



ANNUAL POVERTY MONITORING REPORT 2006/07





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ABBREVIATIONS & ACRONYMS

ADF	Agricultural Demonstration Farmers
ALDEP	Arable Lands Development Programme
BAIS	Botswana AIDS Impact Survey
BIDPA	Botswana Institute for Development Policy Analysis
BCCT	Bukakhwe Cultural Conservation Trust
BWC	Bokamoso Women's Cooperative
CBNRM	Community Based Natural Resources Management
CBO	Community Based Organisation
CHAs	Communal Hunting Areas
CSO	Central Statistics Office
DWNP	Department of Wildlife and National Parks
DSS	Department of Social Services
EWTC	Early Warning Technical Committee
FNU	Food and Nutrition Unit
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOB	Government of Botswana
GoCT	Gaing-O Community Trust
HCNCT	Huiku Community Based Natural Conservation Trust
HIES	Household Income and Expenditure Survey
HIV/AIDS	Human Immune Virus / Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IMDC	Inter-Ministerial Drought Committee
IPC	International Poverty Centre
KBWC	Kachempati Basket Weavers Cooperative
KDT	Khwai Development Trust
KyTsie	Kgetsi ya Tsie
LIMID	Livestock Management and Infrastructure Development
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MCT	Molema Community Trust
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MOA	Ministry of Agriculture
MOH	Ministry of Health
MSCPR	Multi Sectoral Committee on Poverty Reduction
MEWT	Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism
MZCDT	Mababe Zokotshama Community Development Trust
NACA	National AIDS Coordinating Agency
NDP	National Development Plan
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NGBWC	Ngwao Boswa Women's Cooperative
NGCT	Ngande Community Trust
NSPR	National Strategy for Poverty Reduction
OJKT	Okavango Jakotsha Community Trust
OKCT	Okavango Community Trust
OKMCT	Okavango Kopano Mokoro Community Trust
OPT	Okavango Polers Trust
RALE	Representative, Accountable and Legal Entity
RDC	Rural Development Council
RDCD	Rural Development Coordination Division
STMT	Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust
VTC	Village Trust Committee
WMAs	Wildlife Management Areas
XWNCT	Xwiskurusa Natural Resources Conservation Trust
XXDT	Xhau Xhwatubi Development Trust

This annual report outlines progress made in implementing the 2006/07 Action Plan for the National Strategy for Poverty Reduction (NSPR).

The report includes: (1) an assessment of the poverty focus of select NSPR programmes; (2) a review of the poverty M&E systems in government agencies; (3) the identification and assessment of pro-poor institutions; and (4) fostering knowledge sharing, advocacy and building consensus. The core chapters of the report focus on the first three activities.

The report starts with an overview of changes in living conditions using recent aggregate evidence of selected socio-economic indicators: income poverty and change, unemployment and wages, nutritional and health status, and educational attainments (Chapter 2). Where the available evidence permits, change in the well being of the income poor in particular is highlighted, consistent with the goal of the NSPR – improving the well being of the poor in all its dimensions.

An important step towards poverty reduction is to undertake anti-poverty programmes that correctly respond to the needs and constraints of the poor, and that impact positively on their well being.

An important step towards poverty reduction is to undertake anti-poverty programmes that correctly respond to the needs and constraints of the poor, and that impact positively on their well being. Periodic programme evaluation is necessary to ensure and promote good design and operation. Any NSPR programme is hence subject to such evaluation, using consistent criteria.

Chapter 3 presents progress in implementing the programmes of the NSPR as reported by the implementing sectors. For purposes of consistency, the sector reports are categorised in three areas: (1) programme type and objective, (2) output indicator, target and achievement, and (3) self-assessment of progress towards poverty reduction (or lack of it). In addition, the chapter includes the main findings of the recently completed programme assessment and progress in implementing the new template-based outcome monitoring systems.

The Government calls for instituting comprehensive monitoring systems to track progress on poverty reduction in its different dimensions. Specifically, it calls on the MSCPR to report what effects its policies and programmes have had on the well being of the poor, and, more importantly, on the state of poverty in general.

To date, the Rural Development Coordination Division (RDCD) has completed a review of the M&E systems of five government agencies to find out if they are monitoring indicators for tracking the well being of the poor. These are the Ministries of Agriculture, Health and Education, the Department of Social Services in the



Ministry of Local Government, and the RDCD Food Security Unit. These agencies are at different stages of developing outcome M&E systems.

Chapter 4 highlights the key conclusions of the review of the M&E systems, presents the core welfare monitoring indicators and introduces the proposed action plan for implementing household survey-based poverty monitoring.

Implementing effective poverty reduction policy rests on the government agencies' organisation and institutional arrangements and practices that enable them to identify the poor and capture the needs of the poor correctly, to link the poor to the economic growth process (e.g. institutions providing access to credit to the poor, technology and transfer of knowledge, marketing services), to deliver social services to the poor, and to target the poor effectively in the provision of social assistance (e.g. destitute programme).

Implementing effective poverty reduction policy rests on the government agencies' organisation and institutional arrangements and practices that enable them to identify the poor and capture the needs of the poor correctly.

Chapter 5 presents the findings from a recent assessment of the case studies of Community Based Organisations (CBOs) specialising in natural resource management (CBNRM). It explores the features of CBNRM as the institutional vehicle for poverty reduction, focusing on enterprise development and income growth (improving income level is a necessary condition for reducing poverty), benefit distribution (growth that is more distributive to the poor is highly desirable), and governance and management maturity.

The final Chapter 6 synthesises the report, draws relevant conclusions that have bearing on the future direction of the NSPR implementation, and sets the priority areas of implementation in 2007/08.

This chapter outlines the recent levels of change in the core indicators of living conditions with emphasis on the poor.¹ These indicators include the proportion of population below the poverty datum line for income (consumption) poverty, the prevalence of underweight children under-five years of age for child malnutrition, the primary completion rate for universal primary education, the ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education for gender equality, and the HIV prevalence and under-five mortality rate per 1000 live births for health outcomes.

The outcome indicators are similar to the indicators of the core Millennium Development Goals (MDG), but disaggregated when such information exists to specifically capture the well being of the poor. The key guiding question is how has the income (consumption) poor fared in the midst of rapid economic growth, a marked improvement in the provision of social services (i.e. nutrition and health, and education), and extensive publicly provided social safety nets?

2.1 POPULATION GROWTH AND DISTRIBUTION

Botswana's projected population for the year 2006 was 1.7 million people (CSO, 2005). The majority are youth below the age of 30 (65%), while those below 15 years of age who are yet to enter child-bearing age account for 36% of the population. Whilst thus the potential exists for strong population momentum, its likely impact on future population size is diminishing, as the country is experiencing a declining trend in annual population growth: 4.7% between 1971 and 1981, 3.5% between 1981 and 1991, and 2.4% between 1991 and 2001.

Atypical of the stylised characteristics of demographic transition (i.e. a decline in fertility rate typically follows an early decline in mortality rate), the decline in population growth is due to a combination of declining fertility and rising mortality rates associated with a high HIV/AIDS prevalence.

The population that is historically concentrated in the eastern part of the country is becoming increasingly urbanised:² 9.6% in 1971, 18.3% in 1981, 45.7% in 1991 (partly due to the creation of new urban areas) and 54.1% in 2001.

With an increasing migration of the rural population, especially the job-seeking youths, to urban areas, reducing poverty poses formidable challenges, with a potential shift in the geographical locus of poverty to urban areas.

2.2 INCOME POVERTY AND CHANGE

Recent poverty rates: Recent poverty estimates indicate a national level prevalence rate of 30.1%. That is, nearly one-third of the population lives below the poverty datum lines. Not only is the incidence of poverty high, it is also deep, as measured by the poverty gap, which is the average distance below the poverty line in a population, expressed as a percentage of the poverty line. And the depth is considerably unequal amongst the poor, as evident in the severity index of poverty (preliminary findings in IPC and BIDPA, 2005).

¹ Following the definition adopted in the CSO HIES report, the poor here refer to the income poor (or those people whose income or consumption expenditures are below the minimum costs of attaining basic needs).

² Urban settlement is defined as constituting a minimum threshold population of 5000 residents with at least 75% of its economically active population engaged in non-agricultural activities.

Poverty in Botswana is widely spread across space. All the poverty measures (head-count and high-order poverty measures) indicate that poverty is markedly higher in rural areas, followed by urban villages and towns. Since a large segment of the population is still living in rural areas, the high head count poverty prevalence means that a large percentage of the poor are rural (about 65% in 2002/03).

In the rural areas, there is considerable spatial variation in income/consumption poverty (Table 2.1). Prevalence is high in the rural northwest (49.7%) and the rural southwest (41.5%), followed by the rural northeast (37.8%) and rural southeast (28.9%). The people living in these regions face a higher likelihood of income/consumption poverty.

The northwest and southwest regions, however, comprise a small share of the country's population. Hence, despite high prevalence rates there, the poor are most numerous in regions with a high population concentration, particularly in the northeast, which accounts for 40% of the total poor in the country, followed by the southeast (28.2%).

Poverty change over time: In Botswana, there are few data points to track changes in poverty over time. Consistent with the expected inverse poverty and income growth relationship, a period of sustained economic growth is accompanied by a decline in poverty. But, the evidence indicating the extent to which economic growth contributes to poverty reduction has not yet been established.

Critical to monitoring the degree of poverty reduction is assessing the income growth of the poor segment of the population. But such information on the distributional impact of economic growth is also not available. However, there are two important pointers. Firstly, the decline in poverty rates between 1993-94 and 2002-03 indicates that the income of the poor has increased (This does not mean the income of all the poor has increased). Secondly, there is no notable progress in improving income distribution. The Gini index, based on disposable income, increased from 53.7 in 1993/94 to 57.3 in 2002/03 (CSO, 2004).

Table 2.1:
Poverty
Estimates by
Category Based
on Per Capita
Consumption,
2002/03

Category	Head-count Ratio	Poverty Gap Ratio	Severity of Poverty	Population Share	Contribution to Total Poverty (% points)	Share of Poor (%)
Urban	10.8	3.3	1.6	22.6	2.4	8.1
Urban Village	24.9	8.5	4.0	33.4	8.3	27.6
Rural	44.2	18.2	9.7	44.0	19.4	64.4
REGION						
Gaborone	6.1	1.9	1.0	10.8	0.7	2.2
Francistown	15.2	4.5	2.0	5.0	0.8	2.5
Other Town	14.8	4.6	2.1	6.9	1.0	3.4
Rural Southeast	28.9	10.8	5.4	29.5	8.5	28.2
Rural Northeast	37.8	14.0	7.0	32.5	12.3	40.8
Rural Northwest	41.5	18.0	10.3	8.4	3.5	11.5
Rural Southwest	49.7	22.8	12.5	7.0	3.5	11.5

Source: IPC/BIDPA, 2005.

Close to one-fifth of the population actively seeking jobs was unemployed in 2005/06.

The persistence of income inequality (i.e. the non-declining trend) means that the effect of economic growth on poverty has been partially neutralised. Or, the growth rate of the income of the poor has been positive, but slower than the growth rate of the income of the non-poor.

2.3 LABOUR MARKET OUTCOMES: UNEMPLOYMENT AND WAGES

Of the total population of Botswana, 71% are in the working age category (12 years and over). Of the working age population in 2005/06, a total of 663,000 people were actively seeking employment (CSO, 2006 – STATS Brief).

Using the projected population of those 12 years and over for 2006, this is equivalent to a labour force participation rate of 54%. Of these active job seekers, 82.7% found employment, including self-employment for family gain and 17.35% remained unemployed. (CSO, 2006 – STATS Brief).

Among the employed, the majority were wage earners (59.1%). Of the balance, 61% were self-employed, working on their own lands and cattleposts. Agriculture was the leading employer; this sector included skilled market oriented producers, subsistence farmers and paid agricultural workers (30.9%), followed by retail trade (14.5%) and public administration (10.9%). The contribution of the mining and manufacturing sectors was 2.6% and 6.6%, respectively.

Close to one-fifth of the population actively seeking jobs was unemployed in 2005/06. This is indicative of a significant aggregate demand shortfall in the labour market; employment growth is slower than growth in real GDP. Unemployment is highest amongst the 20-24 and 25-29 age groups, especially amongst the female population.

These groups (the youth, particularly women) exhibit notable labour market characteristics:

- They are highly active in the labour market.
- They are most likely to migrate from their places of birth to urban villages and towns (Gwebu, 2003).
- They enter the labour market mostly with primary and secondary education, but often lack desirable skills and experience (Siphambe, 2003 and 2000).
- They experience the highest rates of unemployment (e.g. 35% in the 20-24 age bracket and 23.1% in the 25-29 age bracket, based on preliminary estimates of the 2005/06 Botswana Labour Force survey).
- When employed, most are likely to be engaged in trading, clerical services and craft making.

A closer examination of the spatial pattern of unemployment shows significant variation across districts, ranging between 7.2% and 41% in 2003 (Table 2.2).

- Unemployment is markedly high in the Southern, Kweneng East, Kgalagadi and some of the Central Sub-districts (Serowe/Palapye and Mahalapye).
- In these high unemployment areas, the Central, Southern and Kweneng districts contribute the most to the total unemployment of the country, due to the large

Table 2.2: Unemployment Rate and Share of Total Unemployment by District, 2003

District	Working Age Population Share (%)	Unemployment Rate	Contribution to Total Unemployment (%)
Francistown	5.3	16.8	4.8
Gaborone	11.6	15.4	10.5
Lobatse	1.8	29.7	2.6
Selebi-Phikwe	2.6	15.8	2.3
Jwaneng	1.0	19.9	1.0
Orapa	0.4	12.5	0.4
Sowa Town	0.2	18.5	0.2
Serowe / Palapye	9.8	26.9	10.1
Central Mahalapye	6.3	20.3	5.2
Central Bobonong	4.3	19.1	3.3
Central Boteti	2.9	13.1	1.8
Central Tutume	8.5	12.4	3.9
Kweneng East	10.4	31	14.2
Kweneng West	1.8	39	2.6
Kgatleng	4.3	18.5	3.1
Southern	8.0	32.1	10.1
Ngwaketse West	0.7	40.6	0.9
Barolong	2.6	47.8	5.6
North East	2.4	14.8	2.0
Kgalagadi North	0.7	34.0	1.9
Kgalagadi South	1.7	31.4	2.2
South East	3.5	13.8	2.5
Ngamiland East	4.2	30.2	5.7
Ngamiland West	2.6	7.2	0.9
Chobe	1.0	18.8	0.8
Ghanzi	1.5	17.6	1.5

Sources: Central Statistics Office (CSO) and Department of Non Formal Education (2005), Report of the Second National Survey on Literacy in Botswana, Government Printer, Gaborone (Table 7a for population aged 10 to 70 years and Table 73 for unemployment rates and computing contribution to unemployment).

working age population and a high unemployment rate. On the other hand, the Kgalagadi district, despite high unemployment rates, accounts for a small percentage of the total unemployment because of its small share of the total working population.

- Although lifetime out-migration from the Central Sub-districts (Serowe/Palapye) is high, these districts substantially contribute to the pool of the country's unemployed.

How are the poor faring in labour markets, for example, in terms of unemployment, sector/occupation concentration and wage earnings? Such information hardly exists. However, poverty in Botswana is closely correlated with the following labour market characteristics:

- There are few working adults amongst the poor.
- Often, they lack adequate educational attainment or marketable skills. Because the labour market is escalating (Siphambe, 2000), the chance of finding better paying jobs is likely to diminish for the poor.
- When employed, the working poor occupy mainly low-paying occupations, because of inadequate skills or educational attainment.
- Real wages in these low-paying occupations are likely to be low, because of low labour productivity.

Where nominal wages are not responsive to changes in the cost of living, real wages become depressed. For example, the monthly cost of living indices have increased for three consecutive years (Figure 2.1), regardless of the seasonality effect. It is plausible that the rural real wages have declined, and consequently the living conditions of the wage dependent poor have deteriorated. But there is little evidence to substantiate this claim.

Often, the poor are vulnerable to changes in labour market conditions, as in years of drought when there is a significant reduction in the demand for labour. There will be more people seeking jobs, even at below market wages, as evident, for example, in the participation of unskilled labour in relief-based public works (Figure 2.2).

