complementing the welfare of the trained personnel of Swaziland. When this aspect is emphasized, it becomes a conflict of interest because Commerce is not concerned about this. It is very important to minimise conflict in order to promote the smooth running of the localisation policy. The localisation department should be placed under the Ministry of Public Service and Information where the training section is.

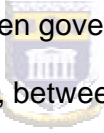
There are obvious problems with the temporary residence permits issued by the immigration department. For instance, the numbers of expatriates at a given time were not known and that those who did not hold Work Permits but were employed, could not be identified. The recommendation would be to establish a

system to control the issue of permits . The Training and Localisation Section who would give the necessary comments should consider the applications for Permits before discussion.

To promote efficiency and accuracy in the maintenance of the Applications Register, the Under Secretary for Training and Localisation should uphold close liaison with the Director of the National Employment Services and the Chief Immigration Officer.

The need to improve the staffing of the section both qualitatively and quantitatively should be considered.

A new application form for Work Permits should be introduced to bind the employer at the outset to apply localisation plans.

There should be close liaison between government agencies responsible for training and industry and commerce,  between the SCOT and industry and commerce, between the University and industry and commerce.

Training should be coordinated in the country.

The DPM's Office, the FSE and CC and industry should educate job-seekers and qualified personnel on job opportunities in industry and commerce by advertising through the media and by issuing regular statements.

The contradiction that exists regarding the free movement of persons in the SADC region has to be addressed. This is clearly clashing with the localisation policy in that the government trains its locals in order to localise whilst this SADC concept advocates the opposite. The present situation is such that the government is training for other SADC countries so long as this situation exists.

Another very critical point is that the government has to find a way of retaining trained personnel.

5.3 SUMMARY

This concluding chapter attempted to analyse the prevailing situation in both the public and private sectors on the issue of training and localisation in Swaziland.

There have been various achievements that have been made by this policy which have been brought to light. A comparison of the trends in both the private and public sectors was made pertaining to localisation issues. Lastly, recommendations were made as a way forward.

This chapter has dealt with the following issues:

- a) Analysis of education and training during the colonial period and the prevailing situation in both the public and private sectors.
- b) Achievements made in the implementation of the Training and Localisation Policy.

