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PERSPECTIVES ON PRACTICE AND POLICY

Success Increasing Access and Retention
in Primary Education in

BOTSWANA

Agreement Lathi Jotia





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Purpose

The world is approaching the 2015 deadline for achieving universal primary education—a target identified by both UNESCO in the World Declaration for All (2000) and the United Nations in the Millennium Development Goals (2000). *Educate a Child* commissioned four scholars to look at the successes and challenges faced by their respective countries that are close to achieving the goal—Botswana, Brazil, Lebanon, Malaysia.

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List of Abbreviations

ANC	African National Congress
ARV	Antiretroviral Drug
BCP	Botswana Congress Party
BDP	Botswana Democratic Party
BEDIA	Botswana Export Development and Investment Authority
Bed	Bachelor of Education
BOFEPUSO	Botswana Federation of Public Sector Union
BHC	Botswana Housing Corporation
BMC	Botswana Meat Commission
BMD	Botswana Movement for Democracy
BNF	Botswana National Front
BPP	Botswana People's Party
CEDA	Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
COS	Central Statistics Office
DIP	Diploma in Education
EFA	Education for All
EPDC	Education Policy Data Center
ETC	Elementary Teacher Certificate
EU	European Union
IEC	Independent Electoral Commission
GNP	Gross National Product
GER	Gross Enrollment Rate
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IBE	International Bureau of Education
IMF	International Monetary Fund
LEA	Local Enterprise Authority
MDG	Millennium Development Goals



Med	Master of Education
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoESD	Ministry of Education and Skills Development
MP	Member of Parliament
NACA	National AIDS Co-ordinating Agency
NCE	National Commission on Education
NDB	National Development Bank
NER	Net Enrollment Rate
OP	Office of the President
PH	Primary Higher
PL	Primary Lower
PSLE	Primary School Leaving Examination
PTC	Primary Teacher Certificate
RNPE	Revised National Policy on Education
SACU	Southern Africa Customs Union
SADF	South African Defence Force
SCD	Social and Community Development
SES	Socioeconomic Status
SWAPO	South West Africa People's Organization
UCCSA	United Congregational Church of Southern Africa
UDC	Umbrella for Democratic Change
UIS	UNESCO Institute of Statistics
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Children's Organization
USA	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
ZAPU	Zimbabwe African People's Union



Executive Summary

A stable democracy with a dynamic economy, Botswana has made great strides increasing access, retention, and quality in primary schooling since independence in 1968. Various government policies and programs as well as initiatives by the private sector and international organizations contributed to improvements in enrollment rates between 1970 and 1997. Moreover, from 1997 to 2010, despite being ravaged by the HIV/AIDS epidemic—Botswana has the world’s second highest incidence—the country managed to maintain the enrollment rate for 6- to 12-year-olds at approximately 90 percent and, though the enrollment rate for 7- to 13-year-olds declined from near 100 percent, it remained above 90 percent. Although education expenditure is among the highest in the world,¹ the goal of universal primary education (UPE) remains unfulfilled. In addition, despite significant investment in facilities and teacher training, the quality of education, as measured in students’ learning outcomes, declined. The primary school student-teacher ratio decreased from 36 in 1970 to 25 in 2009 and teacher training and qualifications improved between 1991 and 2009, yet the pass rate of students taking the Primary School Leaving Examinations decreased from 79.1 percent in 2005 to 69.8 percent 2008, with approximately the same percentage of students sitting for the exam.

To chart Botswana’s performance regarding access, retention, and quality in primary schooling, Agreement Lathi Jotia collected and analyzed more than 40 years of data (1970–2012) from sources that include the Education Policy Data Center, UNESCO, and the World Bank, as well as the country’s Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MOESD) and Central Statistics Office. These sources, often relying on different definitions, rendered somewhat different portraits of overall patterns of primary school access, retention, and quality that the case study sought to reconcile. To complement the data, extensive interviews with international, national, and local stakeholders were conducted. Key drivers and impediments were identified, including policies and practices as well as economic, social, cultural, and political factors.

Botswana’s success in development generally and in education particularly could be credited to the fact that the country has had a stable political system and a strong economy, based in large part by a vibrant diamond industry. Certainly, if Botswana had experienced extended periods of violent conflict or if it did not have the extensive resources generated by its economy, it is unlikely that the country would have incorporated as many of its children and youth in primary schools. However, these important contextual factors only provide space for achievements within the education; they by no means guarantee that government policies and programs—complemented by religious organizations, private companies, and international agency actions—will be focused on increasing access, retention, and quality in primary education.

In this regard, we call attention to the importance of the 1977 National Commission on Education. Based on the recommendations of this Commission, Botswana revamped its education system, especially the primary level, putting in place policies to expand school provision, recruit and prepare teachers, and so on. Although most of Botswana’s progress in increasing access and retention (as evidenced by the NERs) was achieved by 1997, the Revised National Policy on Education, adopted in 1994, was an important sign of the government’s continued commitment to realizing universal primary education.

¹ World Bank. Botswana Overview. www.worldbank.org/en/country/botswana/overview



Although Botswana's achievements in increasing primary school access and retention are noteworthy, the stagnation or decline in enrollment rates since 1997 is discouraging. Moreover, given that the HIV/AIDS epidemic seems to have contributed significantly to the discouraging trend and that the country has not succeeded in eradicating HIV/AIDS, the future trends for access, retention, and quality are in question. Not only does HIV/AIDS directly and indirectly affect the lives of teachers and students, but the government and other organizations have had to channel the resources to combat the HIV/AIDS crisis that might otherwise be devoted to expanding and improving the quality of educational provision.



Introduction

The Republic of Botswana is a small landlocked country located in southern Africa. A British colony for 81 years, Botswana gained its independence in 1966. Botswana's population currently is about 2 million, according to the 2010 census. Botswana is a diverse nation with various ethnic groups, both Setswana speaking and non-Setswana speaking. The ethnic groups include Batswana, as in Setswana-speaking groups (79 percent); Kalanga, the largest minority group (11 percent); Basarwa, often classified as a marginalized group (3 percent); Kgalagadi, also classified as a marginalized group (3 percent); white Africans (3 percent); and other groups (1 percent). English is the official language, while Setswana is the national language and is the medium of instruction in the public schools, despite the fact that not all groups speak Setswana as their mother tongue. There are about 28 other spoken languages in Botswana.



Politically, Botswana is recognized globally as an example of a successful African democracy because it has had peaceful elections since independence and Botswana has avoided internal violent conflicts.

Botswana's economy is largely sustained by the diamonds mined at Orapa and Jwaneng mines, as well as by the tourism and beef industries. As of 2012, Botswana had an estimated gross domestic product (GDP) of US\$17,596 billion (International Monetary Fund, 2013). Botswana is classified as having a medium value on the Human Development Index (HDI), with a score of 0.633 compared to the highest HDI ranking of 0.943 for Norway (Human Development Report, 2011:128). Most developed countries have pulled back on providing aid because they feel Botswana can do without their help.

Its education system continues to be shaped by the 1977 National Commission on Education (NCE) document (Republic of Botswana, 1977), commonly known as Education for *Kagisano* (education for social harmony); the 1994 Revised National Policy on Education (Republic of Botswana, 1994); as well as *Vision 2016* (Republic of Botswana, 1997).

The map of Botswana (above) shows its regions, some of which are referred to in this case study report. Note that the southern region, which encompasses areas around Kanye, is also referred to as Ngwaketse, which is the name used in some of the tables and graphs in this report.



Country Context

Key Aspects of Political Context

Botswana gained its independence in 1966 (through peaceful negotiations). The 1965 elections marked the beginning of an unbroken record of liberal democracy and political stability (Good et al., 2006; Huntington, 1991; Thomson, 2000; du Toit, 2005; Umunna et al., 2009).² In the 1965 elections the Botswana Democratic Party (BDP) won 28 out of 32 parliamentary seats (Molomo, 2005:31), and Seretse Khama became prime minister and then president in 1966, upon independence.

One of the groups opposing President Khama was the Bogosi Institution (chieftancy). Following the defeat in a parliamentary election of the BDP's vice president, Ketumile Masire, by a chief in 1969, the Khama government instituted a constitutional amendment that excused sitting presidents from contesting constituency elections and required Dikgosi (chiefs) to leave their positions for five years to qualify as a candidate for parliamentary elections (Maudeni, 2005).