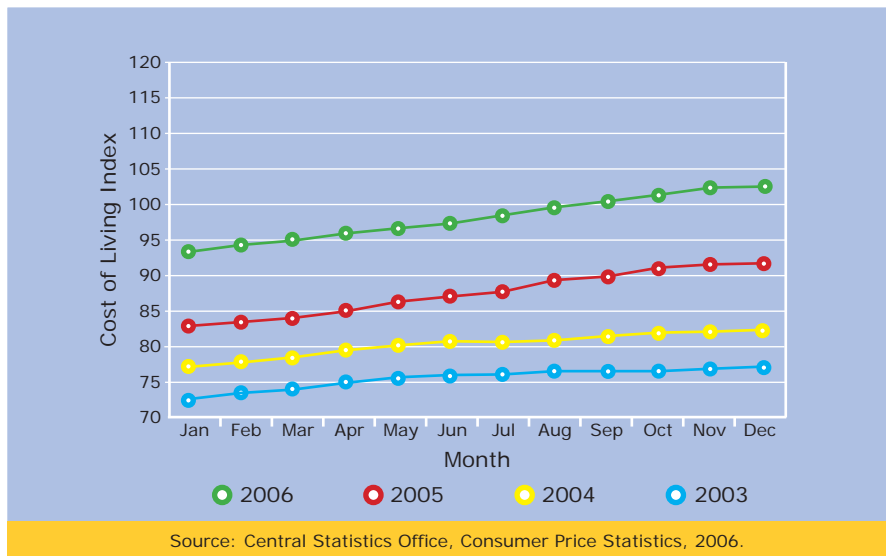


Figure 2.1:
Cost of Living
Index for
Rural Areas
by Year

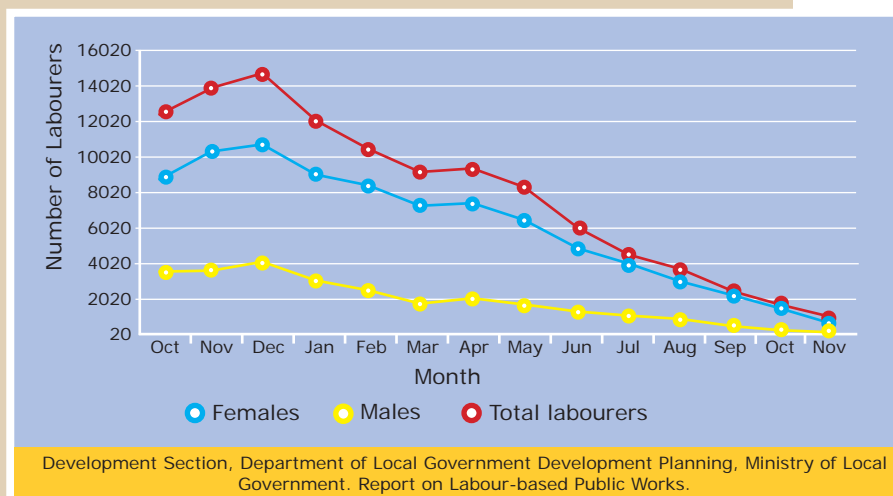


Figure 2.2:
Monthly
Employment
Figures by
Gender
(Oct 2005 -
Nov 2006)

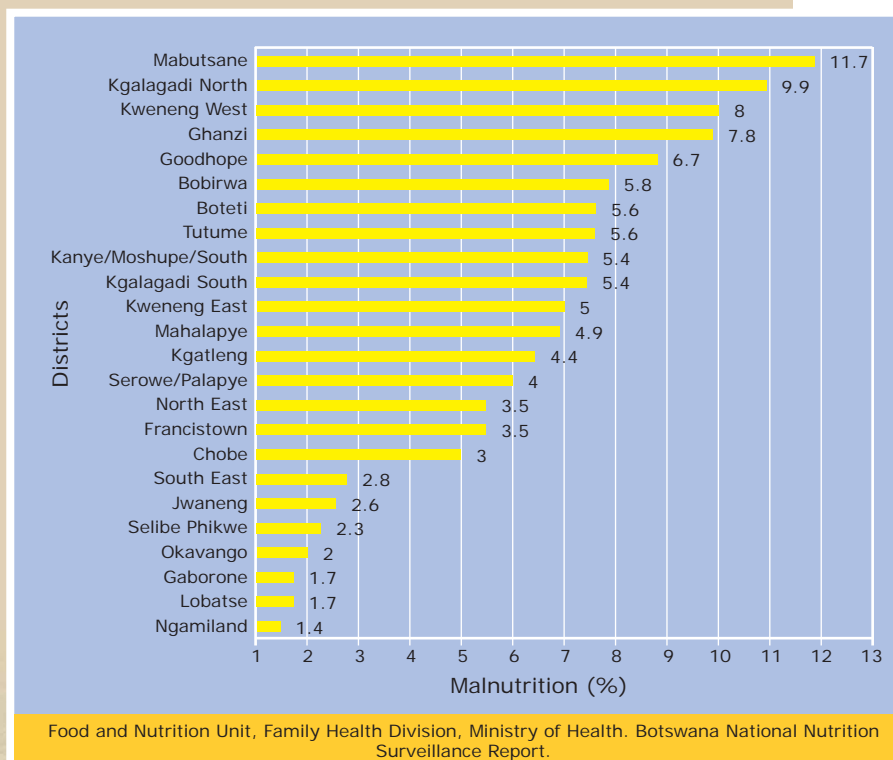


Figure 2.3:
2006 Total
Malnutrition
(%) by
District

Figure 2.4:
Underweight
Children
under 5 (0-
59 months),
1991-2006

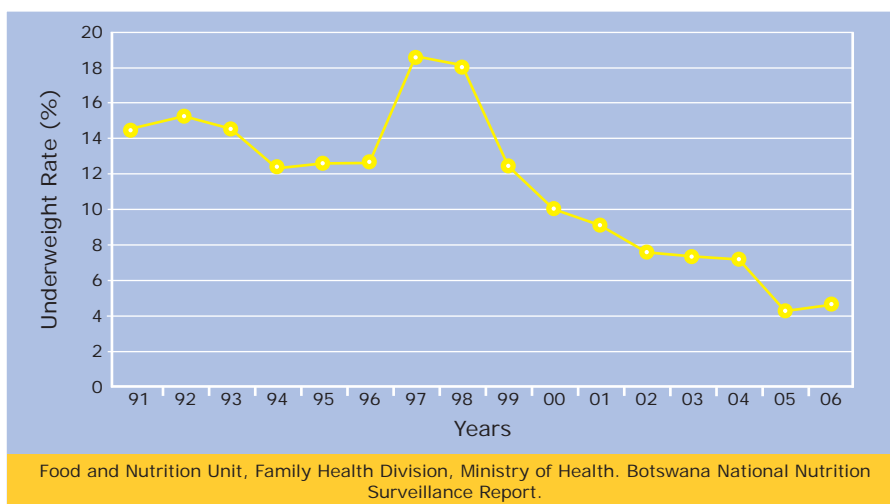


Figure 2.5:
Underweight
Children (0-59
months) by
Health District,
2002-2006

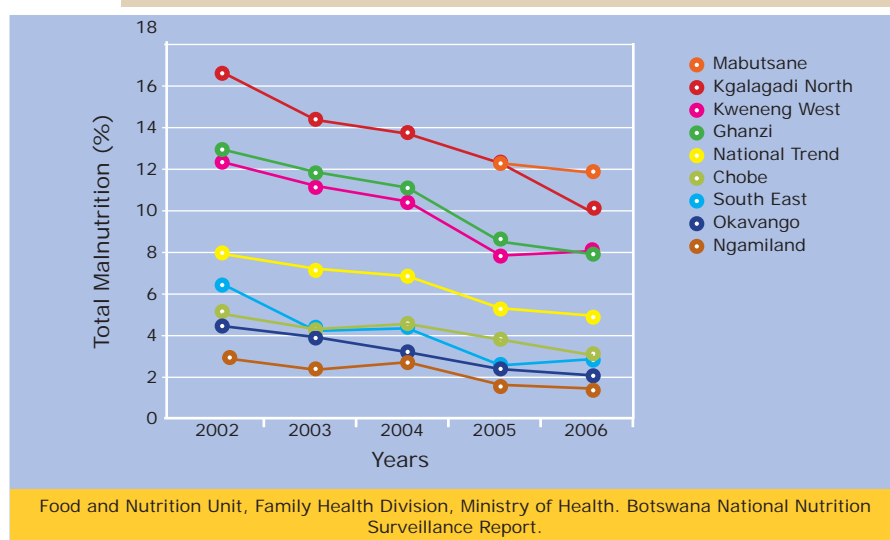
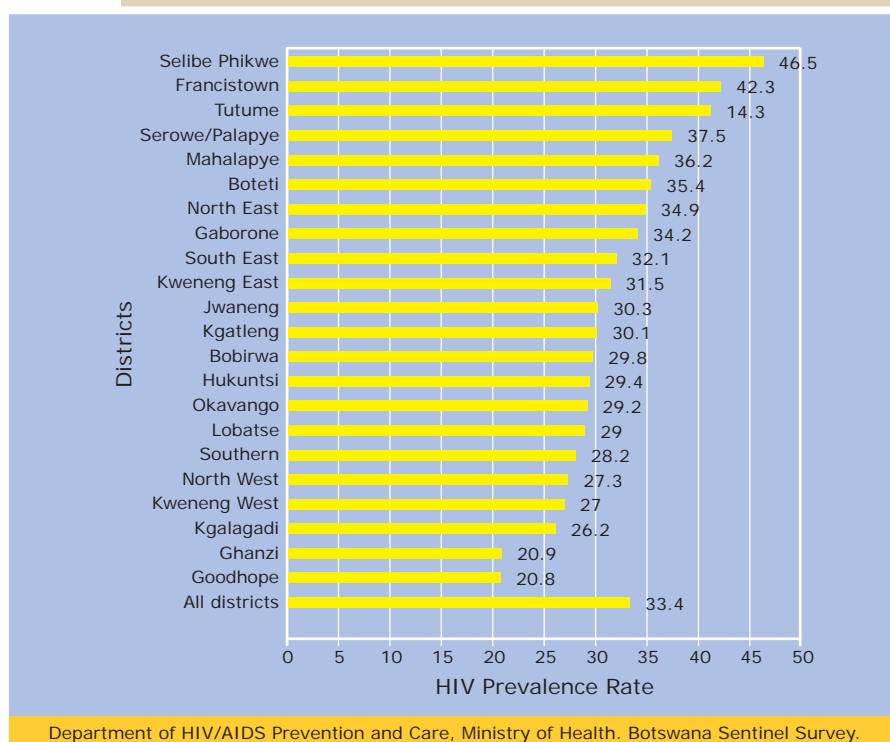
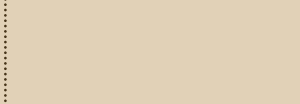
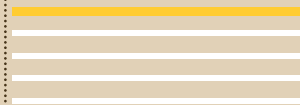
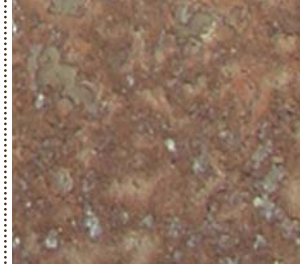


Figure 2.6:
Adjusted HIV
Prevalence
among
Pregnant
Women
(15-49 yrs) by
District





District	Rate of Destitution per 1000 Population	Percentage of Destitute Population	Percentage of Total Population
Gaborone	0.8	0.4	13.2
Francistown	5.5	1.3	5.8
Lobatse	5.4	0.4	1.9
Selebi Phikwe	1.0	0.2	3.2
Jwaneng	1.5	0.1	1.0
Sowa Town	0	0	0.2
Southern	32.4	14.2	11.0
South East	14.6	2.4	4.1
Kweneng	34.6	21.6	15.6
Kgatleng	13.8	2.7	4.8
Serowe/Palapye	37.7	15.1	10.2
Mahalapye	20.0	5.5	6.9
Bobirwa	16.6	2.8	4.3
Boteti	37.7	4.9	3.2
Tutume	19.2	6.2	8.1
North East	16.8	2.1	3.1
Ngamiland	22.9	7.6	8.3
Chobe	14.3	0.7	1.3
Ghanzi	75.6	6.6	2.2
Kgalagadi	45.5	5.1	2.8

Source: Report for Destitution and Community Home Based Care programmes, December 2005; Population Projections for Botswana 2001-2031 (Table 3.1, pg 53). Destitutes here refers to permanent and temporary destitutes only.

Table 2.3: Spatial Distribution of Destitute Population³

There was a large surge in adults willing to work at low wages as work opportunities became available during the drought year of 2005-06. Peaks in employment occurred in October and December 2005, and tapered off after December 2005. This could be due to the scaling down of relief intervention because of the improved spatial and temporal distribution of rainfall in 2006/07.

Given the low wage rates and the menial work requirements in relief public works, it is likely that the poor, especially women, self-screen into the programme. As the recent evidence confirms, there is a great deal of correspondence between the profile of the rural poor and the characteristics of the participants in public works: mostly adult females, seeking employment, low educational attainment and having few physical assets (RDCD, 2007a).

2.4 RATE OF DESTITUTION

As noted above, there is variation in the depth of poverty amongst the poor. The very poor are found at the lowest end of income (consumption) distribution where poverty is the deepest. These are typically the destitute (the chronic poor), such as the permanent destitutes in the Botswana programme (mostly aged, headed by single females with numerous dependents, little assets or income, and often dependent on public income transfer).

It is unknown how many destitutes are currently covered through the Destitute Programme. However, Table 2.3 shows the rates of destitution and the distribution of destitutes by district, based on 2005 figures showing the number of registered destitutes.

The rate of destitutes per 1000 population is highest in Ghanzi, Kgalagadi, Central (Boteti, Serowe and Palapye), Kweneng and Southern districts. But the highest concentration of the destitute population, as measured by geographical share, is in Kweneng, Southern and Serowe/Palapye in central districts.

This pattern of geographical distribution is similar to the spatial distribution of income poverty in Botswana. The incidence of poverty is high in the southern, southwest and northwest regions of the country. But the poor are concentrated in areas of large population settlements, such as the eastern districts.

³ Ideally, the last column in Table 2.3 would be the distribution of the poor population by district.

The child nutritional status, measured by the prevalence of underweight children below five years of age, is markedly low in Botswana.

2.5 UNDERWEIGHT CHILDREN

Underweight prevalence: The child nutritional status, measured by the prevalence of underweight children below five years of age, is markedly low in Botswana.

In 2006, the percentage of underweight children nationally was 5.2%. But, as shown in Figure 2.3, there is some variation in the distribution of underweight children across districts. The prevalence is generally lower amongst children in urban areas.

Within the rural districts, child malnutrition tends to be above the national average in Southern, Kgalagadi, Ghanzi and some Central districts (Mahalapye and Tutume). Within these districts, there are areas with rates of prevalence exceeding 20 percent, compared with the national average of 5.2%. This spatial pattern is consistent with the distribution of income poverty where the prevalence rate is high in the southwest and northwest regions (with the exception of lower malnutrition in Ngamiland).

Changes in underweight prevalence over time: Over the years, Botswana has recorded a marked decline in the percentage of underweight children: 14% in the early 1990s to 5.2% in 2006 (Figure 2.4). Except for the peak in 1997 and 1998, there has been a steady downward trend. The same pattern of long-term decline is observed in the percentage of children experiencing weight loss for three consecutive months (i.e. growth failure).

These improvements in nutritional status have been attributed to an increase in health clinic attendance, an improvement in the supply of food rations, intensified health education to mothers at health facilities, improved feeding practices, and the effective implementation of disease control through the integrated management of childhood illness (RDCD, 2007b).

Whilst all the districts are showing an improvement in child nutrition over the years, there are some districts that are persistently lagging behind (Figure 2.5): Kgalagadi, Ghanzi, Good Hope and Mabutsane. The reasons for these pockets of malnutrition have not yet been established, yet they underline the need to advocate informed interventions and to monitor their performance.

2.6 HIV PREVALENCE

Recent prevalence rates: Based on the 2005 HIV surveillance of pregnant women attending antenatal clinics (nearly 100%), the prevalence rate of HIV averages 33.4% (MOH, 2006). The percentages are higher in age groups 25-29 (44.5%), 30-34 (49.2%) and 35-39 (40.2%).

Geographically, the prevalence rates are slightly higher for urban health facilities than for rural (MOH, 2006). But there is considerable variation amongst the health districts, as shown in Figure 2.6.

- The districts with above national averages are Selebi-Phikwe (46.5%), Francistown (42.3%), Tutume (41.3%), Serowe/Palapye (37.5%), and Mahalapye (36.2%).

- The districts that are known for high income poverty prevalence rates register lower rates of HIV prevalence: Kweneng West (27%), Kgalagadi (26.2%) and Ghanzi (20.9%). Such a correlation at district level masks the expected link between the HIV infection rate and poverty.

The population based BAIS II (Botswana AIDS Impact Survey II) shows, as expected, a lower prevalence rate amongst the general population (17.1% in 2004). However, the age-wise pattern remains the same, with high prevalence rates occurring in the 25-39 age groups – the most at risk population segment.

Prevalence rates over time: Figure 2.7 tracks the HIV prevalence rates for pregnant women between 1992 and 2005. There was a rapid increase in prevalence between 1992 and 1995.

The prevalence rate crossed the 30% mark in 1995 and continued to increase slowly, then peaked close to 40% in 2002. It has since stabilised close to 35%. The exception was in 2005 when it slightly dropped below 35%. It is not yet certain whether or not the HIV prevalence curve is turning downwards, but the rates appear to be stabilising.