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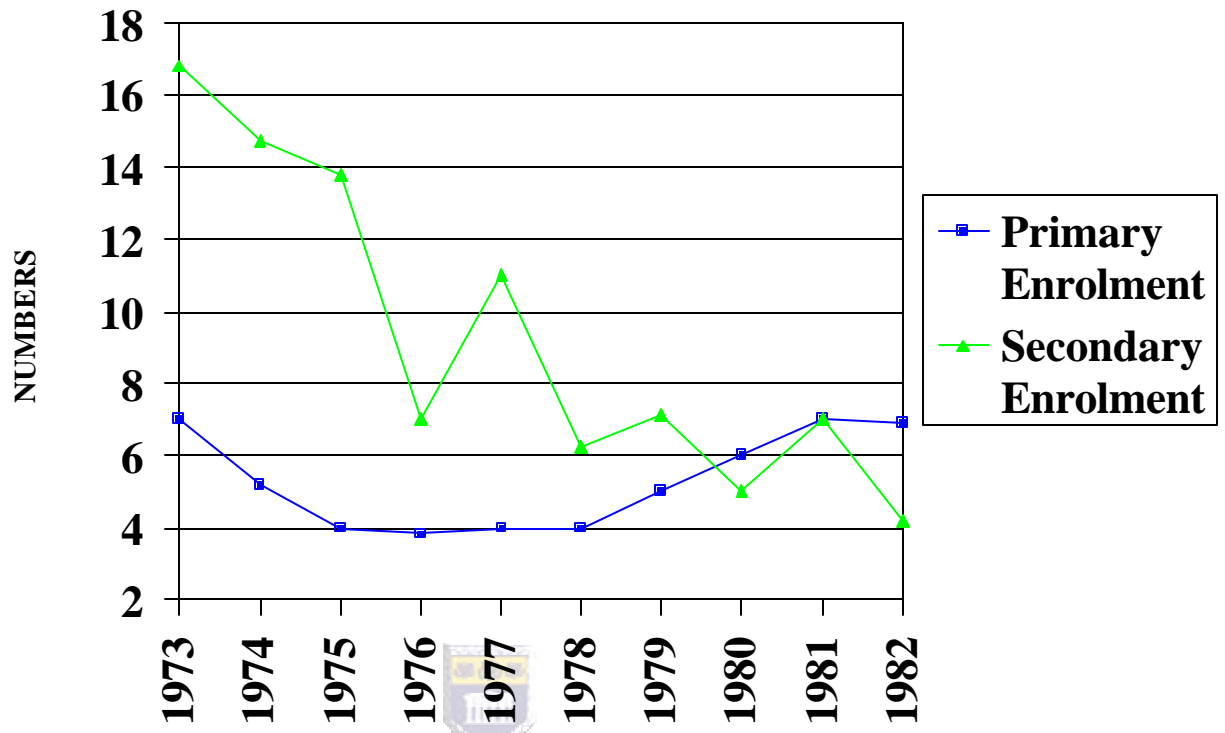
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1. Dlamini Sifiso Mr., Deputy Chief Executive Officer, Swaziland Federation of Employers and the Chamber of Commerce, June, 2003.
2. Hlatshwayo Vuyisile Mr., Public Relations Officer, MTN Swaziland, July 2003.
3. Maphalala Thembie Ms., Training Officer, Sappi Usuthu, June 2003.
4. Mayisela Donald Mr., Engineer, Ministry of Natural Resources, Land Utilization and Energy, June 2003.
5. Mkhonta Dickson Mr., Senior Localisation Officer, Ministry of Enterprise and Employment, June 2002.
6. Muir Pat Mr., Director, Human Resource Division, Ministry of Public Service and Information, June 2002.
7. Priscilla Ngcobo Mrs., Human Resource Development Manager, Ubombo Sugar Limited, June 2003.
8. Nxumalo Sanele Mrs., Principal Personnel Officer, Human Resource Planning and Development, Ministry of Public Service and Information, June 2003.
9. Twala Roman Mr., Immigration Officer, Ministry of Home Affairs, June 2002.
10. Zulu Zibonele Ms., Senior Government Official, Ministry of Public Service and Information, June 2003.

FIGURE 35: Appendix A
 SCHOOL ENROLMENTS (1973 – 82) ANNUAL PERCENTAGE GROWTH
 (Over Previous Year)



Source: Ministry of Education

TABLE 3.38: Appendix B
SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION STATISTICS (1977– 1982)

	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Compound Growth Rate (1978-1982) Percentage
No. Of Schools	70	76	81	82	86	86	3.1
- Junior	43	48	51	49	49	47	-0.5
- High	27	28	30	33	37	39	8.6
No. Of Pupils	19,359	20,584	22,091	23,198	24,826	26,469	6.5
- Junior	8,931	9,292	10,199	10,166	10,333	10,793	3.8
- High	10,428	11,292	11,899	13,032	14,493	15,676	8.5
No. Of Teachers	978	1,073	1,158	1,292	1,433	1,501	8.8
- Junior	439	464	515	564	579	590	6.2
- High	539	609	643	728	854	911	10.6
No. Of Qualified Teachers	741	811	908	992	1,107	1,172	9.6
- Junior	259	284	342	369	390	395	8.6
- High	482	527	566	623	717	777	10.2
No of separate Teaching Rooms	559	683	802	819	835	957	8.8
- Junior	250	285	371	360	334	367	6.5
- High	347	398	431	459	501	590	10.3
Pupil: Teacher Ratio	20	19	19	18	17	18	
- Junior	20	20	20	18	18	18	
- High	19	19	19	18	17	17	
Pupil: Qualified Teacher Ratio	26	25	24	23	22	23	
- Junior	34	33	30	27	27	27	
- High	22	21	21	21	20	20	
Percentage Teacher Qualified	75.8	75.6	78.4	76.8	77.3	78.1	
- Junior	59.0	61.2	66.4	65.4	67.4	66.9	
- High	89.4	86.5	88.0	85.6	84.0	85.3	
Percentage Teacher – Swazi	60.1	65.5	69.9	76.8	77.9	81.5	
- Junior	79.3	80.2	87.0	91.0	89.5	92.9	
- High	44.5	54.4	56.3	62.2	70.1	74.2	
Pupils per separate Teaching room	35	30	28	28	30	28	
- Junior	36	33	27	28	31	29	
- High	30	28	28	28	29	27	

Source: Ministry of Education, compiled by Department of Economic Planning & Statistics.