During this early post-independence period, Botswana was threatened by neighboring white-minority regimes: apartheid South Africa and Ian Smith's Rhodesia (modern Zimbabwe). For example, the South African Defence Force (SADF) attacked Botswana in the 1970s and 1980s (Osei-Hwedie, 1998). The Rhodesian army also attacked Botswana army camps at Mapoka in May 1978 and Kazungula in June (Osei-Hwedie, 1998). In part these attacks reflected the fact that Botswana's territory was used by groups involved in liberation struggles against the South African and Rhodesian governments: the African National Congress (ANC), South West African People's Organization (SWAPO), and Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU) (Osei-Hwedie, 1998). Despite suffering frequent attacks, Botswana worked to usher in independence in white minority-led countries through the Front Line States platform. For example, Botswana hosted in 1981 negotiations between the South African government and black African states on the question of the liberation of Southern Africa (Osei-Hwedie, 1998).

Following the death of President Khama in 1980, Quett Masire was elected president by the Parliament.³ Although in 1994 they faced strong opposition from the Botswana National Front (BNF), which was formed in 1965 and won 37.1 percent of the contested seats in parliamentary elections,⁴ the BDP and Masire retained governing power. When Masire retired in 1998, his vice president, Festus Mogae, became president. Despite factional feuds within the BDP (Lotshwao & Maudeni, 2012), the party has retained its parliamentary majority, with Ian Khama, son of the first president and Masire's vice president, becoming president when Mogae retired in April 2008.

² Botswana has a parliamentary form of political system, with a strong executive (that is, president). That is, although the parliament elects the president, it cannot impeach the president for gross misconduct and for violation of the Constitution or any law. Moreover, the president can dissolve parliament at any time for any reason. In addition, the president solely appoints the chief justice, who is the head of the judiciary as well as the judge president of the Court of Appeal, and can effectively appoint other judges.

³ The succession process was changed in 1997, when the Masire government amended the Constitution to institute automatic succession to the presidency by the vice president upon the president's resignation, retirement or death. At the same time the Constitution was amended to lower voting age from 21 to 18 years.

⁴ From its origin in 1965, the BNF rose to become the main opposition to the governing BDP (Henk, 2008: 12) until its split in 1998, which led to creation of the Botswana Congress Party (BCP).



President Ian Khama outlined four Ds as the guiding principles of his administration (democracy, development, dignity, and discipline), adding a fifth D (delivery) later. However, the president's initial popularity declined,⁵ especially among the urban middle class, organized labor, and youth, following the introduction of several measures. These included the alcohol levy, reduction of liquor trading hours for bars and night clubs, hefty traffic fines and general restriction of civil liberties and freedoms. Ian Khama also instituted a policy of appointing only serving and retired soldiers to key positions in government and he weakened the role played by trade unions.

Internal divisions within the BDP also increased, though the party retained its slight parliamentary majority in the 2009 elections. Nevertheless, in 2010 BDP splintered, with a sizeable number of members breaking away to form a new party, the Botswana Movement for Democracy (BMD). Furthermore, in 2011 the Botswana Federation of Public Sector Unions (BOFEPUSO) organized a strike, challenging the Khama government over poor salaries and working conditions. Immediately after the strike Botswana's opposition parties (BNF, Botswana Congress Party [BCP], BMD, and BPP) engaged in opposition cooperation talks, but the talks collapsed in December 2011. Three of the parties (BNF, BMD, and BPP) in November 2012 formed what they termed the Umbrella for Democratic Change (UDC) for the purpose of contesting seats in the 2014 parliamentary elections.

Key Aspects of Economic Context

When the former British Protectorate gained independence in 1966 after being colonized for 80 years, Botswana was among the most impoverished countries in Africa (Samatar, 1999), and was characterized as having a high level of inequality (Bloom & Sachs, 1998, in Acemoglu et al., 2000).⁶ This was partly due to unfavorable semi-arid climate, which rendered commercial agriculture unsuitable, and an apparent lack of natural resources.

Nonetheless, Botswana has had the highest rate of per capita growth for any country in the world in the last 35 years (Acemoglu et al., 2000; Clark, 2000). Between the mid-1960s and the late-1980s, for instance, the GDP grew from less than \$80 per capita to more than \$1,000 per capita (Corprew, 2012). The economy continued to record a strong positive growth at least up through 2005 (Maundeni et al., 2007). According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (2010), after almost four decades of Botswana's robust economic growth, the GDP slowed to 2.9 percent in 2008, due to a decline in mining output. The decline diamond sales reduced the surplus to 7 percent of GDP in 2008 from an average surplus of 15.6 percent of GDP from 2005–2007.

⁵ One indicator was that his level of public trust declined somewhat from 76 percent to 69 percent between 2008 and 2012 (Afrobarometer Round 5 survey, cited in *The Gazette*, May 22, 2013).

⁶ At independence, government coffers were so low that British aid was needed to fund both development and recurrent expenditures (Matsheka and Botlhomilwe, 2000).



Such economic development depended on a number of factors. First, and most important, Botswana benefited from the discovery of diamonds in 1967, which the De Beers' Central Selling Organization—in a 50 percent–50 percent joint venture with the Government of Botswana—mined and marketed internationally (Fortin, 2012; Mhone et al., 2001). The diamond industry transformed Botswana from an agricultural economy to one in which diamonds accounted for 40 percent of GDP (Acemoglu et al., 2000) and 90 percent of foreign exchange earnings (BEDIA, 2010).⁷ Second, with the revenue from diamonds, the Botswana state invested in other mineral industries, including copper, soda ash, and coal, as well as in manufacturing (e.g., textile and soap) and tourism (Edge, 1998; Maundeni, et. al 2007; Osei-Hwedie, 2009; Taylor, 2005).⁸ Third, agriculture and cattle herding (for beef export) were able to recuperate and expand because of the end of the major drought of the 1960s (Matsheka & Botlhomilwe, 2000). Fourth, the banking industry became an increasingly important sector of the economy, both in its own right and in supporting other sectors of the economy (Jefferis & Tacheba, 2010). Related to this, the government attempted to pursue a conscious policy of managing booms and slumps through the approach of National Development Bank (NDB) (Clark, 2000). Fifth, at least up until 1994, Botswana was hailed as being effective in economic management and free of corruption, though evidence of corrupt practices began to appear in the 1990s (Matsheka & Botlhomilwe, 2000).

Despite Botswana's overall economic success story, 47 percent of households were living in poverty in 1993–1994, with poverty rates higher in rural compared to urban areas (55 percent versus 29 percent) and with some districts (such as, Ghanzi & Kgalagadi) having poverty rates as high as 71 percent (Mpotokwane and Keatimilwe, nd). Mmegi (2012) registers that the latest results released by *Statistics Botswana* indicate a decline in the proportion of persons living below the poverty line at the national level, from 30.6 percent in 2002–2003 to 20.7 percent in 2009–2010.⁹ According to Mpotokwane and Keatimilwe (n.d.), the major causes of poverty are unemployment, lack of income and assets, poor performance of the agriculture sector, and difficulty in accessing the social welfare services provided by the state.

⁷ Such economic activities involved foreign investment, which was attracted because of various government policies. For example, Botswana lowered mining taxes to 10 percent (Scott, 2003) and implemented rational foreign exchange as well as fiscal, monetary, and wage policies (Osei-Hwedie, 2009). In addition, the government limited the World Bank and the IMF to advisory roles, thus avoiding some of the problems that other developing countries had with structural adjustment programs (Bandow and Vanguez, 1994, Boettke, 1994 cited in Scott, 2003; Easterly, 2001).

⁸ Maundeni et al. (2007) also note that revenue from the mining sector has been invested in building urban centers, developing government structures and social infrastructure (such as, roads and bridges), promoting rural development, and supporting local development.

⁹ (<http://www.mmegi.bw/index.php?sid=1&aid=1105&dir=2012/june/friday15>).