2.7 MORTALITY RATES AND LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH

Recent mortality rates: Based on the 2001 population census, the number of deaths per 1000 live births averaged nationally 74 for under-five children and 56 for infants.⁴

The probability of death was higher amongst the boys than girls. Rolang G. Majelantle provides district-specific estimates of the probability of death at different ages using the 2001 population census (CSO, 2003).

The results indicate considerable differences in life expectancy at birth across gender and space. When compared to the rest of the country, “the chances of survival from birth are worse for Northeast, Central, Ngamiland, and Southern Districts,” notes Majelantle.

Trends in child mortality: The probability of death before the first, and up to the fifth, year was on a long-term downward trend during the 1970s and 1980s, and then reversed beginning in the mid-1990s.

For example, the infant mortality rate declined from 97.1 per 1000 live births in 1971 to 71 per 1000 in 1981 and 48 per 1000 in 1991.

The declining trend continued until the mid-1990s, albeit at a slower rate, and then reversed. The infant mortality rate reached 56 per 1000 in 2001. Such a reversal trend pattern is consistent with countries with high HIV prevalence rates where, over the years, there is a shift in the rank order of the cause of death, with AIDS accounting for the highest disease burden.

⁴ The under-five (infant) mortality rate is the probability that a newborn baby will die before reaching age five, subject to current age-specific mortality rates (expressed as a rate per 1000).

Figure 2.7:
HIV Prevalence
Rates for
Pregnant
Women, 1992-
2006

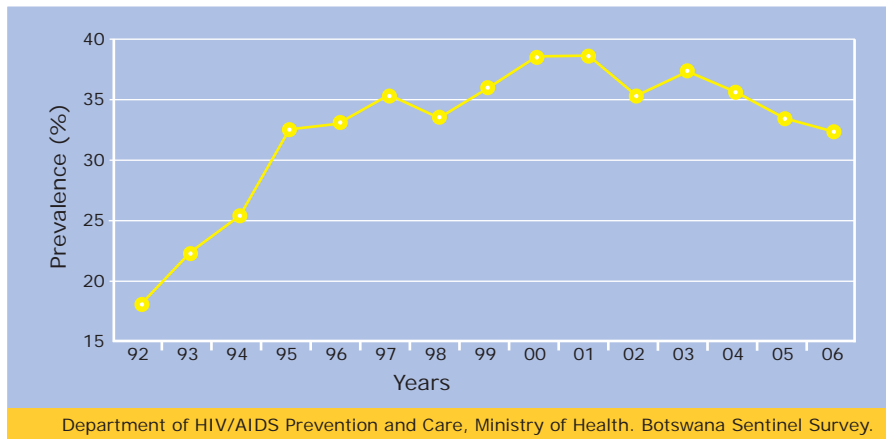


Figure 2.8:
Net Enrolment
Rates (NER)
for Primary
Education,
1993-2005

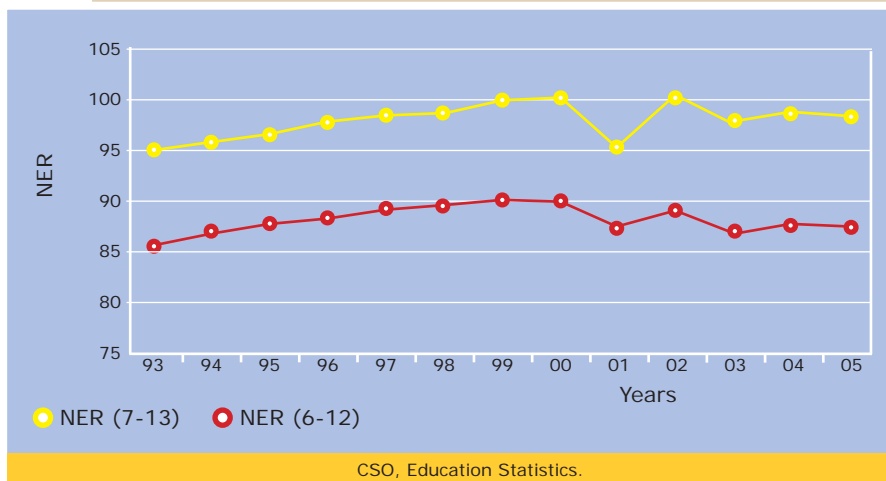


Figure 2.9:
Progression
Rates from
Standard 1 to
Standard 7,
1987-2002

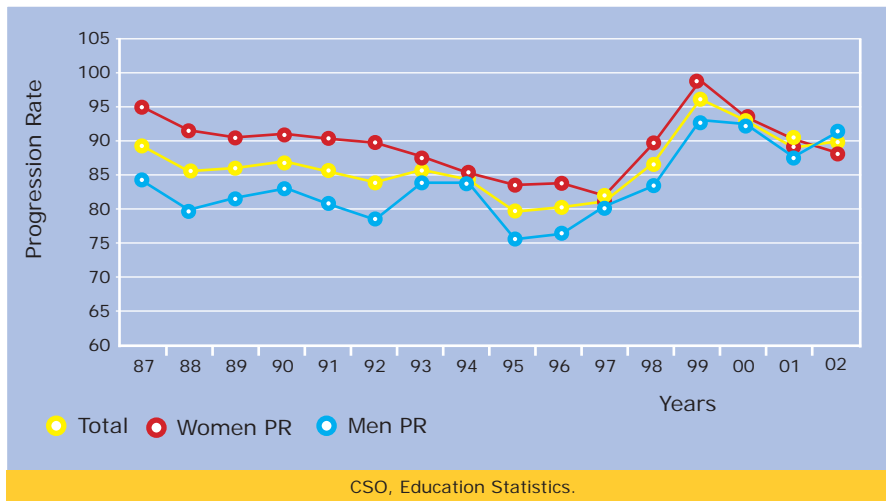
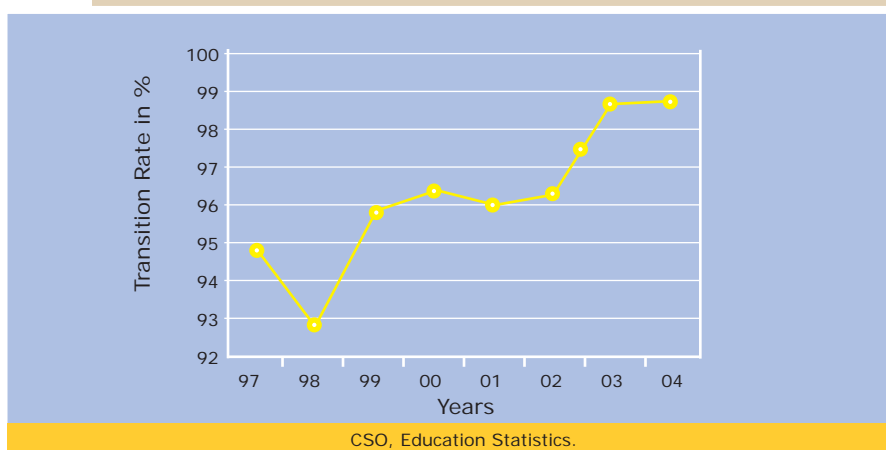


Figure 2.10:
Transition
Rates from
Standard 1 to
Form 1, 1997-
2004





Botswana has attained significant achievements in access to educational and attainment indicators.

Life expectancy at birth: A reversal pattern has also been observed in life expectancy at birth: 55 years in 1971, 65.3 years in 1991, and 55.6 years in 2001.

2.8 EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND GENDER EQUALITY

Botswana has attained significant achievements in access to educational and attainment indicators: net enrolment, primary rate completion, transition to higher education, gender equality (the ratio of female to male), and adult literacy (% of people age 15 and older who can, with understanding, read and write).

Access to education: Net enrolment rates⁵ are close to 100% (Figure 2.8). The country is about to achieve the goal of universal primary education.

Primary school completion rates: Once students enter the school system, the rate of progression towards primary school completion is high, exceeding more than 80%, as shown in Figure 2.9 (CSO, 2003). All the districts show strong evidence of universal primary school completion, with a few slightly lagging behind, particularly the western and southwestern districts.

Transition rates: Figure 2.10 plots the transition rates from primary (Standard 7) to secondary (Form 1) for the years 1997 to 2004. The transition rates have generally been on the rise since 1997, from 95% in 1997 to about 98.7% in 2004. This shows that more and more Standard Seven leavers are finding places in the secondary school system.

Gender parity: There is gender parity in the enrolment of girls and boys in the primary and secondary school systems in Botswana (Figure 2.11). Full parity was achieved in the primary schools in 1995 (ratio of 1). The ratio of girls to boys in enrolment in secondary schools is trending towards parity (i.e. moving towards 1).

Adult literacy: Nationally, the average literacy rate amongst people aged 10-70 years is 76.2% (CSO and Department of Non-Formal Education, 2005). The rate is higher in urban areas (85.4%) as compared to rural areas (65.7%). In the rural areas, the rates are generally lower in the western and southwestern districts – Ghanzi, Kgalagadi, Ngamiland West and Kweneng West (Figure 2.12).

2.9 VULNERABILITY TO CLIMATE AND HEALTH SHOCKS (COVARIATE RISKS)

Botswana closely monitors climate-based risks arising from periodic droughts. The country has an early warning system that continuously monitors the occurrence of drought⁶ and associated changes in bio-physical and socio-economic conditions.

The Early Warning Technical Committee reports regularly on its assessment of drought and the food security situation to the Inter-Ministerial Drought Committee and Rural Development Council (RDC).

⁵ NER is computed as the enrolment of a specified age group/population of that specified age group*100. It is indicative of the percentage of children of specific age-group who are in the educational system.

⁶ Drought is defined as a deficiency in rainfall in terms of its level and spatial-temporal distribution that is severe enough to negatively affect plant growth, water supplies, human livelihood and food security.

Figure 2.11:
Ratio of Girls
to Boys in
Primary and
Secondary
Education

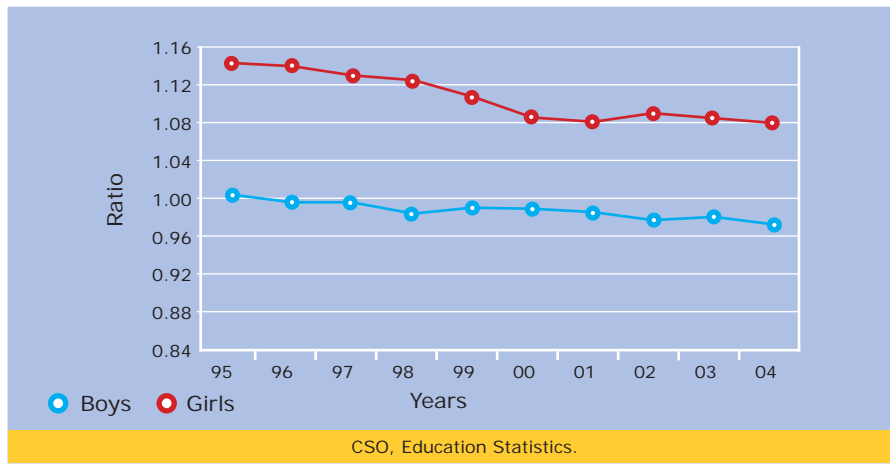


Figure 2.12:
District Adult
Literacy

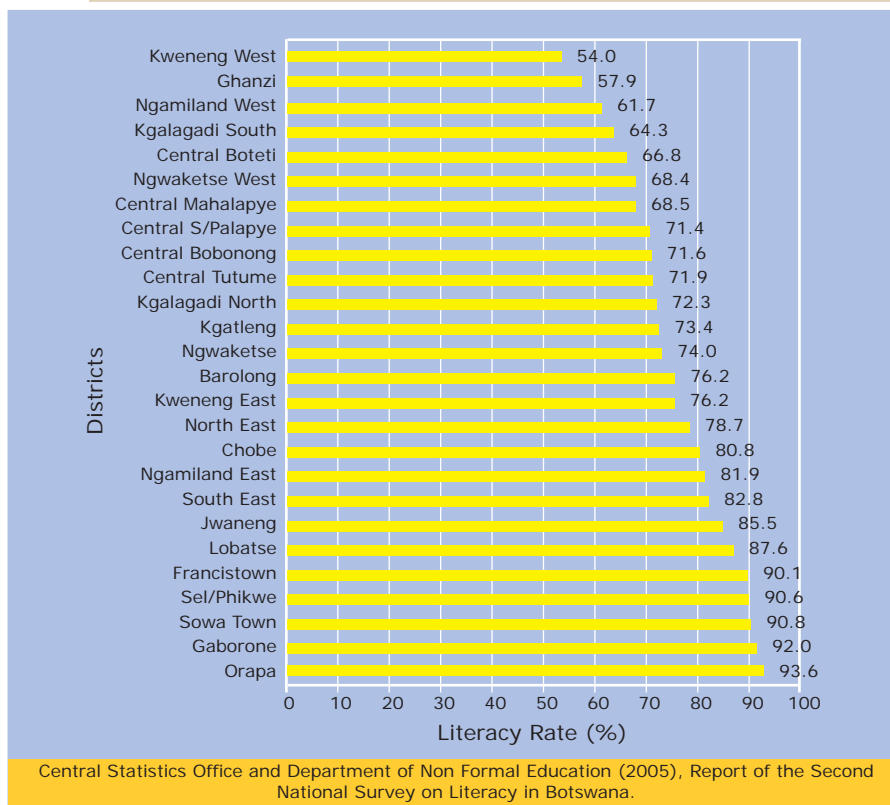
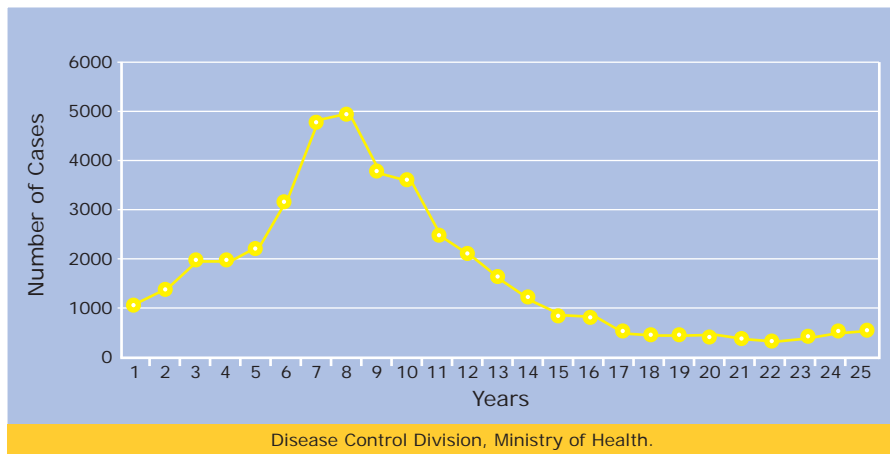
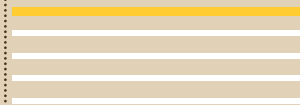


Figure 2.13:
Diarrhea
Cases by
Week, 2006





The period of 2006/07 was declared a non-drought year, based on the following assessment of the drought and household food security early warning indicators in 2005-06 (RDCD, 2006):

- The seasonal rainfall was normal to above normal, with improving good spatial distribution and fair temporal distribution.
- Vegetation greenness was improving throughout the country.
- Crop production was forecasted to increase because of an expected increase in area ploughed/planted and yields.
- There were good grazing conditions, water availability, and livestock conditions countrywide. The rangeland was expected to sustain livestock and wildlife until the next rainfall season.
- There were no notable signs of stress in household welfare, i.e. the nutritional status of under-fives and the rate of destitution. The household food security situation was expected to improve in 2006/07, and consequently human vulnerability would be minimal.