TABLE 3.39: Appendix C

JUNIOR SECONDARY AND SENIOR SECONDARY

ENROLMENTS AND REPEATERS (1977 – 1982)

	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
<u>Junior Secondary¹</u>						
- Enrolment	15,949	16,619	17,902	18,561	19,712	20,968
- Repeaters	593	585	764	885	1,318	1,368
- % Repeaters	3.7	3.5	4.3	4.8	6.7	6.5
<u>Senior Secondary²</u>						
- Enrolment	3,410	3,965	4,189	4,637	5,114	5,501
- Repeaters	69	49	58	104	134	187
- % Repeaters	2.0	1.2	1.2	2.2	2.2	3.4
<u>Total Secondary</u>						
- Enrolment	19,359	20,584	22,091	23,198	24,826	26,469
- Repeaters	662	634	822	989	1,452	1,555
- % Repeaters	3.4	3.1	3.7	4.3	5.8	5.9

Source: Ministry of Education, compiled by Department of Economic Planning and Statistics.

Notes: ¹ Forms I – III.

² Forms IV –

TABLE 3.40: Appendix D
ENROLMENT IN TEACHER TRAINING (1978 – 1982)

Course	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	Compound Growth Rate (1978 – 1982)
Primary Teacher Certificate						
- First Year	140	117	154	123	178	6.2%
- Second Year	110	138	119	153	119	2.0%
- Total	250	255	273	276	297	4.4%
Primary Upgrading	100	103	120	120	360	37.7%
Secondary Teacher Certificate						
- First Year	56	58	61	70	92	13.2%
- Second Year	59	53	54	62	70	4.4%
- Total	115	111	115	132	162	8.9%
Home Economics	10	10	10	10	10	0.0%

Source: Ministry of Education

TABLE 3.41 Appendix E

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY TEACHING STAFF, BY QUALIFICATION, 1982

Qualification	Primary		Secondary	
	Number	% Of Total	Number	% Of Total
Graduate	24	0.6	439	29.2
- Trained	-	-	301	20.0
- Untrained	-	-	138	9.2
Post Matric with Training	65	1.7	688	45.9
Pre Matric with Training	3, 216	85.4	45	3.0
- PHC + PTC+HE ¹	1, 471	39.0	-	-
- PLC+PLU ²	1, 748	46.4	-	-
Uncertified	464	12.3	329	21.9
Uncertified	3, 769	100.0	1, 501	100.0
TOTAL				

Source Ministry of Education

Notes: ¹ PHC: Primary Higher Certificate) J.C.E or above +
 PTC: Primary Teacher Certificate) two years training
 HE: Home Economics
²PLC: Primary Lower Certificate: Form I + two years training.
 PLU: PLU plus 6 weeks in-service training

TABLE 3.42: Appendix F
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS TEACHING PRACTICAL SUBJECTS 1978 AND 1982

Subject/School	1978	1982	Compound Growth Rate (1978-82)
Agriculture			
- Primary	45	75	13.6%
- Junior Primary	31	51	13.3%
- High School	2	7	36.8%
Home Economics			
- Primary	105	166	12.1%
- Junior Secondary	29	48	13.4%
- High School	10	14	8.8%
Technical Subjects			
- Secondary	21	41	18.2%

Source: Ministry of Education

Appendix G

Table 45: UNISWA Staff and Total Environments 1994/95 – 1996/97			
	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97
Students	2155	2383	2533
Staff	175	187	219
SSR	12.3	12.7	12.6