Key Aspects of Education System History

Around 1840 the London Missionary Society established the first private school in Bechuanaland (Kolobeng, in Bakwena territory), with the Dutch Reformed and Roman Catholic churches opening schools soon afterwards (Abosi & Kandjii-Murangi, 2002). The education provided by missionary schools focused on mastery of reading the Bible. The lessons taught were Eurocentric and oriented to denigrate and erase African culture and identity rather than inculcating values that would make the students proud of their native country and cultures (Abosi & Kandjii-Murangi 2002; Chanaiwa 1980; Republic of Botswana 1977). As Jagusah (2001: 120) observes:

This deculturali[z]ation goes as far as asking students to change their names, dress code and/or religious beliefs; punishing students for speaking their native language within the school premises; and pressuring students to avoid eating local delicacies or using African names. It has gotten to the point that some 'educated Africans' will not let their children speak any African language as a reinforcement of the school's conditioning mission.

Despite the deculturalization orientation of the missionaries, local communities played a pivotal role in the success of education by providing land for schools to be built and allowing some of their tribesmen to be trained as teachers (Abosi & Kandjii-Murangi, 2002). Local communities also contributed to the establishment of Moeng College as well as Seepapitso, Madiba, and Kgari Sechele secondary schools.

At independence, Botswana inherited a "deliberately deformed" (that is, with limited provision) and culturally irrelevant education from Britain (Jotia, 2008). As Tlou and Campbell (2000) argue, Botswana's education system was the worst of all British colonies in Africa. There were very few educated people in Botswana at independence, which is why many senior jobs were held by expatriates. In 1966 there were 251 primary schools; about nine secondary schools, which were either mission schools or tribal schools; two teacher training colleges; and no university or other tertiary institutions. Of the overall population of 712,000 Batswana, only 20 percent of school-going age was enrolled in primary school, 22 percent had completed secondary school, and 22 percent were university graduates (Acemoglu et al., 2000). Most who acquired secondary and tertiary education were the children of the chiefs and rich people who attended schools for Africans in other countries, such as Fort Hare College in South Africa. Another indication of the relatively limited schooling available during the colonial period is that illiteracy among adults and youth was 35.1 percent (Abosi & Kandjii-Murangi, 2002; Maruatona, 2004,).

At independence, the government of Botswana sought to create an education system that would prepare productive and informed citizens who could align their knowledge and skills with the development needs of the new country. Education was also designed to serve the interests of Batswana by helping them to learn about and cherish their diverse and pluralistic culture. Missionaries, however, continued to be involved in education through government-aided primary schools, which receive government funding but are run by churches (Evans & Yoder, 1991).

In line with the country's national principles of development, self-reliance, unity, and democracy, Botswana's National Commission on Education (Republic of Botswana, 1977) articulated that primary schooling would be compulsory and free for all children. The National Commission also laid out a plan for resources to be pumped into primary education, for teachers to be trained and for schools to be constructed in geographically accessible places for all learners (Republic of Botswana 1977). Evans and Yoder (1991) report that following the NCE report, the government decided to pursue policies geared toward improving access and retention. These involved



universalizing primary education, abolishing school fees, instituting automatic promotion of students from one grade (regardless of academic performance), allowing grade repetition where necessary, expanding the number of classrooms, as well as introducing “double-shifts,” where school facilities were used for two groups of students.

Despite progress in the years following the 1977 NCE report (see next section), in 1994 Botswana adopted a Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) because:

Even though a high level of access to primary education has been achieved, there are still pockets of primary school age children outside the school system. Some of these are: children who live far away from schools, children with disabilities, and drop-outs from the school system. The goal of universal primary education will only be achieved when these groups of children have been catered for (Republic of Botswana, 1994: 92).

Thus, the Revised National Policy on Education of 1994 gave attention to the following issues (Republic of Botswana, 1994:1):

- Access and equity
- Effective preparation of students for life, citizenship and the world of work
- Development of training that is responsive and relevant to the needs of Botswana’s economic development
- Improvement and maintenance of quality for the education system
- Enhancement of performance and status of the teaching profession
- Effective management of the education system
- Cost effectiveness/cost sharing in the financing of education

In 1997, Botswana adopted *Vision 2016*, reaffirming that Botswana’s development depended on having “an educated and informed nation” (Republic of Botswana, 1997:47) as well as empowered citizens to produce “quality goods and services and entrepreneurial development for employment creation” (Ministry of Education, 2004:3). To achieve this goal, attention should be paid to improving “the relevance, quality [of education] and access to education” (Ministry of Education, 2004:3).

Both the Revised National Policy on Education (Republic of Botswana, 1994) and *Vision 2016* (Republic of Botswana, 1997) contributed to the concept of inclusive education. Inclusive education, which focuses on educating all citizens regardless of their physical condition, their geographic location, or their ethnicity among other characteristics, pertains to issues of curriculum, language of instruction, pedagogical approaches, instructional materials, and support services (Ministry of Education, 2008).

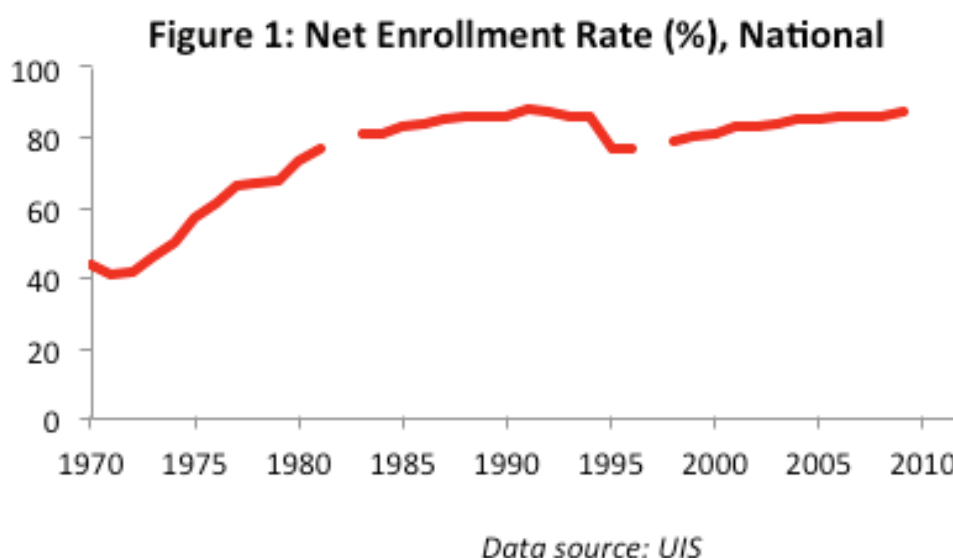


What Has Been Achieved?

Overall Pattern of Primary School Access and Retention, 1970–2012

Between 1970 and 2010 different sources provide somewhat different portraits of how successful Botswana has been in moving toward universal primary education. As evidenced in Figure 1, according to UNESCO's Institute of Statistics (UIS), the net enrollment rate (NER), in most years focusing on ages 6- to 12-year-olds,¹⁰ moved from about 44 percent in 1970 to about 87 percent in 2009. However, according to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MOESD) (2007:10), the NER (for 7- to 13-year-olds) increased from 85 percent in 1994 to 98 percent in 2006, with the gross enrollment rates (GERs) being consistently above 100 percent during the same period. The World Education Forum (2000: Figure 3), drawing on data from Botswana's Central Statistics Office (1997), reports that the NER increased from approximately 95 percent in 1991 to 98.4 percent in 1997, while commenting that:

In 1997, the primary education level in Botswana enrolled nearly all children (98.4 percent) that [were] eligible to be in primary school (7–13 years old having been used as the official primary school-going age). However, a significant number of those who were enrolled were either younger than 7, or older than 13 years of age, hence the GER that exceeded 100%.