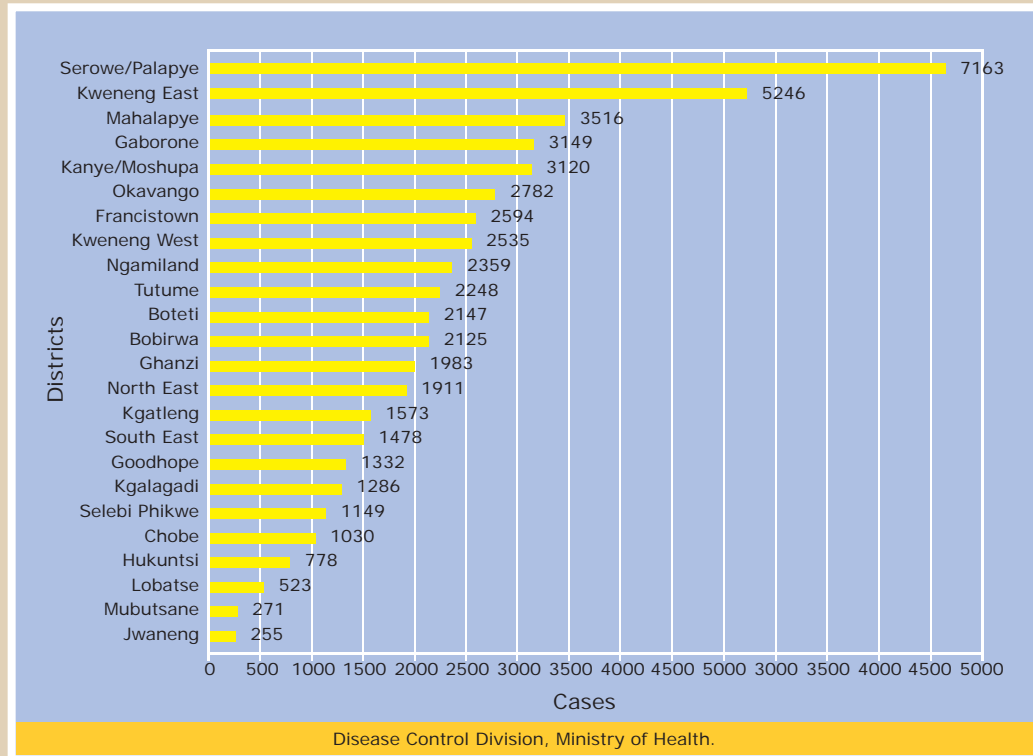
Botswana also monitors the incidence of communicable diseases (e.g. HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, diarrhea, malaria, etc). Within the Disease Control Division of the Ministry of Health, there is in particular the integrated disease surveillance system that monitors new cases of epidemic-prone diseases (e.g. diarrhea, malaria, cholera, etc.).

The country experienced an outbreak of diarrhea in early 2006. Figure 2.13, based on the under-five diarrhea surveillance data for the first 25 weeks, shows rising numbers of new cases of diarrhea, particularly in the months between January and May 2006. At the peak of the episode, new cases climbed to a little over 5000 per week. The period of the elevated diarrhea outbreak coincided with an increase in child mortality, especially amongst children experiencing growth failure.

Figure 2.14 shows the total cases of diarrhea in the first 47 weeks of 2006 by health district. The most cases of diarrhea were experienced in five health districts (over 3000 cases in 47 weeks): Serowe-Palapye, Kweneng West, Mahalapye, Gaborone and Kanye/Moshupa.

The country continues to register a marked decline in child nutrition.

Figure 2.14:
District
Diarrhea
Cases



2.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The reported core indicators establish some notable patterns. Income poverty is declining, but still high. Unemployment is high, particularly amongst the youth who are active in the labour market. As the youth come into their prime working age, they are faced with poor prospects of employment and a high risk of HIV infection. Rural wages remain low, particularly in rural areas where productivity is also low.

The country continues to register a marked decline in child nutrition. The trend in HIV infection shows signs of stabilisation, but prevalence rates are still high, especially amongst the child-bearing age groups. The past social gains of declining mortality rates and improved life expectancy are reversing.

Access to primary education is nearly universal. Educational attainment, as measured in primary school completion rates and transition to higher education, is markedly high. These changes are occurring in an environment of slowing population growth that is rapidly urbanising.

The aggregate evidence, however, masks differences in economic and social progress across geographical areas.

Text Box 1: Drought, Household Food Security and Nutrition Concerns

Household food security is defined as having access to an adequate quantity and quality of food by all members of the family at all times for a productive and healthy life. Among the food insecure, there are chronic households whose mean food consumption is below the required norm; and there are other households that are transient food insecure, that is their mean consumption is above the minimum threshold but they experience temporary declines in access to food.

Attaining food self-sufficiency and meeting food availability at a national level, and locally through markets, are important achievements towards attaining household food security. But even when a country is able to have adequate food availability that can meet the dietary requirements of its people, household food insecurity persists, because some people lack the resources to produce enough or the purchasing power to access the available food. Food insecurity persists at an individual level, even within food secure households where there is inequity in the intra-household distribution of food.

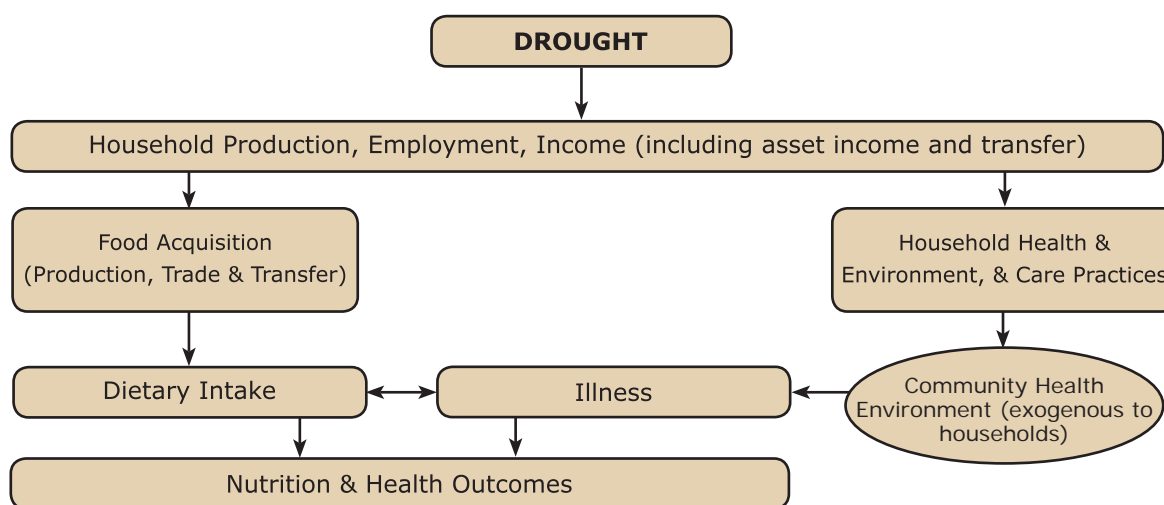
Attaining food security is a necessary condition (or input) for meeting nutritional requirements towards achieving a productive and healthy life. As shown in the flow chart, the dietary intake and health status of an individual directly and interactively influence nutritional outcome such as undernourishment, which is an outcome of an inadequate dietary intake and utilisation due to exposure to illness. These are related in turn to access to food and health services, a sanitary environment and household nutrition care.

There are several indicators of food and nutrition security that are related to the different levels shown in the flow charts and their underlying determinants. However, the common indicators are self-sufficiency in food production, food availability derived from the food balance sheet (food production, net imports and food in stocks) commonly expressed in terms of dietary energy supply, undernourishment derived from actual food consumption (consistent with household food consumption preference and choice), child nutritional outcome (e.g. anthropometric measures) and nutritional status in adults (e.g. body mass index, BMI).

Except for child nutritional status, data on household food and nutrition security hardly exists in Botswana. For example, the nationally representative calorie availability has not been assessed, and hence questions such as what percentage of the population falls below the minimum dietary energy requirement and what has been the change in food poverty over time cannot be assessed. Even more important is evaluating the impact of periodic droughts on stabilising (reducing variance) household food consumption.

The occurrence of drought conditions impact on household food security and nutritional outcomes through the chains shown in the flow chart: decline in food production; contraction of economic activity and employment; deterioration in asset income such as livestock; reduced access to food; and increased disease risk due to poor dietary intake and compromised hygienic environment. The poor are particularly vulnerable to shocks, because of their limited capacity to smooth income and consumption fluctuations.

Public policy can play an important role in preventing or mitigating drought impacts on household food security, nutrition and health through intervention to address the sources of risk: protecting or preserving real income and household assets (e.g. price stabilisation, employment creation, subsidised fodder and water, access to credit); stabilising food consumption (e.g. food price subsidy or targeting food transfer and feeding); and disease prevention (e.g. sanitary and health support). But policy must recognise that households employ various devices to manage risks to reduce income (asset) variability and food consumption, and thus should minimise the crowding out of efficient private mechanisms.



Source: Poverty and Food Security Monitoring Bulletin 2, June 2007.

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Currently, the Multi-Sectoral Committee on Poverty Reduction (MSCPR) monitors programmes in five categories: (1) livelihood creation/generation, (2) nutrition and health, (3) income transfer, (4) institutions for the poor, and (5) periodic poverty assessment.

Progress on these programmes is reported quarterly. Section 3.1 is a summary of implementation progress in 2006/07 as reported by sectors. Each programme specific report highlights its objectives, the means through which the objectives are achieved, the indicators monitored, and progress in performance as measured by the indicators.

A review of selected programmes was conducted in mid-2006 to principally assess how much information is captured to track operational performance and progress towards poverty reduction. Section 3.2 presents the main conclusions. Section 3.3 highlights the recommended three-step procedure to achieve these objectives and the progress towards enhancing outcome monitoring.

3.1 SECTOR REPORTS FOR 2006/07

3.1.1 Child Nutrition Surveillance

Objective: To monitor the nutritional status of children under five years old attending child welfare clinics.

Indicators: Total malnutrition rate, growth failure rate, attendance rate and food ration coverage.

Total malnutrition: Total malnutrition is the sum of both moderate and severe malnutrition. The nutritional status for under-fives improved during the first quarter of 2006/07 from 5.6% in the previous quarter to 4.7%. Prior to this the nutritional status deteriorated, possibly due to diarrhea outbreaks. During the second quarter, total malnutrition stood at 4.2% and increased slightly to 4.6% (4.7% in October, 4.5% in November and 4.6% in December 2006) in the third quarter. One possible reported cause for this increase was due in part to the shortage of supplementary foods at the health facilities.

By the fourth quarter of 2006/07, total malnutrition was 5.0% (5.2% in January, 4.8% in February and 5.1% in March 2007). These figures were evidently higher than the previous quarter, probably due in part to the same shortages of supplementary food and the fact that it was the ploughing season and childcare practices were competing with farm activities.

There were also inter-district variations, with some districts such as Mabutsane, Kgalagadi North and South and Kweneng West consistently performing poorly. Eleven districts reported total malnutrition prevalence above the national average, with the highest prevalence reported in Mabutsane (13.2%), Kgalagadi North (10.2%), Ghanzi (9.3%), Kweneng West (7.7%), and Bobirwa (6.9%). Districts reporting the lowest prevalence were Ngamiland (1.1%), Gaborone (1.8%) and Lobatse (2.0%).

Growth failure: Growth failure is defined as a child's inability to gain weight for three consecutive months and is a sign of increased risk of malnutrition. The national



growth failure rate stood at 4.4% for the first quarter, increased to 4.6% in the second quarter, and further increased to 5.2% during the third quarter.

A shortage of food rations could possibly have been one of the reasons for the growth failure. As observed in the fourth quarter of 2006/07, an increase in ration coverage from 47.7% to 59.2% resulted in a decrease in growth failure from 5.2% to 4.7%. Districts that reported a high growth failure were Kgalagadi North (13.2%), Bobirwa (9%), North East (7.6%) and Kgalagadi South (6.5%).

Clinic attendance: The national average clinic attendance rate was 91.3% during the first quarter of 2006/07 and dropped to 83.8% during the second quarter. The third quarter maintained a similar pattern and remained at 83.1%. By the fourth quarter, the rate remained at 83.1% to 90.6%.

The highest attendance rate was reported at Mabutsane (168.4%), Kweneng West (118.4%), North East (107.9%), Mahalapye (106.5%), Kgalagadi North (104.2%), Boteti (103.1%) and Kgalagadi South (100.3%). Francistown stood at 68.7%. Gaborone reported the lowest attendance rate at 50%.

Ration coverage: The Vulnerable Group Feeding Programme was reportedly plagued with shortages of some food commodities, such as vegetable oil, maize meal and Tsabana during the first and second quarter of 2006/07.

In the first quarter, ration coverage dropped to 71.6% from 74.2% in the previous quarter and maintained a declining pattern up to the third quarter of that year (second quarter stood at 57.5% and third quarter stood at 47.7%). A slight recovery was observed in the fourth quarter which stood at 59.2%. These shortages were possibly major factors that contributed to the increase in total malnutrition during the third quarter.

Quarter	% Attendance	% Moderate	% Severe	% Total	% Growth Failure	% Ration Received
Q 1	91.3	3.8	0.9	4.7	4.4	71.6
Q2	83.8	3.5	0.7	4.2	4.6	57.5
Q3	83.1	3.8	0.8	4.6	5.2	47.7
Q4	90.6	4.2	0.8	5.0	4.7	59.2

Training: Having identified districts that continue to report high malnutrition prevalence, the Food and Nutrition Unit (FNU) continues to

train health workers in the said districts to identify and address malnutrition in children.

A Growth Monitoring and Nutrition Surveillance workshop was conducted for 35 health workers in Ghanzi (for Ghanzi, Kgalagadi North, Kgalagadi South, Mabutsane and Good Hope) in November 2006. In addition to nutrition surveillance, the workshop also aimed to impart skills on analysing and identifying the causes of malnutrition in their areas. Another training workshop was conducted for other districts that had a high rate of malnutrition (Serowe/Palapye, Mahalapye, Kweneng East, Kweneng West and Kanye Moshupa) in February and March 2007 in Palapye.

Interventions at the district level are reportedly limited by a lack of manpower, as there are no nutritionists to address malnutrition issues within the concerned districts.

Table 3.1
Summary
Table for
Child Nutrition
Monitoring
Indicators,
2006/07



District Council	Beneficiaries Identified	Beneficiaries Trained	In Training
Ghanzi	344	133	15
Francistown	112	78	44
Mahalapye	101	90	35
Kgalagadi	45	19	0
North West	54	30	0
Southern	51	15	9
North East	0	0	0
Selebi Phikwe	16	0	0
Kgatleng	40	0	0
TOTALS	763	365	103

Table 3.2: Housing for the Poor Project Beneficiary Population⁷ by End of 2006/07

3.1.2 Housing for the Poor

This is a programme that focuses on creating employment opportunities and empowering the poor through home ownership. In this specific case, the Government is providing capital to set up projects to produce building materials. Once the poor households can run the business ventures themselves and generate income, they can then be in a position to build houses for themselves.

Objective: To improve accessibility to good quality basic shelter through income generation schemes.

Targets for 2006/07: Facilitate training of 50 beneficiaries in brick/block production, construction of five houses and 175,000 bricks moulded in Kanye by March 2007. Establish two poverty alleviation and housing projects in Maun and Tsabong by March 2007.

Indicators: Number of production sites developed, number of beneficiaries recruited, number of newly trained labourers, number of houses constructed, and government expenditure.


Numbers of beneficiaries recruited and newly trained: Table 3.2 shows the number of beneficiaries recruited/identified since the inception of the Housing for the Poor project, including projects that are newly established. The update does not reflect the number of people recruited and trained for the different quarters.

Number of production sites developed: There are three newly established Housing for the Poor projects in Tsabong, Maun and Kanye. In Tsabong, construction of a government office block and production platform was completed in January 2007 and handed over to the district council. The contract for the purchase of machinery was signed at the close of the 2007 financial year; delivery awaited installation of external electrical reticulation.

The construction of an office block and production platforms in Maun was also completed in January 2007 and handed over to the district council. At the close of the 2007 financial year, the delivery of machinery awaited power connection. Power reticulation is expected to be connected in the new financial year 2007/08.

The Kanye project faced some logistical problems, such as the suitability of the newly installed electricity phase, and the brick moulding machinery which was found to have some defects. This hindered brick moulding as well as house construction. The matter was followed up and the building materials were sent for testing during the last quarter of the year; it is anticipated that commercial production will commence in the first quarter of 2007/08.

⁷ The beneficiary population is calculated from the inception of the project to the end of 2006/07.



The next projects to be established will be in Selibe-Phikwe, Masunga and Mochudi. However, the beneficiaries have only been identified for Mochudi and Selibe-Phikwe.

Number of houses constructed: It is worth noting that house construction in previously established projects (Francistown, Ghanzi and Mahalapye) progressed well since the inception of the Housing for the Poor project to the end of 2006/07. Cumulative figures show that a total of 84 houses have been constructed (Francistown 23, Mahalapye 19, and Ghanzi 42) and 17 are still under construction (Francistown 10, Ghanzi 5, and Mahalapye 2). A total of 94 beneficiaries are currently actively involved in the three projects. House construction at Kanye is anticipated to commence by the end of 2007/08.

3.1.3 Destitute Programme

Objective: To provide the minimum social assistance and protection to the very poor (destitutes) for sustenance of adequate nutrition and health.

Indicators: Prevalence of destitute persons and government expenditure.

In 2006/07, the destitute programme covered 33,261 adults permanently inscribed, 2,834 adults temporarily inscribed, 23,336 needy students, and 583 children in need of care.

Table 3.3 shows the geographical distribution of the beneficiaries, with the largest concentration in three districts: Serowe/Palapye, Southern and Molepolole. Over the same fiscal year, the Department of Social Services spent P94.5 million in direct assistance to the destitute beneficiaries (excluding cash transfer). The same three districts rank at the highest level of expenditure. The amount spent for Molepolole was considerably higher than the planned budget (nearly double).

3.1.4 Remote Area Development Programme (RADP)

Objective: To improve the socio-economic status of the Remote Area Dwellers.