Source: UNISWA

TABLE 3.47: Appendix H
STUDENTS IN FORMAL TRAINING BY FIELD AND PLACE OF STUDY
1978/79 AND 1981/82

Fields of Study	Place of Study				Percentage of Total		Percentage Change (1978/79 – 1981/82)
	1978/79		1981/82		1978/79	1981/82	
	Local	Abroad	Local	Abroad			
Agriculture and Forestry	158 (18)	18	131 (20)	4	13%	7%	-23%
Professional/ Social and Economic Studies	249 (110)	31	264 (195)	9	20%	15%	-3%
Education	425 (20)	9	528 (18)	1	32%	27%	22%
University Graduates with CDE	104 (104)	-	101 (101)	-	9%	5%	-2%
Engineering and Technician	141 (20)	27	210 (19)	25	12%	13%	40%
Crafts	43 (-)	-	104 (-)	-	4%	6%	142%
Law	27 (21)	6	90 (-)	13	2%	6%	212%
Science/ Medical and Paramedical course	96 (54)	21	369 (209)	23	7%	20%	235%
Others	15 (-)	-	12 (-)	2	1%	1%	-
TOTAL	1258	112	1809	77	100%	100%	
Percentage of Total	92%	8%	96%	4%			

Source: Ministry of Education

Appendix I source: UNISWA

Table 46: SCOT – Staff and Student Numbers, 1994 - 1996			
	1994	1995	1996
Students	772	910	1000
Staff	68	71	72
SSR	11.4	12.8	13.9
Source: Ministry of Education			
Notes: 1. Figures include the fulltime equivalents of part time students and staff			
2. Principal and Vice Principal excluded (as non-teaching staff)			
3. SSR = Staff/Student Ratio			

Notes: ¹ Numbers equipped to teach technical subjects

TABLE 3.53 Appendix J
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR EMPLOYMENT BY SKILL 1981
PERCENTAGE SWAZI CITIZENS

Skill Level	Private Sector Percentage Swazi	Public Sector Percentage Swazi
Professional and Technical Administrative and Managerial	52	88
Clerical	57	93
Skilled	97	99
Semi-Skilled	77	99
Unskilled	98	99
Total	99	100
	96	96

Source: Department of Economic Planning and Statistics.

Source: Swaziland Training Reports 1978/79 and 1981/82; Central Statistics Office Annual Statistical Bulletin.

Notes: Figures in brackets refer to students enrolled in degree level courses.

Notes: Per cent Swazi is the Percentage of total employment in each skill category held by Swazi citizens.

Appendix K

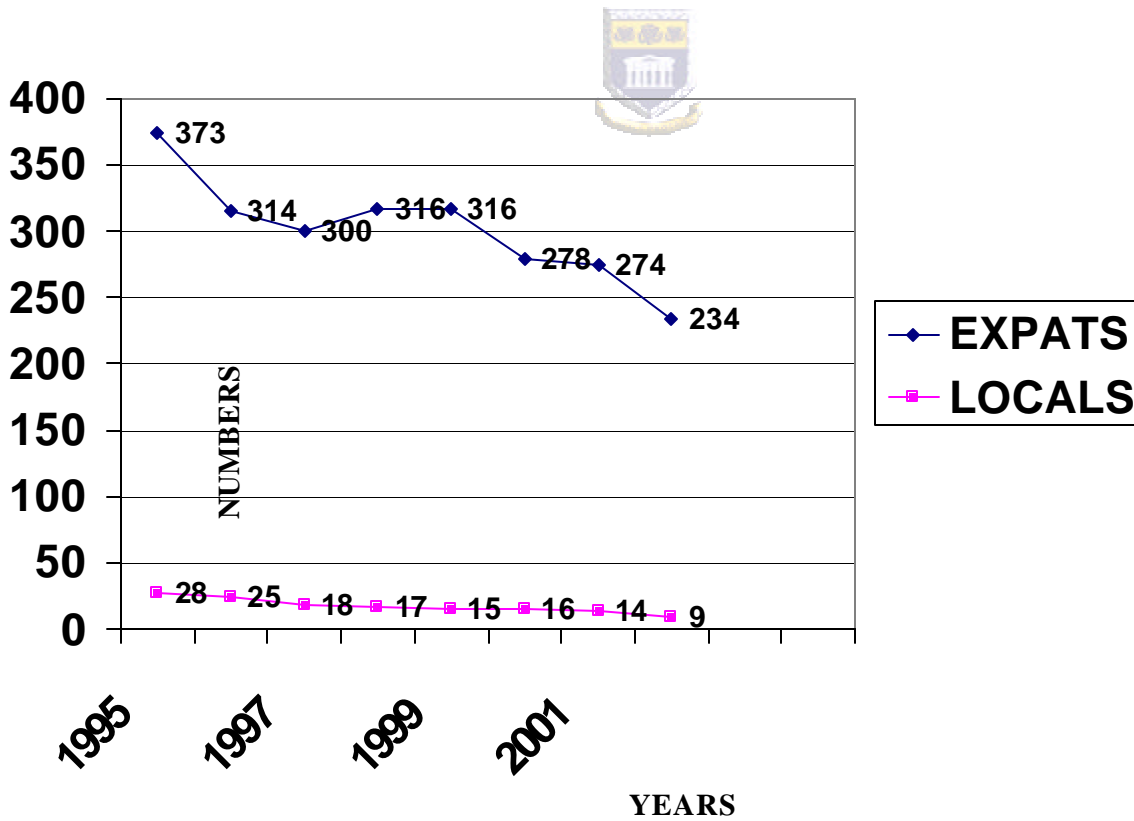
TABLE 47: VOCTIM – Staff & Total Enrolment Numbers, 1994 – 1996		
	1994	1995
1996		
Students	179	232
300		
Staff	27	31
34		
SSR	6.6	7.5
8.8		