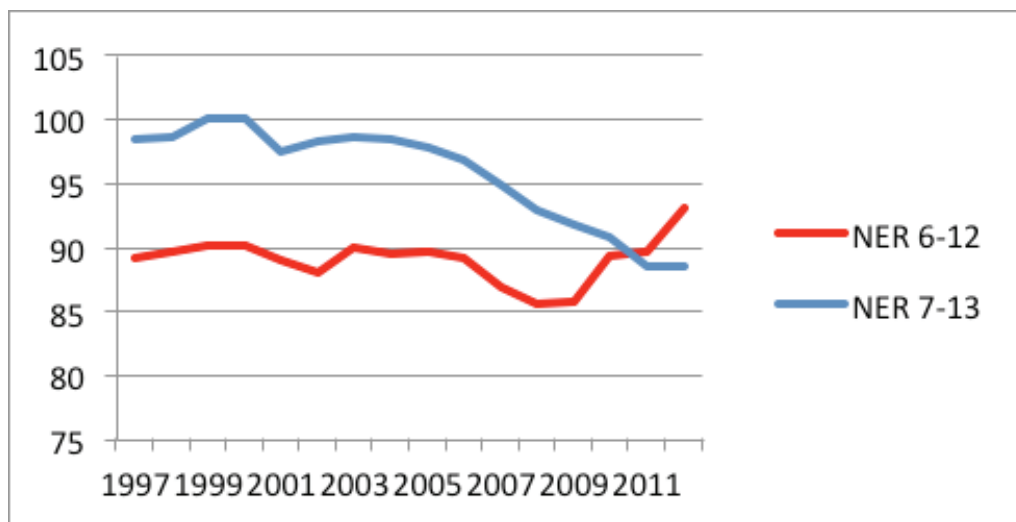
That the different portraits of enrolment trends derive from different definitions of the primary school age range is clearly shown in Figure 2. Between 1997 and 2009, the NER for 7- to 13-year-olds was notably higher than the NER for 6- to 12-year-olds. During this period the NER for 6- to 12-year-olds was relatively constant, though it increased appreciably between 2011 and 2012. In contrast, the NER for 7- to 13-year-olds was declining, particularly after 2003. Thus, the two NER measures are almost equal in 2010 and 2011 and the NER for 6- to 12-year-olds exceeds the NER for 7- to 13-year-olds in 2012.

¹⁰ According to UNESCO IBE (2010), Botswana's primary school age range was 6 to 12 years old from 1973–1980 and 1995–2009, but was 7 to 13 years old from 1970–1972 and 1981–1994.



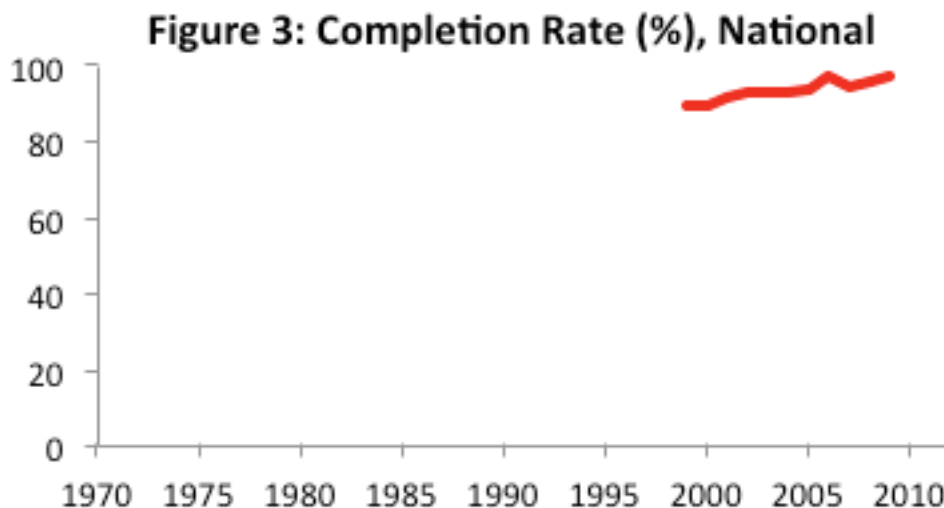
To summarize, although there is clear statistical evidence that primary school access and retention increased between 1970 and 1997, two different views of the pattern of primary school access and retention occur between 1997 and 2012: a) for 6- to 12-year-olds the NER remains at approximately 90 percent, with a dip to approximately 85 percent from 2007-2009 and a spike to 93.1 percent in 2012, and b) for 7- to 13-year-olds the NER begins at 98.4 percent and moves up to approximately 100 percent in 1999 and 2000, then declines, reaching 88.6 percent in 2012. This seems to indicate that between 1997 and 2009 6-year-olds were more likely to be out of school, thus pulling down the NER for 6- to 12-year-olds. This also seems to indicate that between 1998 and 2012 the dropout rate for 13-year-olds increased, contributing to the declining NER for 7- to 13-year-olds.

Figure 2: Primary School NER for Different Age Groups, 1997-2012



Source: Central Statistics Office (2007 and 2012)

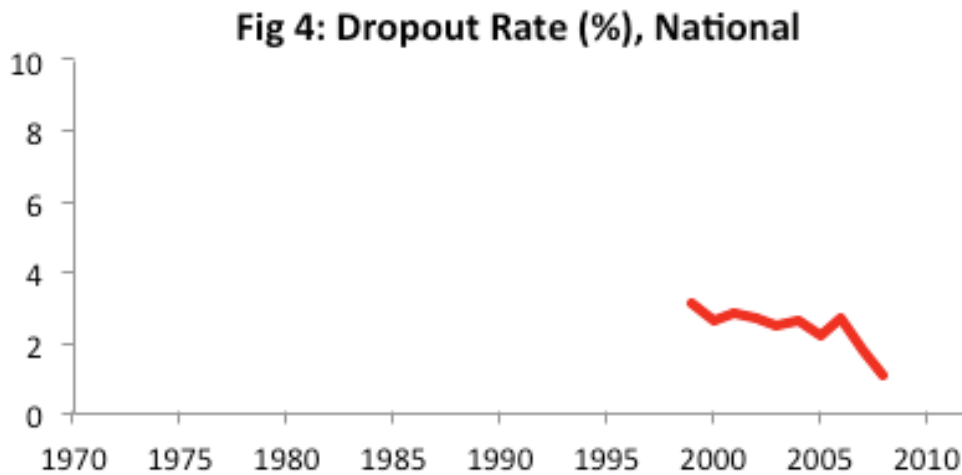
Botswana's pattern of access and retention is also evidenced by the completion rate (see Figure 3). Here the primary school completion rate, based on UIS data, moves up from 89.2 percent to 97.2 percent between 1999 and 2009.



Data source: UIS

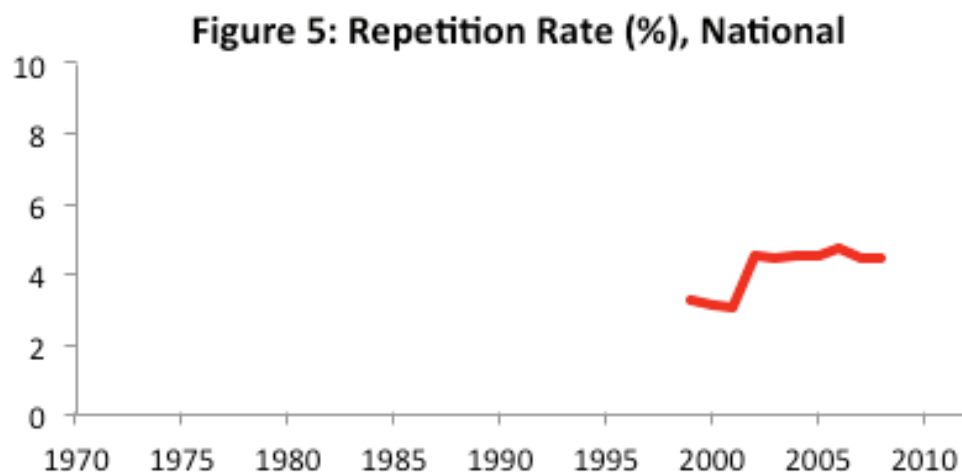


Further insights concerning Botswana's pattern of retention is provided by the dropout rate (see Figure 4). Here the primary school student dropout rate, based on UIS data, declined between 1999 and 2008 from 3.1 percent to 1.1 percent.¹¹



Data source: EPDC calculation using UIS data

It may also be useful to consider the efficiency of primary schooling, in this case looking at repetition rates. As shown in Figure 5, this rate increased from 3.1 percent to 4.4 percent between 1999 and 2008, though the rate remained generally low, even at its highest point for this period (4.7 percent in 2006).