Indicators: Number of people allocated with livestock and government expenditure.

Overall, 195 beneficiaries were expected to be allocated livestock; and about 736 cattle and 623 goats (male and female) were expected to be distributed during the year 2006/07.

At the end of the year (fourth quarter), 178 (91%) of the targeted beneficiaries had got their packages. Some districts failed to allocate the packages, due to higher livestock purchasing prices against the initial budgeted amount. There were also tendering delays, due to livestock movement restrictions, because of a foot and mouth disease outbreak.

The beneficiaries who did not receive livestock will be considered during the 2007/8 financial year.

3.1.5 Field Crop Production Improvement for Communal Farmers

Objective: To provide extension support to increase communal farmers' cereal yields (Target: from 200kg/ha to 500kg/ha by March 2007).

District	Permanent Destitute Persons	Temporary Destitute Persons	Needy Students	Needy Children	Planned/Approved (in '000 Pula)	Actual Expenditure (in '000 Pula)
Southern	5,348	739	3,569	115	15,862	16,408
Kgalagadi	1,379	46	787	11	7,613	4,367
Ghanzi	1,690	772	745	25	7,292	5,753
Maun	2,953	53	1,781	22	8,430	3,125
Chobe	251	6	218	5	1,245	926
Molepolole	4,863	154	3,338	24	6,912	11,782 *
Letlhakeng	2,446	7	1,388	6	5,995	5,457
Kgatleng	679	283	843	50	4,091	3,555
North East	572	136	688	16	3,245	2,987
Serowe/Palapye	5,531	69	3,583	71	15,283	15,727
Tutume	2,039	245	1,580	75	7,074	5,632
Bobirwa	956	92	1,019	45	3,290	2,698
Boteti	1638	165	1,325	7	7,971	6,545
Mahalapye	2,100	67	1,926	111	7,921	6,784
South East	816	0	546	0	3,051	2,765
TOTAL	33,261	2,834	23,336	583	105,275	94,511

Source: Department of Social Services, Ministry of Local Government.

Table 3.3: Number of Destitutes and Budgetary Allocations

Indicators: Crop production assessment for 2006/07, number of communal farmers assisted, and provision of extension services.

Crop assessment report for 2006/07: At the end of the second quarter, most of the farmers had completed harvesting and threshing their produce from the 2005/06 agricultural season. Total production was 26,007.6 tonnes for the communal sub-sector and 20,017.98 tonnes for the commercial sub-sector by the end of October 2006.

Ploughing and planting mainly commenced during the end of December 2006 for the 2006/07 crop year, due to the late onset of good rains. By the end of the fourth quarter (January to March 2007), ploughing and planting had stopped for the communal sub-sector, but was still ongoing in the commercial sub-sector.

The estimated total area ploughed/planted for both the communal and commercial sectors was 71,006.91 hectares (22% of the 325,000 hectares of cultivable land countrywide).

The objective to increase cereal crop yields from 200kg/ha to 500kg/ha by March 2007 was not realised, due to the heat stress that prevailed, leading to a general poor crop stand.

Extension Services: In an effort to facilitate an increase in cereal productivity, the government arable sub-sector provides extension services to communal farmers. These services include developing demonstration farms in different districts countrywide.

By the third quarter, 37 demonstration plots had been planted, mainly in the Central and Francistown regions. But, due to serious soil moisture limitations, all 37 demonstration plots had wilted by the fourth quarter of 2006/07.

By the end of the fourth quarter, a total of 24 Agricultural Demonstration Farmers (ADFs) had been trained in improved production technologies and 64 ADFs were allocated some of the necessary equipment. Cumulatively, 1122 out of the 1200 targeted farmers had adopted and were using the new technologies.

Programme Type	Stated Objective	Indicator Reported	Comment
Child Nutrition Surveillance	Monitor state of child nutrition	Underweight children (%) Growth failure (%) Attendance rate (%) Ration coverage (%) Training of health workers	The indicators are reported regularly on quarterly basis Completeness of the indicators (under discussion)
Housing for the Poor	Creating employment and empowering the poor through home ownership	Number of beneficiaries enrolled Number of beneficiaries trained Number of production sites Number of houses constructed	No quarterly report for 2006/07 Cumulative figures make it difficult to track performance against set targets Completeness of the indicators (under discussion) No beneficiary-level tracking (proposed template)
Destitute Programme	Provision of social assistance to the very poor	Number of beneficiaries by category Planned budget and actual expenditure	Not consistent in reporting quarterly The expenditures are too aggregated to track benefit level by type of benefit and beneficiary category No reporting on persons graduated No beneficiary-level tracking (proposed template)
Remote Area Development Programme (RADP)	Improve the socio-economic status of Remote Area Dwellers	Number of people allocated with livestock Actual public expenditure	Only reported for 4th quarter Completeness of the indicators (to be discussed) No beneficiary-level tracking
Extension Services to Communal Farmers	Improve crop yields on communal farms	Crop assessment report Number of communal farmers trained on production technologies Number of demonstration farms developed (i.e. extension outreach)	The crop assessment report is adequately reported, but the progress on number of trained farmers and demonstration farms could be reported quarterly No beneficiary-level tracking
Backyard Gardening	Assist horticulture farmers to increase yields	Number of backyard gardens established Yield increase	Not consistent in reporting quarterly No reporting on improvement in yields
Small Stock Programme	Reduce mortality rate	Number of farmers trained Rate of small stock mortality	Not consistent in reporting quarterly Completeness of the indicators (under discussion) No detailed data on farmers trained and progress on reduction of mortality No beneficiary-level tracking
Poultry Programme	Increase poultry meat production	Meat production in tonnes and farmers trained	Not consistent in reporting quarterly

The Agricultural Research sector continues to promote the adoption of more efficient technologies (Larsvyt 46-85 and weed management) and the development of effective pest management techniques. The sector anticipates an acceleration in cereal productivity, due to the introduction of fertilisers through the Arable Land Development Programme (ALDEP) Phase 3 packages.

3.1.6 Backyard Gardening

Objective: To assist horticultural farmers to increase productivity (from 20 tonnes per hectare to 40 tonnes per hectare) in different regions of the country by March 2007.

Indicators: Number of backyard gardens established and improvements in yield.

Number of backyard gardens established: A total of 136 backyard gardens had been established countrywide during the first quarter of 2006/07. By the end of the third quarter, 140 backyard plots had been established, mostly in the Central district (78) followed by North West district (27); the Western region had the lowest number (3). By the fourth quarter, only 105 plots were operating, as some of the gardeners had abandoned the programme.

Improvement in yields: No report.

Table 3.4: Performance Monitoring as Reported by the Sectors, 2006/07

3.1.7 Small Stock Programme

Objective: To reduce small stock mortality; the target is to train 600 farmers in small stock management and to reduce the mortality rate by 3% by March 2007.

Indicators: Number of farmers trained and a reduction in small stock mortality rate.

Number of farmers trained: By the third quarter of 2006/07, 338 small stock producers had been trained in stock management. A cumulative number of 779 farmers were trained in de-worming and dipping small stock.

There is no report to indicate if mortality has been reduced and at what rate.

3.1.8 Poultry Programme

Objective: To increase poultry meat production; the target is to go from 60,000 to 65,000 tonnes by March 2007.

Indicators: Level of poultry meat production and number of farmers trained.

Level of poultry meat production: By the fourth quarter of 2006/07, a total of 55,938 tonnes of poultry meat had been produced, representing 86% of the projected annual target of 65,000 tonnes. The sub-sector was reported to have created employment for 6000 people by the end of 2006/07.


Number of farmers trained: About 338 poultry farmers (cumulatively) had been trained by the third quarter of the 2006/07 fiscal year.

3.2 PROGRAMME REVIEW: MAIN CONCLUSIONS

In mid-2006, the Poverty Unit of the RDCD reviewed selected programmes representing the different strategic pathways for reducing poverty, as stated in the NSPR. These were: the Destitute Programme (direct income transfer), the Labour-intensive Relief Public Works (mainly income transfer), Housing for the Poor (skill acquisition and asset building for sustainable livelihood), and the Integrated Food, Nutrition and Health Programme through the Child Welfare Clinics (access to efficient social services).

One of the objectives of the review was to examine the existing programme level output and outcome indicators to understand what information is tracked and captured, in order to assess the operational performance and welfare outcomes of the programmes (tracking beneficiary size, programme output, benefit level and effect on well being, and programme costs). Such an understanding enables us to assess if more and relevant information should and/or can be captured.

The draft report was submitted to members of the MSCPR in October 2006. The report was organised by programme type. For each chapter (or programme type), a uniform set of topics was covered: (1) background/origin; (2) reason for inclusion in the NSPR; (3) programme size (programme coverage in terms of size of beneficiaries, geographical spread and programme costs); (4) programme components and institutional arrangements; (5) programme beneficiary and targeting; (6) benefit level and distribution; (7) programme costs and components; and (8) poverty M&E, including planned impact evaluation.



The following conclusions were drawn about the state of programme level outcome monitoring in selected programmes.

Destitute Programme: This programme is pro-poor by design. Consistent with the objectives of the NSPR, it aims at improving the living conditions of the very poor. The beneficiaries are identified and selected using elaborate administrative means testing involving the evaluation of household socio-economic and health conditions.

The participants in the programme access various types of assistance: free food rations, cash, and various subsidies (such as education, health, transportation and housing). The programme administrators regularly track and report change in the number of beneficiaries, the level of assistance, and the number of graduating beneficiaries.

However, there are issues with the completeness, aggregation and regularity of the reporting. For example, as reporting is currently carried out, it is difficult to track for each beneficiary category (i.e. permanent and temporary destitutes) the level of food transfer per beneficiary, the level of cash transfer per beneficiary, the level of transfer of other benefits per beneficiary, and the total assistance per beneficiary.

The cash component is omitted in the DSS report to MSCPR. No operating costs are reported, and hence it is difficult to establish how much it costs the government to transfer the programme's multiple benefits to the destitutes.

It is important that future reporting includes complete and consistent information on the rate of participation, the level of benefit and distribution, the rate of graduation, and programme costs. It is recommended that DSS strengthens its current database, develops beneficiary-specific data records built on unique beneficiary identification, and plans for impact evaluation.

Housing for the Poor: The integrated poverty alleviation and housing scheme is also pro-poor by design. Consistent with the objectives of poverty reduction, the scheme aims at enhancing marketable skills, creating stable employment, and enabling ownership of housing. It targets people without shelter and those who are unemployed but are willing to work at project wages. However, the procedure for targeting is less elaborate and transparent, as compared to the Destitute Programme.

The programme reports on beneficiary size, members trained in new skills and ownership of housing, but often gives cumulative figures that make it difficult to track performance on yearly or quarterly bases.

The current monitoring system does not track performance at the beneficiary level (e.g. wage allowance, wage employment, home ownership). The success of the programme depends on the profitability and sustainability of group-based businesses, but not much information exists on its financial sustainability.

Integrated Food, Nutrition and Health Intervention: The programme on integrated food security, nutrition and health intervention through the Child Welfare Clinics enhances the utilisation of health services through the provision of a conditional food transfer using the existing health infrastructure. The integrated services aim

Unlike the Destitute and Housing for the Poor programmes, the coverage in the Child Welfare Clinics is nearly universal.

at improving the direct and synergy effects of dietary intake, health services and utilisation, and childcare for better “child and maternal nutrition and health.”

Unlike the Destitute and Housing for the Poor programmes, the coverage in the Child Welfare Clinics is nearly universal. The benefit types that accrue to the under-five children include dietary supplements, the prevention and management of integrated childhood diseases, the prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV/AIDS, and parental nutrition and health education. The tracking of health attendance coverage, health service utilisation and child nutrition status indicates significant improvement over time. (Figure 2.4).

However, there are still important information gaps that are not reported to the MSCPR: the rate of health service utilisation by various socio-economic groups, the level and distribution of food and health benefits, and the cost-effectiveness of service delivery in Child Welfare Clinics.

3.3 ENHANCING OUTCOME MONITORING

There are common characteristics in all the reviewed programmes. The programmes’ origins and rationales are established, but their link to the NSPR is not clearly specified. The indicators monitored are not complete; the emphasis is on closely tracking the input and output dimensions, but less on tracking progress towards attaining intended intermediate and final outcomes.

All the programmes are not tracking beneficiary-level data, and hence there is little knowledge on the characteristics of their beneficiaries and the benefit levels accruing to them.

No impact evaluation planning exists; this should ideally be done in the design stage of any intervention. Government expenditure figures are commonly reported, but often are either incomplete or inconsistent. As noted in Table 3.4, the sectors report selective activities and output indicators, but not with consistency in aggregation and frequency of reporting.

The MSCPR considered the main findings of the programme evaluation report in its November 2006 meeting. The committee noted that the type of information that flows on a quarterly basis to the MSCPR is not complete, nor is it consistent with the call for instituting poverty M&E systems at programme level.

The tasks ahead are to consolidate the existing databases and move towards comprehensive reporting systems.

A comprehensive outcome monitoring system at programme level is necessary where: objectives are unambiguously stated, the range of indicators that capture causal-effect chains (input, output, outcome and impact) are specified, time-bound targets are set for the indicators using benchmark data, and progress towards attaining the set targets is periodically tracked.

Reporting to the MSCPR should focus on outcome indicators (short as well as medium term) that predict the likely welfare impact, which is often realised over a long period of time.

The MSCPR recommended to institute a three-step approach to enhance outcome monitoring at programme level: (1) develop a template for monitoring performance at project level that allows flexibility, consistency and completeness in data capturing (Template A); (2) enhance existing beneficiary-level records by introducing unique IDs; and (3) move towards survey-based programme evaluation to periodically track the impact of the programmes on the well being of the poor.

When these monitoring systems are fully implemented, it is expected that the sectors would provide information to track output, assess effectiveness, and identify intermediate outcome indicators that would point towards progress in poverty reduction in different dimensions.

Consultative meetings have been held at various levels since November 2006 to: (1) highlight the key findings and recommendations of the programme review; (2) review the indicators to be monitored at the project and beneficiary levels; (3) develop a baseline questionnaire for newly formed projects; (4) discuss planning on impact evaluation; and (5) identify programmes that are consistent with the mandate of the NSPR (e.g. ALDEP III).

The progress thus far made is summarised in Table 3.5.

The Department of Housing is at an advanced stage of implementing both the project and beneficiary level templates. The final version of the templates has been sent to all the project sites. Reporting using the new templates was expected to start as of July 2007.

The templates for the two agricultural projects (ALDEP III as well as the small stock and poultry programme under LIMID) were discussed with the respective departments and the M&E Unit of the Ministry of Agriculture. It was agreed that the MOA M&E Unit will take the overall responsibility for finalising and implementing the templates.

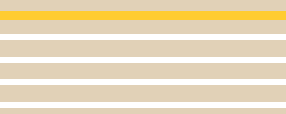
Following consultations with the Poverty Strategy Unit of the Secretariat of the MSCPR, and internal consultations, the Department of Social Services has adopted the templates designed specifically for the Destitute Programme.

There are important initiatives at the Food Nutrition Unit (FNU) in the Ministry of Health that are consistent with the conclusions and recommendations of the Secretariat's assessment of integrated food, nutrition and health interventions in mid-2006.

The FNU has merged the previous two nutritional surveillance log forms into one and recently pre-tested the new consolidated form. The new log form retains the indicators that are currently reported (i.e. underweight children, clinic attendance, food rations), but also includes short-term nutritional indicators (weight for height) and the immediate causes of child malnutrition (disease episode).

If the new log form is adopted for every child uniquely identified, the nutritional surveillance data would provide additional information to establish some basic relationships, to track the number of households attending health clinics and to estimate the number of visits per year. The unique IDs will also make it possible to connect the data in the new log form to future multi-topic household surveys.