Source: Ministry of Education

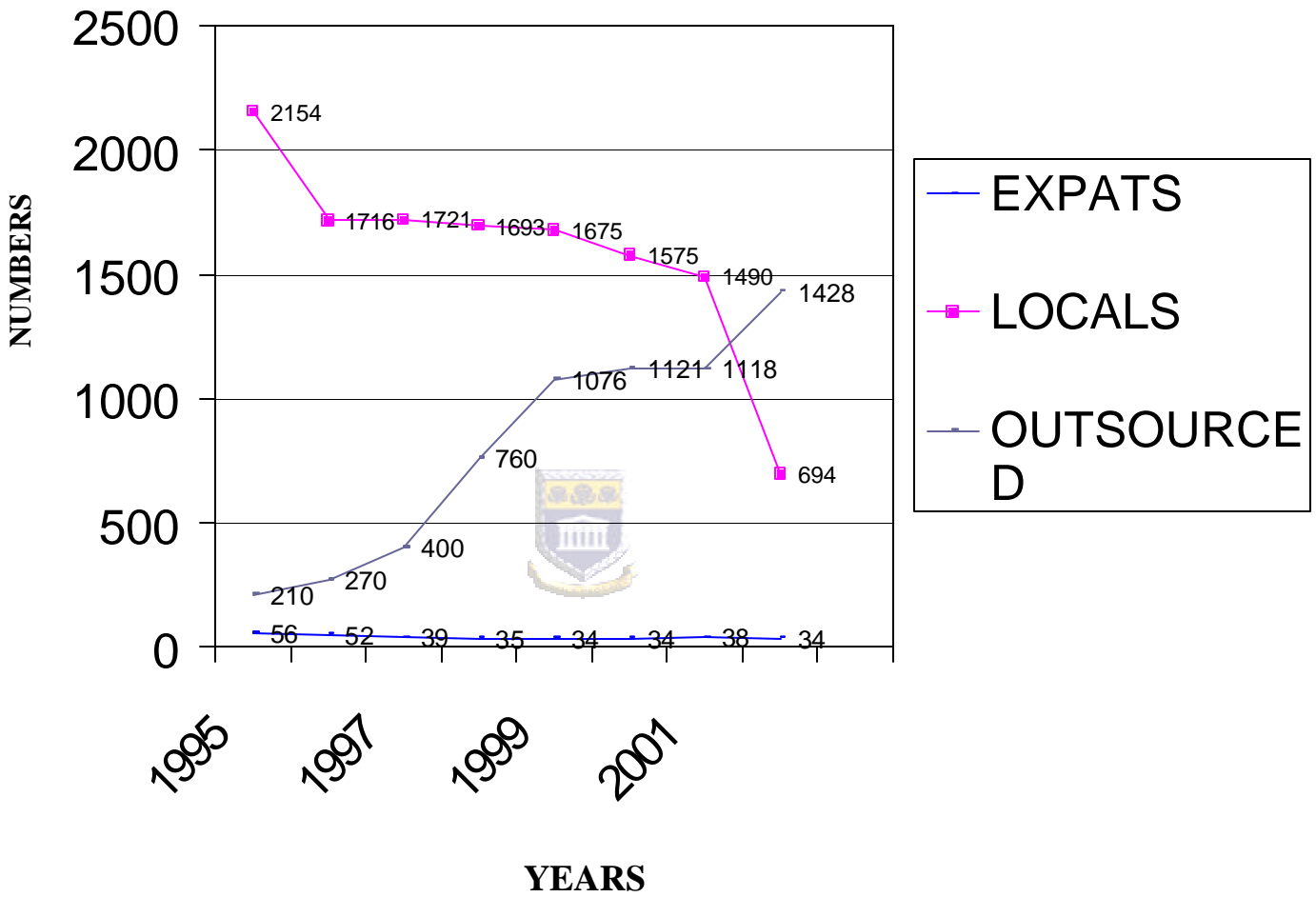
Appendix L

SAPPI ENGINEERING LOCALISATION TRENDS 1995-2002

Source: Sappi Usuthu

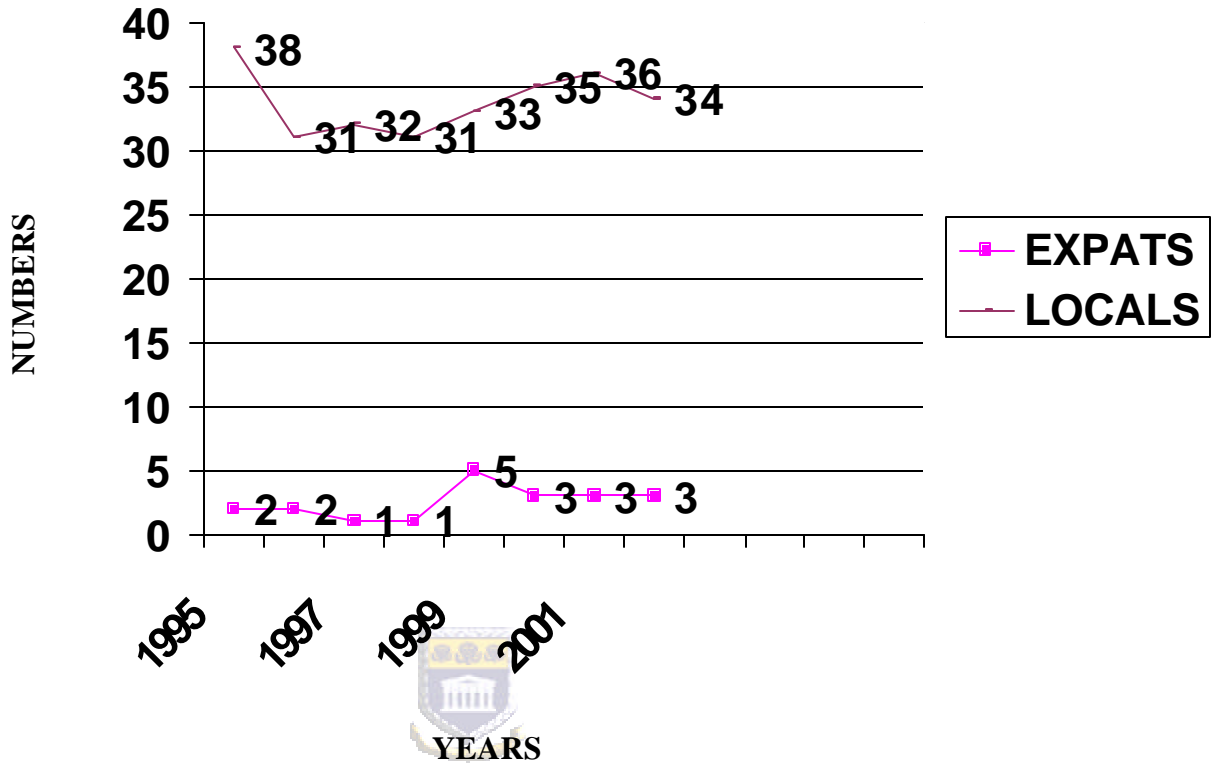


Appendix M
SAPPI USUTU PERSONNEL / EMPOWERMENT TRENDS 1995-2002



Source: Sappi Usuthu

Appendix N
SAPPI TECHINICAL LOCALISATION TRENDS 1995-2002



Source: Sappi Usuthu