Data source: EPDC calculation using UIS data

¹¹ According to NCE (1993), in 1991 there were 3,773 students who dropped out of a total enrolment of 298,812, which represents a dropout rate of 1.2 percent.



Equity of Access and Retention, 1970–2010

The overall pattern of access and retention in primary education presented above hides some important subpopulation differences. Here the differences are given by rural-urban residence, family socioeconomic status (SES), region, ethnicity, and gender.

In 1991 and 2001, a disproportionate number of out-of-school children were located in *rural areas* (Republic of Botswana, 1993; Central Statistics Office 2002), and this likely has been the case during the entire period of interest, 1970–2010.

A disproportionate number of out-of-school children in Botswana are also from lower SES families, both in rural and urban areas, at least through the early 1990s (Republic of Botswana, 1993). According to the senior product development officer at the Botswana Examinations Council, “financial and economic hardships of some families have [continued to] pose the problems of access to school.”

Interviewees reported that the Gantsi, Kgalagadi, Ngamiland, Chobe, and Kweneng *regions* tend to have lower rates of access and retention. For instance, the Administrative Secretary of Botswana Teacher’s Union, who also happens to be a retired head teacher, noted that “issues of access and retention in some of the regions such as Kgalagadi, Gantsi, North West, Kweneng, and Central are still a challenge, since some of the students abandon school to pursue other human activities such as hunting and gathering.”

In addition, access and retention tends to be lower among children from marginalized *ethnic group* communities, such as the San (Basarwa), Baherero, Bambukushu, and Basubiya (Pansiri, 2011). For instance, many children from the Basarwa are out of school because their parents do not view schooling as a priority compared to hunting and gathering, which are core to the Basarwa’s cultural identity, because their schools are poorly resourced and tend to have unqualified teachers, and because the media of instruction and the curriculum do not reflect the groups’ cultures (Pansiri, 2011).¹² Furthermore, the fact that schools use corporal punishment worsens matters, since corporal punishment is abhorred among the Basarwa.

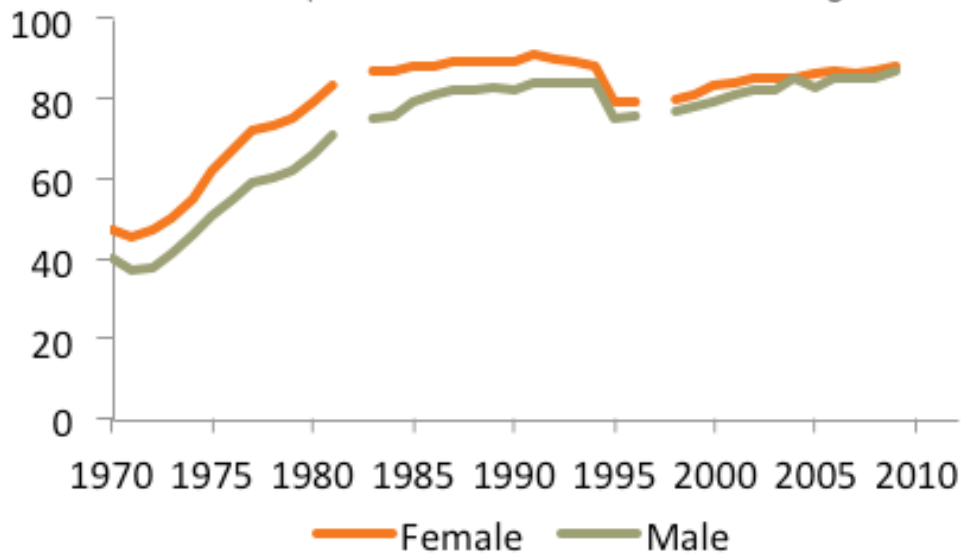
Some interviewees mentioned the challenges faced by children from the Basarwa community. For instance, the director of Primary Education (Basic Education) in the Ministry of Education and Skills Development stated that “issues of ethnicity, especially amongst the Basarwa communities, hamper access and retention in school because of their dire socio-economic background.” The school head for Khurutshe Primary (in Kgatleng West) indicated that “access and retention remains a big challenge because culturally some of the Basarwa parents seem not to attach any value to education, to the degree that the government will have to fetch their children and bring them to the hostels so they could be educated.” In addition, a principal education officer in the southeast region concurred that “in very remote areas, access and retention have been difficult as some parents, like Basarwa, find it difficult to be separated from their children.”

¹² Pansiri (2011) reports that some of the students he interviewed told him that they dropped out of school because they were taught in English and Setswana and they found the teacher to be speaking very fast and in a manner that they did not understand, which really frustrated their learning. One of the teachers he interviewed offered a similar comment: “Teaching infant classes is difficult in this school, because children do not cope with Setswana and English and we do not know Sesarwa or Seherero” (p.113). In addition, a parent expressed the following: “When children of the age of 6 or 7 come to this school from Qaqanga, Xaraixarai or other settlements, where there are no Batswana, they only speak Sesarwa. They must find a teacher who speaks Sesarwa who can talk to them nicely, not those who are harsh and only speak Setswana or English” (p.115). On the same note, the secretary general of Botswana Sectors of Educators Trade Union commented during his interview for the current case study that “the intimidating and frustrating school environment due to hostile teachers, absence of the use of mother tongue in schools creates very unfriendly school environment.”



In terms of *gender*, the pattern of enrollment rates between 1970 and 2009 moved from an advantage for girls to a situation closer to gender parity (see Figure 6). In the 1970s and 1980s girls had NERs ranging from 7 percent to 12 percent higher than boys. From 1996, however, NERs for boys and girls were more or less equal, with the difference never exceeding 3 percent.

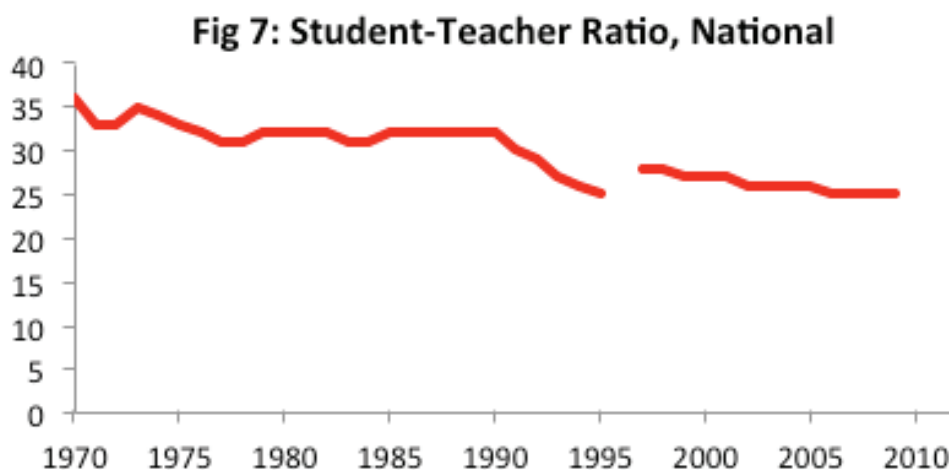
Figure 6: Net Enrollment Rate (%), by Gender
(Data source: EPDC calculations using UIS data)