Intervention Type	Main Objective	Means to Achieve Objective	Project-Level Monitoring (Template A)	Beneficiary-Level Monitoring (Template B1)	Comment on Progress
Housing for the Poor	Reduce unemployment and income poverty	Provision of wage employment (immediate impact) Training in specialised skills Increased home ownership Strengthening cooperative business	Number of beneficiaries enrolled Employment generated by skill category Number of beneficiaries acquiring specialised skills Home ownership by source of financing Group-based business operation and net operating income (sustainability)	Employment per beneficiary Wage allowance less deduction per beneficiary Skill acquired (days trained by type) Home ownership (rental equivalent) Graduation from the programme	The draft templates were presented in a workshop held for the District Technical Officers The Department of Housing has adopted both templates It will soon implement at all the project sites
ALDEP III combined with Food Security and Horticulture for Small Farmers	Improve productivity, farm income and food security of resource-poor small farmers	Enhancing on-farm investment (provision of farm assets mainly through grants) Transfer of technology (through extension outreach, demonstration and training in farm skills) Improve utilisation of farm inputs and implements Strengthen input distribution and marketing systems	Number of beneficiaries (identified by eligibility criteria) ALDEP package supplied Farmers trained by skill type and duration Extension outreach (beneficiaries covered, extension days) Operating costs (accounting activities and costs)	Utilisation of ALDEP inputs and implements (input utilisation) Cropping pattern and input use (by crop type) Crop output and productivity Crop marketing and income	The draft templates were presented and discussed. It was agreed that the M&E Unit of MOA will take the overall responsibility for finalising and implementing the templates
Small Stock and Poultry under LIMID	Improve livestock ownership, animal nutrition, health and productivity; farm income and food security of resource-poor small farmers	Enhanced transfer of assets (provision of Tswana chicken and small stock mainly through grants) Transfer of technology (through extension outreach and training in farm skills) Animal health intervention (reduced mortality rate) Strengthening marketing systems (contributes to increased off-take rate)	Number of beneficiaries by category Animals transferred (Tswana chicken and small stock) Animals vaccinated (small stock) Farmers trained by skill type and duration Extension outreach Operating costs	Animals owned (through LIMID programme) Animals vaccinated Training in specialised skills Animals marketed by type Animal productivity Mortality rate	The draft templates have been presented and discussed It was agreed that the M&E Unit of MOA will take the overall responsibility for finalising and implementing the templates
Destitute Programme	Provide social assistance and protection to destitute households to attain basic needs necessary for sustenance of adequate nutrition and health	Free food basket Cash transfer Free or subsidised basic social services (transport, education, health and burial services)	Number of beneficiaries Number of food assistance recipients by beneficiary category and level of assistance Number of cash transfer recipients by beneficiary category and level of assistance Number of recipients of other benefits by beneficiary category and level of assistance Total assistance transferred by beneficiary category Home ownership Number of beneficiaries trained and graduated Operating costs	Member ID and basic profile (location, age, sex, health status) Benefit level by type (food, cash and others) Duration in the programme New skills acquired through training Withdrawal by reason	The draft templates have been prepared and submitted to DSS
Integrated Food, Nutrition and Health Delivery through Child Welfare Clinics	Monitoring child nutrition and physical growth for early intervention	Managing child diseases (including HIV) Improved feeding practices (child care) Provision of food rations	Child nutritional status (including short-term status) Food ration coverage Attendance rate Episodes of illness HIV child infection rate	Unique ID (linked to mother or guardian ID) Month and year (track frequency of utilisation) Age, sex Weight and height Illness episode Child HIV status Feeding method Ration last month Vitamin A supplementation	The new log form has been recently pre-tested Provides detailed information on child nutrition status (ZWA, ZWH, ZHA) Enables the user to relate child nutritional status to immediate causes of child malnutrition (illness, food intake) Promises to be linked to national nutritional survey (if unique ID is introduced)
Periodic poverty assessment in different dimensions	Track change in poverty situation; enhance structural and policy poverty analysis	Comprehensive multi-topic household survey (less frequently) Mini multi-topic survey (more frequently)	Monitor core welfare indicators at household level (income/consumption, food security, nutrition, health and nutrition)		In response to MSCPR recommendation, CSO is currently considering undertaking multi-topic household survey



3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The various sector reports are only partially effective in monitoring progress towards poverty reduction. A systematic implementation plan is underway to institute a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation system that tracks input-activity-output-outcome-impact chains.

New templates have been developed for monitoring outcome performance at programme/project and beneficiary levels for selected sectors. There is progress in the adoption and implementation of these templates at different levels. The MSCPR, through its Secretariat office, continues to provide technical support to ensure that the templates become functional as monitoring tools.

IS BOTSWANA MAKING PROGRESS IN IMPLEMENTING THE POVERTY REDUCTION STRATEGY?

The answer depends firstly on whether or not the country has a poverty monitoring system to track changes from a baseline, and to measure progress over time and space.

Secondly, if it does have such a system, whether or not it is adequate and effective in tracing changes in poverty across space and time. A third consideration is whether or not the system enables officials to understand and/or explain the causes of slow progress, or a complete lack of progress, towards poverty reduction, and if it provides continuous feedback to policy makers.

Monitoring inputs, activities and outputs enhances effective implementation, but it is not enough to show development and welfare outcomes. Unlike the traditional M&E system where the emphasis is on measuring implementation effectiveness (input-activity-output relations), welfare monitoring, such as poverty reduction, focuses on the whole input-output-outcome chains, where the emphasis is on development and welfare outcomes.

The key components of a good monitoring system are the generation of information and its linkage to the decision-making process. The process starts with a knowledge of the conditions of poverty and the underlying causes, which then guides the formulation of policies and programmes, the development of relevant and objective indicators, the collection and analysis of data for evaluating performance and impact, and the flow of information to policy makers for action.

Recognising that progress on poverty reduction is not adequately monitored in Botswana, the Government has called for the institution of comprehensive monitoring systems to track progress on poverty reduction in its different dimensions. As articulated in the NSPR, such systems will particularly monitor progress on improving the well being of the poor in both income and non-income dimensions.

Instituting a poverty monitoring system is one of the priority areas of action for the RDC/MSCPR/RDCD. The current and planned activities under the poverty monitoring system include:

- Undertaking an inventory of existing welfare (poverty) monitoring systems, and describing the extent to which the current M&E systems incorporate and monitor the well being of the poor – the NSPR's primary target population;
- Developing core poverty monitoring indicators (on a continuous basis);
- Incorporating core poverty indicators into the M&E units of line ministries;
- Monitoring the integration of poverty indicators into existing M&E systems through RDCD;
- Promoting survey-based poverty monitoring and statistics.

This chapter has four sections. Section 4.1 deals with the recent poverty assessment and situation report. Section 4.2 highlights the process and main conclusions of the recently completed inventory of existing poverty monitoring systems in line

ministries. Section 4.3 presents the core welfare indicators developed to monitor progress on poverty reduction. Section 4.4 justifies the need for a multi-topic survey-based poverty monitoring approach.

4.1 RECENT POVERTY ASSESSMENT AND STATISTICS

Periodic poverty assessment is essential to: (1) establish the characteristics of the poor and identify them with great accuracy; (2) understand the underlying processes and causes of poverty; (3) develop policies and programmes that are responsive to the needs and constraints of the poor; (4) develop indicators for tracking progress in poverty reduction; and (5) inform policy makers and the public at large of the impact of policies and programmes on poverty reduction (or welfare improvement).

The prime data source for poverty assessment in Botswana is the nationally representative Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES). The first survey covering both rural and urban areas was undertaken in 1984/85. Subsequently, two national surveys were taken over a span of ten years, 1993/94 and 2003/04. The main objective of the HIES is to generate representative estimates of household income and expenditures at national and regional levels.

Table 4.1 shows the modules and the respective content of the 2002/03 HIES survey. It collects data on household demographics, labour force and employment, consumption expenditures and income. Prominent in the content of the survey are the details in household income from different sources and household food and non-food consumption expenditures.

Module	Content
Demographic particulars (Module A)	Age, sex, place of usual living, parental survival, education (2 years or older), marital status (12 years & over), training (12 years & over), labour force and employment characteristics (12 years & over)
Source of household income (Module B)	Past 30 days and past 12 months
Housing, housing possessions and cattle ownership (Module C)	Dwelling, livestock ownership and other household possessions
Household enterprises (income generating activities) - Module D	Business ownership, employees, gross income, and operational expenses
Agricultural income and expenditure (Module E)	Crops, vegetables and fruits, and livestock (sales revenue, own produce consumed, major agricultural expenditures), and other agricultural income (wage income)
Employment earning and deductions during past 30 days (Module F)	Wage/salary (cash and in-kind), income from business (e.g. dividends) plus benefits/allowances less deductions
Transfers including publicly subsidised benefits (Module I)	Cash and in-kind transfers from private sources, and net benefit from public subsidies
Major household expenditure in past 12 months (Module G)	Major household durables, medical expenditure and educational expenditure
Regular monthly and annual payments (Module H)	

Note: A daily record (Book 2) is kept with sampled households for a period of one month to track daily household expenditure and other disbursements, own produce consumed, household business transactions, and household income and receipts.

Table 4.1:
2002/03
Household
Income and
Expenditure
Survey

Dimension of Poverty	Selected Agency	Policy Goal	Pathway for Poverty Reduction
Income/ consumption poverty	Ministry of Agriculture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase agricultural output and productivity • Increase employment opportunities for the fast growing labour force • Diversification of the agricultural production base • Improvement in food security at the household and national levels • Conservation of scarce agricultural and land resources for future generations 	Employment creation, Productivity/ income growth
Food secured population	FSU/RDCD (coordinating the National Food Security Strategy)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assurance of food availability at national level • Providing economic access to food for households • Guaranteeing food safety and nutritional security 	Sustained food production, enhanced import capacity to ensure adequate food availability through trade, and improved access to food at household level (employment creation, low-cost access to market)
Social dimension of poverty (nutrition, health and education)	Ministry of Health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of health service infrastructure • Improvement in the quality of health service delivery • Equitable access to essential health services 	Better nutrition and health, improved literacy, and enhanced human capital and productivity
Vulnerability to poverty	Department of Social Services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provision of social safety nets for vulnerable households/individuals 	Social assistance and protection to reduce income/consumption fluctuations

Table 4.2: Sectors Selected for Initial Assessment of Poverty M&E

The latest CSO report based on the 2002/03 HIES (CSO, 2004) provides descriptive statistics on household income and consumption expenditures (i.e. source of household income, level and distribution of household income and household consumption expenditures). However, the report does not provide details on poverty estimates, characteristics and causes of poverty, and changes in poverty. Since the 2002/03 HIES coincides with the official adoption of the NSPR in 2003, such detailed poverty statistics would be ideal for benchmarking progress on poverty reduction.

Even when the poverty estimates become available, they are only representative at regional levels. Recognising that the poverty estimates, when available, cannot be disaggregated at lower geographical levels, the CSO plans to undertake poverty mapping at the geographical level, representing small spatial areas that are sufficiently heterogeneous between areas but homogenous within areas.

Such mapping has the advantages of viewing in detail spatial variations in poverty, identifying areas that lag behind in growth performance or access to social services, identifying relevant interventions specific to geographical areas, and reducing errors in poverty targeting. The most efficient way forward is to increase the sample size to get representative poverty rates at district level.

4.2 REVIEW OF EXISTING POVERTY M&E SYSTEMS

The Process

The objective of this inventory was to assess the extent to which poverty M&E systems have been developed at policy and programme levels in different government agencies; or, to examine the extent to which the current M&E systems of the government agencies incorporate outcome indicators for monitoring the well being of the poor.

The first task of the inventory undertaking was to specify the criteria for selecting the initial clusters of the government agencies to be reviewed. Based on the consensus of the members of the Poverty M&E Reference Group, the following criteria were agreed on and followed:

- Identify government agencies (sectors) that represent the different dimensions of poverty (agencies dealing with income growth, food security, social services for human capital development, and vulnerability to poverty);

- Focus in particular on government agencies (sectors) where there are already functioning M&E systems or where there is known initiative towards establishing such systems soon;
- Emphasise sectors with a record of addressing the needs of the poor, such as the provision of basic social services (e.g. Ministries of Education and Health) or those with the potential for reaching a large segment of the poor (e.g. the rural poor through the Ministry of Agriculture);
- Focus on the availability of already existing poverty monitoring data and poverty statistics.

Following the above set of criteria, the government agencies shown in Table 4.2 were selected for the initial stocktaking. As noted in the table, the selected sectors represent the different dimensions of poverty; these sectors also have a great potential to reach large segments of the poor population through the indicated pathways.

Following the selection of the agencies, the next task was to assess to what extent poverty reduction entered into all the stages of the outcome monitoring process: goal setting, target setting, choosing outcome indicators, information generation, and utilisation for policy making. The specific activities included:

- Describing the processes as currently practised in setting and operating welfare (poverty) monitoring and evaluation systems;
- Identifying key impact and outcome indicators currently in use, and evaluating their strengths and weaknesses;
- Assessing available data bases, data sources and the quality of data, including the state of poverty statistics and information; and
- Evaluating the current M&E reporting and channels of communication, including feedback mechanisms.

These activities should answer the primary question: How much of the existing M&E systems explicitly incorporate the overarching goal of poverty reduction, in setting goals, choice of indicators, and reporting policy outcomes?

Key Conclusions and Recommended Action

The following key conclusions and recommendations emerged from the review of the process and operation of the existing M&E systems in the selected agencies:

- Whilst poverty reduction is the overarching goal of the Government of Botswana, the policy and programme goals of the reviewed government agencies are neither derived from nor aligned to the objectives of the NSPR. In other words, poverty reduction is not yet mainstreamed into the NDP process. The MSCPR must work with line ministries to mainstream the NSPR in the development process, policies and programmes.
- Line ministries are at different stages of developing outcome M&E systems. Some of the agencies have outcome monitoring indicators that are consistent with the NSPR, such as the indicators for monitoring the attainment of basic education and health policy objectives (basic literacy, improvement in child

Disaggregating by socio-economic groups is necessary to capture the whole distribution of the poverty indicators.

nutrition, reduction in morbidity and mortality, etc.). But often the indicators are not sufficiently disaggregated to track the welfare of the poor in particular.

- Although the core MDG indicators are relevant to poverty monitoring, they are nationally-based. Disaggregating by socio-economic groups is necessary to capture the whole distribution of the poverty indicators, focusing particularly on tracking the well being of the poor.
- The RDC deals with rural as opposed to urban poverty, whilst the MSCPR should ideally deal with rural and urban poverty issues. While it should be acknowledged that poverty is more a rural phenomenon, this current institutional arrangement (RDC/MSCPR/RDC) may not adequately respond to urban poverty issues.
- Coordinating the poverty M&E resides with the MSCPR, which should have effective linkages with line ministries. However, the linkage between the MSCPR, which should be reporting progress on poverty reduction, with the line ministry M&E units is weak. The RDCD should work closely with the line ministries to institute welfare (poverty) monitoring indicators to ensure that their M&E systems monitor the well being of the poor.
- Within the RDCD, there are units coordinating the different dimensions of poverty: the Food Strategy Coordination Unit (monitoring food security), the Early Warning Technical Committee (monitoring vulnerability to food insecurity and poverty), and the Policy Analysis Coordination Unit. These units share common objectives and hence need to work closely together. The RDCD needs to develop a framework for integrating the activities of the relevant units of RDCD towards enhancing poverty monitoring in its many dimensions.
- The RDCD is not yet in a position to report progress on poverty reduction, because of an absence of identified core welfare indicators with the agreed level of aggregation and the frequency of data collection. The way forward is to develop core indicators that are disaggregated by socio-economic group, particularly income (expenditure), and to undertake survey-based monitoring that provides a comprehensive measure of household welfare over time and space.
- The MSCPR must lead in ensuring that existing and recommended indicators are disaggregated, based on relevant criteria (geography, demography and income/expenditure groups) to ensure that the M&E system tracks the welfare of the poor. It should collaborate with CSO and line ministries to ensure that the indicators are disaggregated and monitored at regular intervals.

4.3 INITIAL CORE POVERTY MONITORING INDICATORS

In response to the recommendation for adopting core poverty monitoring indicators, the MSCPR adopted the sets of indicators shown in Table 4.3. These indicators are consistent with the goals of the NSPR, i.e. to focus on tracking the well being of the poor in different dimensions.

The table includes the policy goal associated with each poverty dimension. The majority of the indicators are consistent with existing welfare monitoring indicators (e.g. MDG indicators, early warning food security indicators, health and education sector specific indicators).

The poor are generally vulnerable to risks, such as unemployment, illness and family separation.

The listed indicators are outcome indicators, assuming the various ministries are effectively tracking the input and output dimensions leading to these outcomes.

The outcome indicators in Table 4.3 are separated into impact and intermediate outcome indicators. The impact indicators are realised over a long period of time and hence not amenable for frequent monitoring. The intermediate outcome indicators are, however, related to the impact indicators in causal-chain effects, and are important for monitoring progress towards attaining the impact welfare outcomes.

Table 4.3 also recognises that the poor are generally vulnerable to risks, such as unemployment, illness and family separation. Currently, there are different indicators for monitoring vulnerability arising from climate (e.g. the indicators included in the current Early Warning Monitoring system), agricultural production, child nutrition and rate of destitution, HIV/AIDS and epidemic prone diseases. These indicators are all captured in the Table.

The initial sets of indicators are subject to validation and revision as more empirical evidence emerges on the relationships between the indicators and welfare outcomes. Continuous evaluation is necessary on the relevance, objectivity, measurability and sensitivity of the indicators to policy change. Moreover, a participatory approach to selecting indicators must be adopted to ensure that all key stakeholders are represented and are committed to the M&E process.