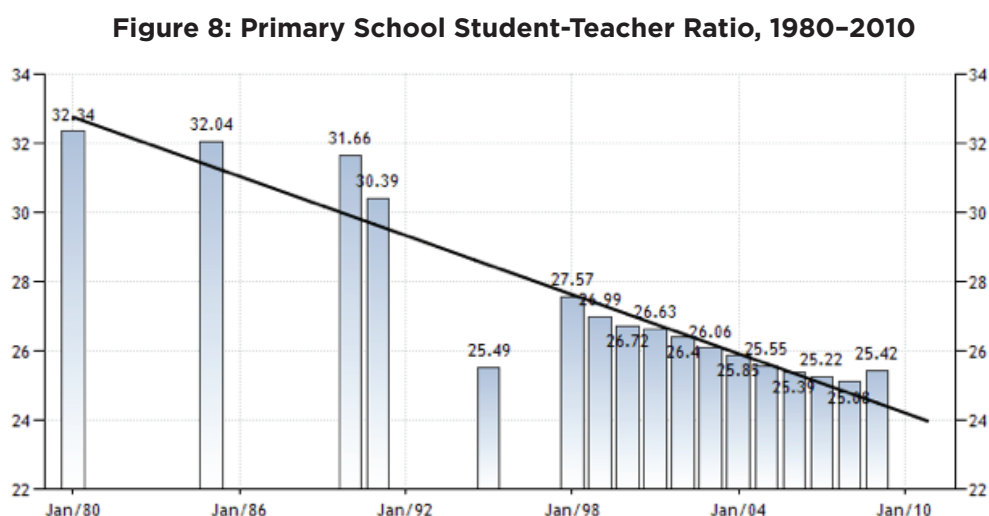


Quality of Education, 1970–2010

The quality of primary education can be measured by student-teacher ratio,¹³ teacher qualifications,¹⁴ and students' examination performance. As an input measure of quality education, the primary school student-teacher pupil ratio showed a marked improvement from 1980 to 1991, being reduced from 50.8 to 35.0 (CSO, 1991; Republic of Botswana, 1993), though these figures are higher than reported by international agencies. For example, based on Education Policy Data Center (EPDC) calculations using UNESCO Institute for Statistics data, the primary school student-teacher ratio was 36 in 1970 and declined to 32 in 1980, 30 in 1991, and 25 in 2009 (see Figure 7). Similarly, the World Bank reports that the primary school student-teacher ratio was 32.3 in 1980, declined to 30.4 in 1991, and further declined to 25.4 in 2009 (see Figure 8).



Data source: EPDC calculation using UIS data



¹³ The Millennium Development Goals Status Report (United Nations, 2004:31) unequivocally states that “the significance of the student-teacher ratio is that the lower it is, the greater amount of time a teacher spends with each pupil and the greater the quality of instruction.”

¹⁴ If teachers have profound knowledge in their subject specialty, they can easily relay the information to learners. Thus, an increase in qualified primary school teachers is likely to improve the quality of education (CSO, 2009).



In terms of teacher qualifications, another input measure of education quality, in 1991 more than 86 percent of primary school teachers were categorized as trained (Republic of Botswana, 1993). This means that they either possessed the basic qualification of Elementary Teacher Certificate (ETC), Primary Teacher Certificate (PTC), primary higher (PH) or primary lower (PL) certificate/diploma, Diploma in Education (DIP) or a Bachelor of Education Degree (BEd). By 2003, the percentage of trained primary school teachers had increased to 90 percent, and then by 2009 the figure had risen to 99.6 percent (CSO, 2009: 9).

Another indicator of education quality is students' learning outcomes. One measure of this is students' performance on the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE), which is administered by the Botswana Examinations Council, established in 2002 as a semi-autonomous body (Republic of Botswana, 2011).¹⁵ As shown in Table 1, the PSLE pass rate declined between 2005 and 2008, from 79.1 percent to 69.8 percent, with approximately the same percentage of pupils sitting for the exam. However, the statistics show a slight improvement of 0.6 percent in the pass rate from 2005–2006.

Table 1: Comparison of Primary School Leaving Exam Performance, 2005–2008

Year	2005	2006	2007	2008
Total percent pass	79.1	79.6	72.9	69.8

¹⁵ Prior to that, all examinations were centrally administered by the Ministry of Education, which is now called the Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MOESD).



Key Drivers and Impediments of Change

Here are presented some of the factors that contributed to the above-discussed historical patterns of access, retention, and quality in Botswana, overall and for various subgroups. With respect to access and retention, the study seeks to explain why the enrollment rate improved between 1970 and 1997, as well as why between 1997 and 2010 a) the enrollment rate for 6- to 12-year-olds remained relatively constant at or below 90 percent, and b) the enrollment rate for 7- to 13-year-olds declined. With regard to quality, the study seeks to explain why the student-teacher ratio and the qualifications of teachers improved, while test scores declined, at least between 2005 and 2008. First, the study focuses on policy, program, and project initiatives, and then highlights contextual factors (such as, the HIV/AIDS pandemic) that help to understand why changes did or did not take place during certain time periods.

Policy, Program, and Project Initiatives

The political will of national officials needs to be considered. Within a decade after independence (in 1966), the RNPE of 1977 was adopted and drove the general overhaul of Botswana's education system. In this context, the government embarked on a deliberate effort to expand the number of available primary schools. As evidenced in Table 2, this resulted in a substantial increase in the number of government primary schools between 1978 and 1991, from 353 to 583.¹⁶

It is important to note that Botswana's ability to expand its school system depended to a great extent on its economy, in particular the emergence and growth of diamond mining undertaken as a 50-50 joint venture between the government and the De Beers Mining Company. After diamonds were discovered in 1967, their "profits were put to good use in the public sector," including education (Fortin, 2012, p. 1). Thus, since the mid-1970s Botswana has devoted over 5 percent of its GNP to education (UNESCO, 2013).

Table 2: Number and Enrollments-Primary Education 1978-1991

Year	Number of Schools			
	Government	Grant- Aided	Private	TOTAL
1978	353	11	13	377
1979	371	11	12	394
1980	391	12	12	415
1981	403	11	9	423
1982	434	12	17	463
1983	464	13	25	502
1984	471	13	28	512
1985	489	13	26	528
1986	501	13	23	537
1987	518	13	26	557
1988	525	13	21	559
1989	540	17	27	584

¹⁶ Note that this increase of 130 government primary schools was complemented by a small increase in government-aided primary schools (from 11 to 14) and by a larger increase private primary schools (from 13 to 50).

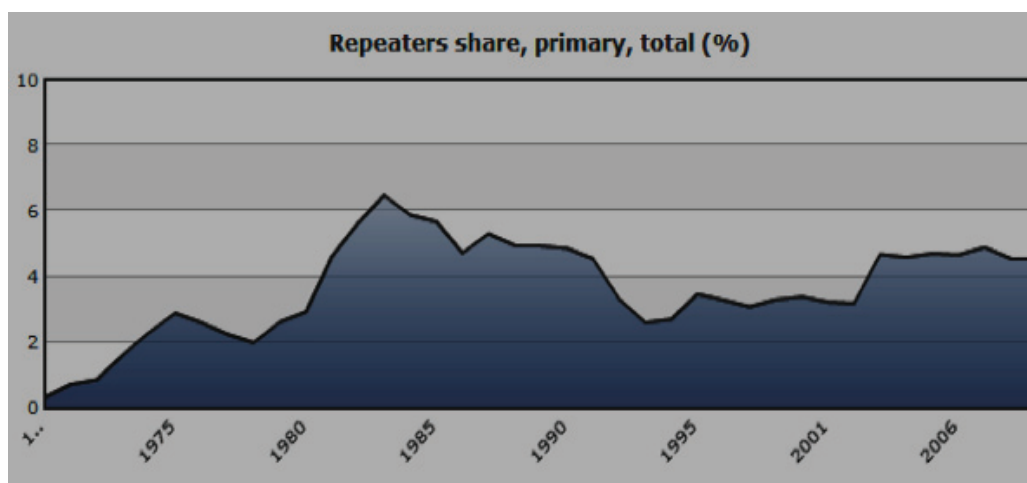


1990	555	12	35	602
1991	583	14	50	647

Source: Central Statistics Office (1992)

One policy initiative, implemented starting in 1978, which worked positively toward giving students access and retaining them at primary school was that of allowing them to repeat a grade. Figure 9 indicates fluctuating rates of repetition between 1970 and 2006, with the proportion spiking upward particularly between 1978 and 1990. It appears that allowing repetition at least delayed, if not reduced, students from dropping out.

Figure 9: Primary School Repeaters 1970-2006



Source: Facts Fish

The introduction of the Ten Year Basic Education Programme in 1994, based on the recommendations of that year's RNPE, meant that all children were supposed to attend primary school and then automatically progress into and complete junior secondary school. As part of this 1994-initiated program, school fees were abolished and efforts made to provide "adequate facilities and the education inputs to make access effective" (Republic of Botswana, 1994: 93). In this context, the government launched another major effort to construct more classrooms as well as build more schools, especially in remote areas. Just over 10 years later, the MoESD (2007: 10) could report significant improvement in increasing access and retention, which "is attributed partly to the success of the backlog eradication project, which has reduced the shortage of classrooms, teachers' houses and toilets."¹⁷ However, we should note that between 1997 and 2010 the enrollment rate for 6- to 12-year-olds remained relatively constant at or below 90 percent and b) the enrollment rate for 7- to 13-year-olds declined from approximately 99 percent to 91 percent.

¹⁷ The ministry also suggested that "parents' awareness of the new admission age policy coupled with communities' new commitment and recognition of the importance of education has also played a role" (MOESD, 2007:10).



One government initiative undertaken to reduce dropout involved introducing in 1987 guidance and counseling services in primary schools. In this initiative one teacher in all the schools in Maun, Central, Southern and North East districts was identified and prepared to help children who experience learning or other problems (Evans & Yodder, 1991).¹⁸

In addition, the introduction of Special Education Unit in 1984 under the Ministry of Education (Republic of Botswana, 1993) has played a crucial role in facilitating access and retention of students with special needs. As of 1991, there were 14 schools that catered for learners with a variety of abilities (Evans & Yoder, 1991). As noted in the *Report of the National Commission on Education* (Republic of Botswana, 1993:16): “Non-Governmental Organizations have been active in this sector and run a number of specialized centers for children with disabilities.”

Another policy that may have affected access and retention in primary schools is the one dealing with the use of corporal punishment in public schools. The Education Act 1965 prescribes how the punishment should be applied and it specifies that it should be done as a last resort after other methods have failed. Parents who agree with this policy may be more inclined to enroll and retain their children in school. As noted above, however, parents in some minority ethnic groups (such as, the Basarwa), who do not favor the use of corporal punishment, may not enroll or retain their children in school (Pansiri, 2011). This point was reinforced by a principal education officer in the Department of Primary Education, who during the interview for this case study, shared that “use of corporal punishment” was one of the factors that have been negatively affecting access and retention in some primary schools.¹⁹

Abolishing school fees in 1980 (Republic of Botswana, 1993) led to increased access and retention in primary education. However, we should note that the NER increased more rapidly between 1970 and 1980 than it did between 1980 and 1990, and as noted, after 1997 the NER for 6- to 12-year-olds remained relatively constant and the NER for 7- to 13-year-olds declined.

In 2006 the government introduced a cost-sharing program, whereby district councils provide funds through their Social and Community Development units to parents who are on welfare and would otherwise be unable to pay supplemental school fees.²⁰ This program undoubtedly has benefited the families who received the funds, and may have contributed to the upward move of the NER for 6- to 12-year-olds between 2009 and 2012 but does not seem to have been strong enough to counteract other factors that resulted in a continuing decline in NER for 7- to 13-year-olds.

The Government of Botswana through the Ministry of Education (MoE) developed a detailed policy that emphasized integration and collaboration with other stakeholders, such as nongovernmental organizations (Evans & Yoder 1991). Nongovernmental organizations, particularly religious-based institutions, have contributed to expanding education provision in Botswana. For example, as noted above, between 1978 and 1991 the number of private primary schools increased from 13 to 50. These primary schools were (and still are) controlled by churches, notably the United Congregational Church of Southern Africa and the Roman Catholic Church.

¹⁸ More recently, the Ministry instituted in 2008 a Pastoral Policy, which mandates heads of departments to follow up on learners who are absent or who drop out of school. Under the Pastoral Policy, heads of departments do not have teaching duties and instead focus on administrative duties, including monitoring student enrollment and ensuring that students receive the necessary support to graduate to the next level.

¹⁹ The use of corporal punishment has also been criticized by some university-based educators, who view it as archaic and dehumanizing, thus violating democratic ways of interacting with learners in the school environment (see Jotia 2010).

²⁰ The supplemental fees are collected from students for the school's Development Fund, which is utilized for various purposes (e.g., improving school facilities and purchasing teaching-learning materials).



Another private organization that has helped increase access, retention, and quality in primary education is the De Beers Botswana Mining Company (Debswana). As discussed previously, the 50-50 profit-sharing arrangement with this company put the Government of Botswana in a strong financial position to fund education. Furthermore, in line with Botswana's national vision, the company is actively involved in education from the pre-primary to the tertiary level. Debswana runs two private primary schools in the mining towns of Jwaneng and Orapa, which were constructed in 1980 (Debswana, 2013). Tuition fees for mine employees' children are fully subsidized by the company. More generally, the company has contributed computers and other educational equipment and supplies to government schools to help them bridge the technology gap. The total contribution to education by Debswana in monetary terms is not available, but it is safe to approximate it in millions of pula. Addressing the role of Debswana in Botswana's primary education, the company's corporate social investment manager indicated during an interview:

Debswana cherishes education in Botswana and [we] always try to provide equipment such as computers to schools. In some instances, Debswana goes an extra mile to even build classrooms, as is the case with Boteti region which is near the Orapa Mine. Some classrooms were built there and the same is going to happen to areas around Jwaneng mine as well. Debswana also contributes positively to issues of quality of education, since it also engages and pays some education personnel to help with the provision of remedial teaching to the needy children in various environments.

International organizations that have been key drivers in increasing access, retention, and quality in education in Botswana include UNESCO, European Union (EU), British Council, Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). For instance, Botswana joined UNESCO in 1980 and continues to benefit from its expertise in reforming and building education systems. UNESCO promotes literacy and education programs for all, and has supported financially Botswana's rural dwellers program designed to increase access of children from marginalized communities. In the 23-year period after first joining UNESCO Botswana reported a 93 percent increase in access to primary school (MoE, 2004). However, it should be noted that most of Botswana's success in increasing access and retention occurred before the Jomtiem, Thailand, World Conference on Education for All (EFA), and that enrollment rates have for the most part been stagnant or declining in the years following the Dakar EFA Declaration in 2000.

The EU supported Botswana's education system through its European Development Fund from 2002-2007 (Europa, 2013). From 2008-2013, Botswana received 83.5 million euros from European Development Fund to support education, health, and other areas (Lesemela March 2012).²¹ According to McGovern (2012), who is the head of the EU Delegation to Botswana, the primary education and other European Development Fund-supported projects in Botswana were successful during this period.

²¹ More recently, the European Union provided funding to Botswana during 2012-2013, in the form of Sector Budget Support under the Education and Training Sector Policy Support Program. For instance, in 2012 and 2013 the EU gave Botswana 51.4 million euros to finance and manage education and training at primary and secondary school levels (Europa, 2013).



Contextual Factors Impeding Success Achieving UPE

A major factor impeding Botswana's progress in achieving universal primary education is HIV/AIDS. The first cases of HIV/AIDS in Botswana were reported in 1985 in Selibe Phikwe (a mining town), and today the country has the second highest incidence rates of the HIV in the world, trailing only Swaziland. According to the latest statistics from Botswana National AIDS Coordinating Agency (NACA), the HIV prevalence rate in Botswana in 2009 was 24.8 percent within the population ages 15 to 49. The epidemic has pronounced impact on the workforce of the country, which consequently negatively impacts the economy as well as education. According to Avert (n.d), the International HIV/AIDS charity:

The loss of adults in their productive years has serious economic implications,²² with families being pushed into poverty through the costs of HIV and AIDS medical care, loss of income, and funerals. The economic output of Botswana has been reduced by the loss of workers and skills; agriculture and mining are among the worst affected sectors. The loss of adults to AIDS has also had a significant effect on children in Botswana: an estimated 93,000 children have lost at least one parent to the epidemic.²³

HIV/AIDS also impacts the education sector. Indeed, it seems very likely that HIV/AIDS contributed significantly to the above-noted stagnation in enrollment rates for 6- to 12-year-olds and the decline in enrollment rates for 7- to 13-year-olds between 1997 and 2010. As Lule and Haacker (2012:16) explain, HIV/AIDS may also undermine the quality of education:

High levels of morbidity and mortality among teachers²⁴ ...reduce the number of classroom hours being taught, the quality of teaching, and the learning environment... With the growing number of children either infected or affected by the epidemic, school enrolments...decline due to dropouts, increased illness, or children having to care for family members or earn additional family income. Those who remain in the classroom, seeing friends and teachers affected by the epidemic, are traumatized and suffer a decreased ability to learn.