Dimension of Poverty	Policy Goal	Impact (final) Welfare Indicators	Intermediate Outcome Indicators
Income poverty	Reduce/eliminate poverty	Head count and high-order poverty measures	Productivity growth (in sectors where the poor are concentrated) Unemployment amongst the poor Wages for unskilled labour (rural, urban) Asset ownership (e.g. housing)
Food security and nutrition	Reduce/eradicate food deprivation Reduce malnutrition	Head count and high-order food poverty measures (e.g. calorie-based) Improved physical growth and cognitive development	Food production and supply (food balance sheet) Adult malnutrition (body growth and change) Child malnutrition (change in height and weight)
Basic health	Improve healthy life expectancy Reduce disease burden Reduce HIV infection Reduce mortality rate	Increased life expectancy (reduced mortality rates) Improved child survival (early childhood development)	Access to health services Prevalence of diseases (major communicable diseases) HIV prevalence rate
Basic education	Education for all	Literacy rate	Access to basic education Primary completion rate Literacy rate
Vulnerability to poverty and food insecurity	Reduce risk of falling into poverty or deepening poverty	Reduction in consumption or income variance	Change in level and spatial-temporal distribution of weather variables Change in natural resource conditions (vegetation, rangelands, and water availability) Agricultural production and change (crop and livestock –physical growth, yields, market off-take) Wildlife production and distribution Variability in food prices Rate of temporary destitution Attendance in public works (if not rationed) Weight for height for children Incidence of epidemic prone diseases Orphanage rate (AIDS orphans)

Table 4.3:
Expanded
Poverty
Monitoring
Indicators

4.4 A MULTI-TOPIC HOUSEHOLD SURVEY

The mandate of the MSCPR is to monitor the well being of the poor; this includes income poverty, food security and nutrition of the poor, basic health and education services for the poor, and vulnerability to poverty and food insecurity.

The majority of the indicators as currently practised are nationally based. It is thus difficult to gauge how the poor are faring as compared to the 'average' welfare outcomes (the last row in Table 4.4). A recommended approach is to disaggregate the indicators by socio-economic groups to track the welfare of the poor within the context of the whole distribution of the indicators (for example, comparing the lowest quintiles with the other quintile groups in Table 4.4).

The CSO undertakes single-topic household surveys at fixed intervals. These include: (1) Household Income and Expenditure Survey (1993/94, 2002/03); (2) labour force survey (1995/96, 2005/06); (3) demography survey (1998, 2006); (4) family

Expenditure Group	Unemployment Rate	Income Growth (e.g. Household Consumption per Capita)	Food Consumption Level (extent of undernourishment)	Malnutrition Rate (e.g. child malnutrition)	HIV/AIDS Prevalence Rate	Educational Attainment
Quintile 1 (lowest)						
Quintile 2						
Quintile 3						
Quintile 4						
Quintile 5 (highest)						
Average						

Table 4.4: Selected Welfare Indicators by Expenditure Group

health survey (1996); (5) Botswana AIDS impact survey (2001, 2004); and (6) literacy survey (1993, 2003).

The contents of these surveys are detailed but narrow in poverty dimensions. Unlike the single topic surveys, the collection of data on different dimensions of household welfare (e.g. consumption, nutrition, health, education) from the same households should enable the reader to:

- Estimate complete (comprehensive) household welfare levels;
- Establish important relationships and identify the determinants of household welfare; and
- Assess the impact on poverty of government programmes and policies.

A typical multi-topic household survey contains the modules indicated in Table 4.5: (1) household demography, migration and housing characteristics; (2) labour force participation, employment and remuneration; (3) education (schooling); (4) health and fertility; (5) anthropometry; (6) consumption; and (7) income.

The typical multi-topic survey does not capture information on household vulnerability to shocks, coping strategies, and parental survival. Such information is relevant in the context of Botswana.



Table 4.5:
A Typical
Multi-Topic
Household
Survey

A preferred approach is a multi-topic survey based poverty monitoring system (not a substitute for single-topic household surveys). What is required is to undertake a multi-purpose (integrated) household survey that builds on the core HIES survey and includes modules on parental survival and child fostering, nutrition, health, education and vulnerability.

Module	Content/Subject (example)	Location in Botswana Surveys
Household demography, migration and housing characteristics	Relationship, age, sex, marital status, place of residence (current, past and reason), housing (type of dwelling, housing and utility expenditures), source of water and energy, etc	Commonly found in the CSO household surveys and census (see, for example, the 2006 Botswana Demography Survey in the annex)
Labour	Labour force participation, search effort, occupation type, length of employment, remuneration	Detailed in the Botswana Labour Force Survey (Table A3)
Education (schooling)	School attendance and completion, school expenditures, literacy	Household demography module in all the surveys, Botswana literacy survey every ten years, and expenditures in HIES survey
Health and fertility	Illness type and episode, use and costs of health care, disability, fertility (birth history, child survival, type and duration of child feeding)	Botswana Demography Survey (Table A4) and Family Health Survey (Table A5)
Anthropometry	Height and weight measurements of all household members	The Botswana National Nutritional Surveillance for under five years of age
Consumption	Food expenditures, consumption of home production, nonfood expenditures including housing and durable goods	Household Income and Expenditure Survey (Table A2)
Income	Household income from self-employment, wage employment, asset income and transfers	Household Income and Expenditure Survey (Table A2)
Credit and savings	Indebtedness and source of financing	

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Instituting a comprehensive poverty monitoring and evaluation system is the highest order of priority for monitoring progress towards poverty reduction.

The first step has begun, with the identification of core welfare indicators, which are subject to evaluation for their relevance, objectivity, responsiveness to policy change, and manageability for data collection and analysis.

The MSCPR calls on all sectors to incorporate the core indicators into their M&E systems. It recommends the CSO to take the lead in undertaking a comprehensive multi-topic household survey built on the existing HIES, and followed by light surveys at an agreed frequency.

4.6 REFERENCES

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Fostering pro-poor institutions (i.e. identifying, assessing, and scaling up) is one of the priority areas for translating the NSPR into action. The activities involve the assessment of the poverty-focus of existing institutions, the sensitisation/training of local government and community-based institutions, the development of indicators and monitoring the effectiveness of institutions, and identifying and promoting best pro-poor institutional practices.

An initial assessment of the poverty focus of Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) was undertaken in 2006 to identify cases with pro-poor elements: continuous enterprise development and improvement in income level, distribution of benefits favouring the poor segment of the population, and good governance and institutional innovations.

This chapter summarises the findings of CBNRM case studies. It includes a brief introduction to the growth of CBNRM, the variation in organisational arrangements, enterprise development and diversification, financial performance (continuity in business, revenue and income generation), distribution of benefits, poverty targeting practices, and governance and management maturity.

5.1 FORMATION AND GROWTH

CBNRM occurs within Community Based Organisations (CBOs) that are formed by a community, groups of communities or groups within communities where members share a common interest in the sustainable use of natural resources in their common area (Draft CBNRM Policy Report, 2005).

Several CBOs have come into existence in Botswana since the late 1980s. Why?

- Natural resources such as wildlife, forests and veldt products are largely common pool resources. The use of these resources is not excludable (similar to public goods) but, unlike public goods, their use by one person/organisation reduces their availability to others (i.e. subtractable). Common property arrangements such as CBNRM projects are optimal under such conditions for collective action (see, for example, Olson 1965; Ostrom, 1990; and Agrawal, 2001).
- CBNRM offers comparative advantages in geographical areas with varied and abundant natural resources; it can develop such income-generating activities as commercial hunting, eco-tourism and the commercial use of veldt products.
- Rural communities have an increasing appreciation of the value of tradable rights in natural resources, especially wildlife.
- Natural resources are gaining importance as primary sources of employment and livelihood, especially in marginal agricultural areas.

As stated in the draft policy of 2005, the CBNRM assumes that CBO members share a common interest in improving their livelihoods whilst at the same time managing and using natural resources in a sustainable way. Such dual outcomes are more likely to be realised when users are provided with incentives, such as the allocation of tradable rights to natural resources (a necessary condition, as evident in the existing literature on the performance of CBOs in Botswana – see, for example Arntzen et al, 2003).

⁸ Community-based Natural Resource Management

Objectives

The main objectives of the CBNRM are to enhance the sustainable use of natural resources and to support improved and stable livelihoods. Implicit in these dual objectives is poverty reduction through livelihood creation and improvement.

The Deeds of Trust (constitutions) of several CBOs in Botswana explicitly detail these objectives: the conservation and preservation of natural resources, the use of natural resources for improving livelihoods, monitoring the conditions of natural resources to ensure sustainability, and the empowerment of communities through the devolution of rights.

Extent of CBNRM

The extent of CBNRM in Botswana, as measured by the number of CBOs and the coverage of beneficiaries, has increased over the years, particularly since the mid-1990s. The number of CBOs in natural resource management increased from six in 1995 to 19 in 1997, and then to 45 in 1999, 61 in 2001, 83 in 2003 and 91 in 2006. Existing CBOs in 2006 cover approximately 150 villages involving 10% of the country's population.

Table 5.1:
Type, Location
and Size of
CBNRM

Trust Type	Name	District	Village	Year Established	Membership (from DWNP file)	Female Only	Road Access (y=1)
Wildlife	STMT	Ngamiland	Single	1996	372	Mixed	1
	MZCDT	Ngamiland	Single	1998	157	Mixed	1
	OKMCT	Ngamiland	Multiple	1997	2821	Mixed	1
	XXDT	Ngamiland	Single	2002	455	Mixed	1
	KDT	Ngamiland	Single	2000	395		
	OKCT	Ngamiland	Multiple	1995	6431	Mixed	Poor
	MCT	Central	Multiple	2001	2300	Mixed	1
	NGCT	Central	Single	2002	??		1
	HCNCT	Ghanzi	Multiple	1999	1013	Mixed	1
	XWNCT	Ghanzi	Multiple	1999	1247	Mixed	1
Baskets	KBWC	Chobe	Multiple	2002	11	Female	1
	BWC	Ngamiland	Single	1996	??	Female	1
	NGBWC	Ngamiland	Single	1988	1	Female	1
Veldt products	KyTsie	Central	Multiple	1999	1000	Female	1
Eco-Tourism	GoCT	Central	Single	1997	1686	Mixed	1
	OJKT	Ngamiland	Multiple	1997	9236	Mixed	1
	OPT	Ngamiland	Single	1998	75	Male	Poor
Cultural Tourism	BCCT	Ngamiland	Single	1995	732	?	1

Note: Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust (STMT), Mababe Zokotshama Community Development Trust (MZCDT), Khawi Development Trust (KDT), Molema Community Trust (MCT), Okavango Community Trust (OKCT), Okavango Kopano Mokoro Community Trust (OKMCT), Ngande Community Trust (NGCT), Xhau Xhwatubi Development Trust (XXDT), Xwiskurusa Natural Resources Conservation Trust (XWNCT), Huiku Community Based Natural Conservation Trust (HCNCT), Kachempati Basket Weaver's Cooperative (KBWC), Bokamoso Women's Cooperative (BWC), Ngwao Boswa Women's Cooperative (NGBWC), Kgetsi ya Tsie (KyTsie), Gaing-O Community Trust (GoCT), Okavango Jakotsha Community Trust (OJKT), Bukakhwe Cultural Conservation Trust (BCCT), and Okavango Polers' Trust (OPT).

Most of Botswana's CBOs function as trusts that are mainly meant to benefit members in a given community.

The majority of the natural resource community-based organisations are located in three districts: Kweneng, Ngamiland and Central. But the most active are found in parts of the Central, Ghanzi and Ngamiland districts. As shown in Table 5.1, most of the active CBOs are wildlife-based and have emerged since the mid-1990s. The size of membership varies markedly. The CBOs specialising in basket or veldt products tend to be dominated by female members.

5.2 CBNRM INSTITUTIONS

Most of Botswana's CBOs function as trusts that are mainly meant to benefit members in a given community/ies. The wildlife CBOs operate in demarcated Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs), part of which may be turned over to commercial hunting and designated as Communal Hunting Areas (CHAs).

The Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP) in the Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism (MEWT) provides permits for the establishment of CHAs, develops land use and management plans for different areas, mobilises communities and helps them write a constitution, assists in registering them as a "representative, accountable and legal entity" (RALE), and facilitates their applications for land lease and hunting quotas.

Membership in the Trusts is governed by the Deeds of Trust (or the CBO constitutions). For the wildlife CBOs, membership is open to all adults living in specific CHAs. However, such organisation along fixed geographical boundaries is not often followed by the non-wildlife CBOs. As in the veldt products CBOs where there is a great variability in production, such flexibility in defining boundaries gives the communities greater mobility and provides less risk in pooling across geographical space.

Membership in other CBNRM projects follows their specific Deeds for guidance. The CBOs specialising in making and selling baskets, such as Bokamoso Women's Cooperative and Kachempati Basket Weaver's Cooperative in Ngamiland, require members to pay one time joining fees. In the case of Kgetse ya Tsie, membership is open principally to women (at least 80%) who pay regular annual fees to the Trust. Members in the Okavango Polers' Trust are solely men with poling certificates and privately owned fiberglass boats, who also pay annual membership fees.

The common arrangement is to have members elect a management board. But there are some variations. The one-village CBOs have a two-tier structure: general membership and a board of governance. For wildlife CBOs incorporating more than one village, each village has a Village Trust Committee (VTC), which elects representatives to the Board of Trustees. In some of these CBOs, the chair and secretary of the VTC automatically become members of the Board of Trustees.

The members of Kgetse ya Tsie are organised in a four-tier system: groups (maximum of 5 members), centres (3 to 10 groups), regional councils (representatives from sets of centres) and a Board of Trustees (representatives from the regional councils and one optional appointed member).

Wildlife-based CBOs that are legal entities qualify for a head lease, a 15-year

Table 5.2: CHA Areas and Beneficiary Population

CBNRM	CHA Area in sq m	Beneficiary Population
OKCT	929	6431
KDT	1918	395
OKJT	589	9236
STMT	860	372
MZCDT	2181	157

community natural resources management lease between a legally registered community trust and the Land Board that gives exclusive use rights to concession areas.

The community trusts are free to lease these use rights (e.g. leasing the areas for hunting or tourism). In addition to a resource use lease from the Land Board, the wildlife CBOs obtain annual hunting quotas from DWNP (varies between different concession areas). As shown in Table 5.2, the quota allocation is not necessarily proportional to the beneficiary population.

5.3 ENTERPRISE DEVELOPMENT AND DIVERSIFICATION (COMMUNITY TRUST AND COOPERATIVE BUSINESS)

The natural resource based CBOs specialise in different types of natural resources: wildlife, plant-based veldt products, eco-tourism (photography, campsites, boating, etc,) and fishing from community dams. Some also diversify into related or other non-natural resource based secondary businesses. Such diversification is more notable amongst some of the wildlife CBOs (Table 5.3).

The common strategy in most of these diversified wildlife CBOs is to develop diversified cooperative businesses from income generated in hunting and tourism.

Table 5.3: Business Enterprise, Income Source and Benefit Distribution in Wildlife CBOs

Trust Name	Type of Cooperative Business (secondary)	Continuously in Business
STMT	Tourism Transport Microfinance	Yes
MZCDT	Tourism Transport	Yes
OKMCT	Photography (Gate fees for photography and boat ride, and campsites). The rafters are the villagers by rotation.	Yes but seasonal in some business
MCT	Tourism	No (dormant at present)
XXDT	None	No
KDT		No (delayed)
OKCT		Yes
NGCT		No
HCNCT	None	No (not active)
XWNCT	None	Yes
KBWC and BWC	Selling baskets	No
KyTsie	Processing and marketing veldt products Microfinance	Yes
GoCT	Campsites	Yes
OJKT	Campsites	No
OPT	Campsite	Yes
BCCT		No (reconstituting)

The wildlife CBOs generate substantial revenues, as compared to the other CBOs that depend on veldt products and crafts.

Diversification is less notable amongst the non-wildlife CBOs (Table 5.4). The basket-making CBOs are a one-product business (e.g. KBWC, BWC and NGBWC). Kgetsi ya Tsie is a unique CBO, as it has branched into veldt product processing and microfinance (see the product list on www.kgetsiyatsie.org).

Not all CBOs are operating their businesses continuously (Table 5.3). The reasons for this are varied: (1) unable to find a joint partner (OJKT); (2) dispute over JVP contract or concession areas and failure on timely enforcement; (3) suspension of hunting quotas (KDT); (4) unable to generate sufficient finances to cover operational costs (KBWC, BWC and NGBWC); and (5) dwindling commitment of Board or community members.

5.4 REVENUE GENERATION AND PROFITABILITY

The wildlife CBOs are unique as a business model. The communities are not hunting and/or selling their quotas themselves. Instead, they lease their hunting quotas to private companies. Such a business arrangement is in contrast with other CBNRM projects, such as the veldt-product based CBOs where the members are directly generating revenue through producing and marketing their products to their Trusts.

The wildlife CBOs generate substantial revenues, as compared to the other CBOs that depend on veldt products and crafts. But data is generally scarce for assessing the financial performance of all CBOs, including: revenue, costs of operations, profits accrued and balance sheet components (assets, liabilities and business net worth). Hence, it is difficult to answer the key question of how the CBOs are doing in their individual business enterprises.