In an attempt to overcome the challenges of HIV/AIDS the Ministry of Health has taken several initiatives since the first case was discovered in 1985. According to the Ministry of Health (2012), between 1987 and 1989 the government introduced the Botswana National AIDS Control Programme, This initiative led by the Ministry of Health put into place HIV/AIDS control measures, such as creating public awareness as well as training health workers in HIV/AIDS clinical management. In addition, between 1989 and 1993 the Ministry of Health implemented a five-year Medium Plan I, which focused on educating the public about changing sexual behavior, insuring blood safety, and managing HIV/AIDS if infected. Subsequently, the Medium Plan II (1997–2002) led to the creation of the AIDS/STD unit in the Ministry of Health, which broadened the public education campaigns.

²² Lule and Haacker (2012) emphasize that the broad macroeconomic effects of HIV/AIDS (for example, on economic growth) also have implications for other dimensions of development. To illustrate, the funds that the government spends on anti-retroviral medications (ARV) could otherwise be used for other development purposes.

²³ According to International HIV/AIDS Charity (1986–2013: 17) [<http://www.avert.org/hiv-aids-botswana.htm>] there were 78,000 orphans in Botswana in 2003 and it was projected that by 2010 more than 20 percent of all children would be orphaned. Kinghorn et al. (2002: xiii) project that by 2015-2016 approximately 6 percent of children aged 0-4 years will be orphans and 35 percent of the children aged 5 to 9 years will be affected by HIV/AIDS.

²⁴ Kinghorn et al. (2002: 65) state that in Botswana "the mortality rates among teachers at a primary school level could be as high as 3.5 percent a year by 2015 despite ARVs." These authors projected that the MOESD was likely to lose 10,000 teachers by 2010, although this number could be reduced to 3,000 if infected teachers had access to antiretroviral drugs.



In addition to public education campaigns, the Government of Botswana since 1995 has operated testing and counseling centers, in cooperation with the U.S. Centers for Disease Control (Morrison & Hurlburt, 2004). In 2000, Botswana began dispensing antiretroviral drugs (ARV) in public health facilities at no cost to the patients. The MOESD also took steps to infuse topics on HIV/AIDS into the school curriculum as well as using subjects such as Guidance and Counseling and Moral Education to educate students about HIV/AIDS and sex education in general. By 2000, secondary schools were distributing condoms and encouraging students to use them, if they were going to engage in sexual relations. Despite these various initiatives, however, Kinghorn et al. (2002: ii) observed that:

Current programmes are clearly not adequate to produce an AIDS-free generation. Levels of basic HIV/AIDS knowledge among young people are generally high, but there is no clear sign that teenage infection rates are falling. On-going problems include a lack of skills to avoid unsafe sex and misconceptions about HIV/AIDS. A new concern is that increasing access to antiretroviral (ARV) treatments may lead to complacency about HIV prevention.²⁵

In light of assessments similar to Kinghorn's, the Government of Botswana in 2003 launched a National HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework in collaboration with NACA and various civil society organizations, as well as government ministries and departments (Republic of Botswana 2003). Nevertheless, it is likely that HIV/AIDS has continued to negatively affect access, retention, and quality of primary education.

²⁵ In particular, Kinghorn et al. (2002) perceived the weakest part to be the guidance and counseling program in schools, because school administrators do not support it and because students may be more likely to benefit from counseling by social workers rather than by teachers.



Conclusion

Botswana has made commendable efforts to increase access, retention, and quality in primary schooling. As reported above, various government policies and programs as well as initiatives by the private sector and international organizations contributed to improvements in enrollment rates between 1970 and 1997. Moreover, from 1997–2010, in the context of growing challenges of HIV/AIDS, Botswana managed to maintain the enrollment rate for 6- to 12-year-olds at approximately 90 percent and, though the enrollment rate for 7- to 13-year-olds declined from near 100 percent, it remained above 90 percent. However, the goal of universal primary education is still unfulfilled, and those who are not in school are more likely to be residents of rural areas, from lower socioeconomic status families, and members of marginalized ethnic groups.

Botswana's success in development generally and in education particularly could be credited to the fact that the country has had a stable political system and a strong economy, based in large part by a vibrant diamond industry. Certainly, if Botswana had experienced extended periods of violent conflict or if it did not have the extensive resources generated by its economy, it is unlikely that the country would have incorporated as many of its children and youth in primary schools. However, these important contextual factors only provide space for achievements within the education; they by no means guarantee that government policies and programs—complemented by religious organizations, private companies, and international agency actions—will be focused on increasing access, retention, and quality in primary education.

In this regard, attention is drawn to the importance of the 1977 National Commission on Education. Based on the recommendations of this Commission, Botswana revamped its education system, especially the primary level, putting in place policies to expand school provision, recruit and prepare teachers, and so on. Although most of Botswana's progress in increasing access and retention (as evidenced by the NERs) was achieved by 1997, the RNPE, adopted in 1994, was an important sign of the government's continued commitment to realizing universal primary education.

Although Botswana's achievements in increasing primary school access and retention are noteworthy, the stagnation or decline in enrollment rates since 1997 is discouraging. Moreover, given that the HIV/AIDS epidemic seems to have contributed significantly to the discouraging trend and that the country has not succeeded in eradicating HIV/AIDS, the future trends for access, retention, and quality are in question. Not only does HIV/AIDS directly and indirectly affect the lives of teachers and students, but the government and other organizations have had to channel the resources to combat the HIV/AIDS crisis which might otherwise be devoted to expanding and improving the quality of education provision.



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Appendix 1: Interview Protocol

Success in Increasing Access and Retention in Primary School: *Botswana*

Name: _____

Position: _____

Department/Organization: _____

1. What is your general view regarding access and retention in primary schools in Botswana between 1980-2010?
2. What factors would you say have been negatively affecting access and retention in primary schools?
3. From the 10 education regions in Botswana, are there some regions you think have been much more OR much less successful in terms of improving access and retention? Please explain.
4. Which regions perform well or better in the Primary School Leaving Examinations in Botswana? Please explain.
5. What role do you think gender plays in terms of access and retention in primary schools? Please explain.
6. What role do you think ethnicity plays in terms of access and retention at primary schools? Please explain.
7. What role do you think family's socioeconomic situation plays in terms of access and retention in primary schools? Please explain.
8. What measures (i.e., policies, programs) have been put in place to try to increase access and/or retention of primary school students?
9. Do you think the teaching or lack of teaching of the mother tongue has an impact on access and retention at primary school? Please explain?
10. Which organizations (if any) have been instrumental in terms of helping the Ministry of Education and Skills Development to improve access and retention at primary schools? Please explain the roles they have played.



Appendix 2: List of Interviewees

1. B.B. Mojaphoko – Director, Primary Education (Basic Education), Ministry of Education and Skills Development
2. S.K Ramahobo – Deputy Director, Primary Education (Basic Education), Ministry of Education and Skills Development
3. T.K. Ntshinogang – Principal Education Officer I (Pre-Primary Education), Ministry of Education and Skills Development.
4. S. Z. Majwabe – Chief Education Officer, Reforms, Ministry of Education and Skills Development
5. M.C. Kwante Kwante – Principal Administration Officer, Ministry of Education and Skills Development
6. E. Mubariki – Principal Education Officer II (Primary)-South East Region, Min. of Education and Skills Development
7. D. Kebaetse – Principal Education Officer II (Primary)-South East Region, Min. of Education and Skills Developmen.
8. B. Edzani – Senior Product Development Officer, Botswana Examination Council
9. B.J. Mogotsi – Corporate Social Investment Manager, Debswana
10. Dr. O.N. Pansiri – Head of Primary Education, University of Botswana
11. T.N. Rari – Secretary General, Botswana Sector of Educators Trade Union
12. S. Mapolelo – Administrative Secretary, Botswana Teacher’s Union
13. C. Nkala-School Head – Khurutshe Primary School, Kgatleng Region
14. H. Tjavanga – Senior Teacher I, Tsodilo Junior Secondary School





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Divonzir Arthur Gusso





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By Dr. Lorraine Pe Symaco