What about the overall income performance at Trust level? The answer to this question requires disaggregated information that shows the CBO income level from different sources (business income, interest on savings, account receivables, and grants), Trust operational expenditures, and net income after deducting the Trust expenditures.

The current CBO financial reports often mix the Trust expenditures and Trust allocations with, for example, household cash dividends, social assistance and insurance, and community asset building.

When sample CBO communities were asked to rank order the income sources for their trusts, the responses shown in Table 5.4 emerge:

- The wildlife CBOs obtain most of their income from leasing hunting quotas and land in concession areas especially, for example, CBOs in Ghanzi (HCNCT, XWNCT).
- Revenue from secondary businesses is substantially contributing to the income of better performing wildlife CBOs.
- The basket-making CBOs solely depend on income from making and selling baskets.
- Kgetsi ya Tsie is deriving income from various veldt products, including processed products, micro-finance and interest on savings. The grant component of their income has declined over the years.

Trust Name	Trust Income Source	Trust Income per Capita	Trend in Income
STMT	Hunting, land lease, secondary business, wood cutting	Data Not Available (D.N.A.)	+ (tourism is the strong performer)
MZCDT	Hunting, land lease, secondary business	D.N.A.	+ since 2002 from tourism
OKMCT	Hunting, land lease and grants from JVP	D.N.A.	- since 2004
MCT	Hunting and tourism in small scale business	D.N.A.	Not yet in operation
XXDT	Hunting	D.N.A.	Not established
HCNCT	Hunting and interest on savings	D.N.A.	No significant change
XWNCT	Hunting, land rental, and interest on savings	D.N.A.	No significant change
KBWC and BWC	Selling baskets and grants	D.N.A.	-
KyTsie	Veldt products, microfinance, interest on savings, and grants	D.N.A.	Positive (improved sales revenue and income)
GoCT	Tourism (campsites)	D.N.A.	+ since 2002
OJKT	Fees (gate entry, camping, and boat riding fees)	D.N.A.	None

Table 5.4: Income Source and Trend at Trust Level

Emerging patterns on the income trends of the case Trusts vary. Few trusts show an increase in income level (e.g. STMT especially from tourism, MZCDT, Ky Tsie in veldt production and marketing, and Go CT in tourism). But the Trust income of most of the case CBOs is either insignificantly changed or declining, as in the cases of the basket making CBOs (e.g. KBWC and BWC).

5.5 BENEFIT ALLOCATION

The first financing priority of the CBOs is the Trust expenditures, which include salaries, vehicles, travel and sitting allowances. As noted in Arntzen et al (2003), most of the trust revenues are used for these expenditures. As a way to control (minimise) the adverse impact of "excess" expenditures on business growth, some wildlife CBOs avoid mixing the incomes from hunting and land lease with other business incomes. For example, the Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust (STMT) separates its tourism business account from the other income generating activities (hunting fees, land rental, transportation and micro-finance). The income from tourism is used strictly for business expansion, while the other incomes are used for financing the Trust, community assets, and dividend distribution to members.

As is often practised, the balance left after covering the Trust expenditures is allocated to: (1) saving for future operations, enterprise expansion and funding micro-finance loans; (2) investing in community infrastructure and activities; (3) providing social assistance (food, cash and shelter for the very poor) and social insurance; and (4) allocating cash dividends to community members.

The community members benefit from the distribution of the Trust income in different ways: (1) cash dividends (in some cases such dividends may be in kind, such as distributing game meat); (2) wage employment and skill training; (3) price subsidy or support (for example, members produce and market their products, such as crafts, to the trusts at a premium price or buy products from the trusts at a discount price); (4) subsidised services (e.g. community members pay lower fares when

Table 5.5: Business Enterprise, Income Source and Benefit Distribution in Wildlife CBOs

Trust Name	Earning Allocation Formula Exists (Yes =1)	Cash Dividend Distributed to Members	Benefit Type to Members
STMT	1 (absolute amount is set per household)	Yes	Cash and game meat, subsidised transport and credit, youth skill training, wage employment, and funeral
MZCDT	1 (set fixed amount per household for cash dividend, old age, orphan and funeral)	Yes	Cash and game meat, subsidised transport, youth skill training, wage employment, and funeral
OKMCT	No record	None except fixed amount to each village on holidays	Income from poling, escort and holiday cash gifts
MCT	None reported	None	None
XXDT	None reported	None	None
HCNCT	None	None	Game meat and emergency expenses
XWNCT	None	None	Game meat and emergency expenses
KBWC and BWC	Not applicable	No	Premium price on their baskets, training, and social support
Ky Tsie	Not clear how the gain from the price margin is distributed	Not applicable	Access to market (the Trust), premium price on products, access to price discounts and subsidised credit, coverage of emergency expenses, and training on production and marketing skills
GoCT	None	No	Employment in campsites
OJKT	None	No	Employment

using Trust vehicles); (5) access to interest subsidised loans for financing micro-business (e.g. Ky Tsie); and (6) social assistance and insurance.

In allocating a Trust's income, a key decision is how to balance dividend payments to community members without jeopardising business expansion plans. But, as indicated in the case CBOs in Table 5.5, the trusts generally have no systematic pattern in their allocation practices. Or, as noted in Arntzen et al (2003), there is no established formula for distributing their earnings. Often such an important decision is embedded in the regular budgeting process, with little community participation in making such decisions.

5.6 CBNRM AND THE POOR

There are plausible reasons for including the CBNRM CBOs in the current NSPR poverty programmes:

- The poor depend more on natural resources for their livelihoods and survival.
- Providing use rights to the rural communities creates opportunities for productive employment and income generation to grow out of poverty.
- The CBNRM objectives of income growth and sustenance of the natural resource base are consistent with the country's rural development strategy for marginal agricultural areas.

There are different ways through which the poor can benefit from CBO-based arrangements. Firstly, they receive, along with other community members, cash dividends, meat distribution, wage employment, improved community infrastructure, subsidised services, and social assistance.

However, there is no evidence to indicate that the poor in the CBNRM communities benefit more than the non-poor. Instead, there is substantial leakage and inequality in the distribution of income, especially in the wildlife CBOs.

Table 5.6: Benefit Distribution to the Poor

Trust Name	Benefit to the Poor
STMT	Destitute (elderly)
MZCDT	Elderly and orphans
OKMCT	No transfer
MCT	None (dormant CBO with no benefit to members)
XXDT	None to the members as well
KDT	Elderly
OKCT	Orphans only
NGCT	None to the members as well
HCNCT	None to the members as well
XWNCT	None (there is not much to distribute)
KBWC and BWC	None (weak financially)
KyTsie	None
GoCT	None to the members as well
OJKT	No distribution scheme yet
OPT	None
BCCT	None (CBO reconstituting)

The bulk of the financial benefits accrue to the Trusts, and very little is directly distributed to community members (Arntzen et al, 2003). In addition, the common practice amongst the CBOs is to distribute the same level of benefit, such as household dividends, regardless of the socio-economic status of community members.

Secondly, the poor can organise and run their own income generating activities. Most of the veldt-based CBOs, for example, are female-controlled, group enterprises that depend on natural resources. Given that the poor are relatively dependent on natural resources, such an approach provides them with a venue for economic and social empowerment.

Thirdly, the poor benefit from CBOs through social assistance programmes, such as assistance to the elderly, the disabled or orphans; however, only a few CBOs provide such support (Table 5.6). Many CBOs are not participating in such schemes for various reasons: the benefits are restricted to fee-paying members, or the poor are benefiting directly through productive employment in the CBOs (hence it's not necessary to provide transfer).

An important question to ask is - How many of the natural resource based CBOs are pro-poor, as characterised by improving income growth and widely sharing benefits, with the gains accruing more to the poor segment of the population? The answer is generally unknown.

5.7 GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT MATURITY

The potential for CBOs to provide a vehicle for poverty reduction is weakened where deficient governance and poor management erode the benefits that could accrue to the poor. The case communities were asked to score the strength of the following attributes of governance and management maturity:

- Clearly and closely defined boundaries (physical as well as legal) such that the CBO members recognise the limit within which they operate;
- Bundles of property rights are unambiguously defined and enforced (i.e. the rules of access and exclusion of beneficiaries are known and enforced);



Most of the CBOs are riddled with governance, financial and management deficiencies.

- Decision-making process is representative, participatory and responsive to the needs of the community at large and the poor in particular;
- Financial planning, management and fiduciary are practised;
- The rules governing the distribution of benefits within the CBOs are transparent and equitable;
- Management sets a shared vision and goals, develops policy and strategic planning, monitors progress, reports regularly, and produces measurable results in improving community members' welfare.

Most of the CBOs assigned poorly to most of these attributes, particularly to point 3 (participatory decision-making), point 4 (financial management and fiduciary), point 5 (transparency and regularity in benefit distribution), and point 6 (Trusts producing measurable improvements in well being).

Although CBNRM is believed to empower villagers to make decisions affecting their livelihoods and to manage their natural resources, most of the CBOs are riddled with governance, financial and management deficiencies. Where the majority of the CBOs show these deficiencies, the prospect for poverty reduction through CBNRM is diminished.

5.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Several CBNRM CBOs emerged quickly, especially in the second half of the 1990s, in areas with extensive and varied natural resources. Government agencies, international organisations and non-governmental organisations supported the formation of these CBOs and provided financial and managerial guidance.


The CBOs are organised in Trusts, governed by Deeds of Trust (or constitutions). Membership in wildlife CBNRM CBOs is open to all adults living in specific Community Hunting Areas.

In some of the non-wildlife CBOs, membership is restricted by gender, and/or fee payment requirements, and/or specific skill acquisition. These CBOs specialise in the commercialisation of different types of natural resources.

Substantial revenue is generated, particularly in the wildlife-based CBNRM CBOs; this is indicative of an increasing appreciation of the value of tradable rights in wildlife resources. Some CBOs, particularly the wildlife CBOs, diversify into secondary businesses.

Not all the case CBOs are operating their businesses continuously. Few CBOs regularly report the financial profitability of their individual businesses and Trust income.

The first financing priority of the CBOs is the Trust expenditures. The residual is allocated to: (1) saving for future operations, enterprise expansion and funding micro-finance loans; (2) investing in community infrastructure and activities; (3) social assistance (food, cash and shelter for the very poor) and social insurance; and (4) cash dividends to community members. But the trusts generally have no systematic methods in their allocation practices.



The performance of most CBOs, measured by their collective outcomes, such as enterprise development and diversification, revenue generation and income growth, benefit level and distribution, monitoring and managing natural resources, and empowering beneficiary communities, is mixed in results.

Common deficiencies in most case CBOs include: (1) inadequate design in investment priorities to ensure the steady expansion of businesses and income; (2) the absence of regularity in the distribution of benefits; (3) weak mechanisms to compensate the holders of tradable use rights; (4) the prevalence of several collusions of interests that limit the effectiveness of the communities in participatory and transparent governance; and (5) not much evidence to show communities are actively monitoring the use and condition of their natural resources.

A few case CBOs managed to develop profitable business enterprises and to diversify their income sources. These bright examples need to be closely monitored. The search for more such cases needs to continue for the MSCPR to scale up learned lessons.

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6.1 CONCLUSIONS

Botswana has achieved remarkable progress in socio-economic development and welfare outcomes, as evident from increasing average living standards over time, a considerably low prevalence of child malnutrition, nearly universal coverage and utilisation of health services and a marked improvement in educational attainments.

Despite these achievements, however, conditions of poverty persist. The percentage of population living below poverty datum lines is high. Unemployment remains high, particularly in rural areas. Amongst the poor, there are few working adults and unemployment is high amongst those seeking employment in the labour market.

The employed poor mainly occupy low-paying jobs, because of low educational attainment and skills acquisition. A high prevalence of HIV/AIDS has also impacted negatively on human development gains and is, in fact, slowing or reversing gains in reduced disease burden, mortality rates and life expectancy.

The persistence of these conditions of poverty is not commensurate with the Vision 2016's goal of poverty eradication. Past efforts in implementing and coordinating a multi-sectoral approach to poverty reduction have not been adequate. This necessitates a coordinated effort in harmonising all sectoral initiatives relating to poverty reduction.

In recognition of the slow pace of poverty reduction and institutional weakness, the Government of Botswana adopted the National Strategy for Poverty Reduction (NSPR) in 2003 (the strategic elements of the policy framework and the current implementation plans are highlighted in Annex 1).

One of the priority areas for implementing the NSPR is to institute and promote comprehensive poverty monitoring and evaluation systems at national, sectoral and programme levels. The CSO (government Central Statistics Office) undertakes household income and expenditure surveys (HIES), which ideally would enable periodic reporting on the state of poverty. The 2002-03 HIES provides timely benchmarks for monitoring the NSPR. But disaggregated poverty estimates are not yet available.

The Government ministries are at different stages of instituting welfare monitoring systems for tracking positive impacts on the well being of the poor. The objectives of the sector ministries are not yet aligned to the NSPR goals.

The indicators monitored are mainly to assess progress on implementation. The exceptions are the sector ministries that are monitoring the MDG indicators (education, health and nutrition). But often these indicators are not sufficiently disaggregated to monitor the well being of the poor, unless one assumes that the welfare of the poor improves at the average rate of growth indicators.

Building on the existing MDG welfare indicators, the MSCPR has recently adopted expanded sets of indicators for future monitoring at policy level. To ensure these indicators are monitored at sufficiently disaggregated levels, the MSCPR has also

MSCPR's highest priority is to promote an awareness of the NSPR – the strategic elements of the policy framework and the action plan.

recommended the periodic implementation of a multi-topic household survey, building on the current HIES.

As the conclusions drawn from a review of selected NSPR programmes demonstrate, poverty M&E systems are not developed at a programme level, i.e. the programme objectives are not linked to the NSPR, indicators are not complete (not capturing the whole output-impact chains), none of the indicators are monitored at the beneficiary level (hence it is difficult to assess targeting effectiveness and benefit level), and costs are not sufficiently disaggregated by major activity categories.

None of the programmes have planned for impact assessments to evaluate what effect they are having on the well being of the poor, or poverty reduction.

6.2 THE WAY FORWARD

The MSCPR has adopted process-based implementation plans for translating the NSPR into action: to sharpen the poverty focus of policies and programmes, to institute and strengthen poverty monitoring and evaluation systems, to promote impact assessment, lessons learned, and scaling up, to identify and scale up pro-poor institutions, to enhance poverty assessment, poverty statistics and poverty policy analysis, and to foster knowledge sharing, advocacy and consensus building.

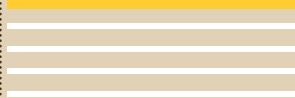
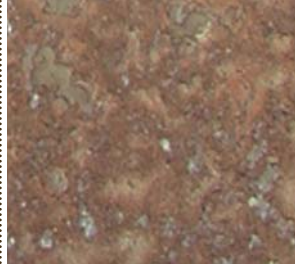
The MSCPR's highest priority is to promote an awareness of the NSPR – the strategic elements of the policy framework and the action plan. Using various communication media, the MSCPR will call for the implementation of the action plans in their totality, for a frontal attack on reducing poverty in its different dimensions.

The second priority is to make sure the programmes monitored through the MSCPR meet the standards of good practice in design, operation, and monitoring and evaluation.

The specific activities include:

- To develop projects or intervention based on established evidence on the causes of poverty and effective remedies;
- To clarify the assumptions and links between programme objectives and poverty reduction;
- To sharpen the characteristics of the targeted beneficiaries, in order to better identify and target the poor (clarify the concept of poverty targeting);
- To clarify benefit type, channels of transmission, and to provide information on benefit level disaggregated by income/expenditure groups;
- To develop cost accounting records that link project activities to costs;
- To institute and strengthen a monitoring and evaluation system that is comprehensive (capturing the input-output-outcome chains);
- To undertake impact assessments, when necessary, and to give feedback to policy makers on the strengths and weaknesses of a particular intervention.

A systematic implementation plan is underway to enhance the outcome monitoring capability of the NSPR programmes in three stages. New templates are being introduced for monitoring outcome indicators at programme and beneficiary levels.



The major programmes/agencies implementing these templates include: Housing for the Poor (Department of Housing), ALDEP III (Ministry of Agriculture), Small Stock and Poultry under LIMID (Ministry of Agriculture), the Destitute Programme (Department of Social Services in the Ministry of Local Government), and the Integrated Nutrition, Health and Food Programme (Food and Nutrition Unit in the Ministry of Health).

The MSCPR, through its Secretariat office, continues to provide technical and advisory support to enable these programmes/agencies to effectively implement the templates as monitoring tools. In addition, there will be a concerted effort to enhance skills for planning and implementing impact evaluation studies.



In 2003 the Government of Botswana (GoB) adopted a National Strategy for Poverty Reduction (NSPR) that:

- Sets poverty reduction as its overarching goal consistent with the country's commitment to "build a compassionate, caring and just nation";
- Charts the strategic pathways for poverty reduction, primarily through broad-based labour-absorbing economic growth, the provision of basic quality social services to the poor, the promotion of cost-effective pro-poor social safety nets, an enhanced effective response to the HIV/AIDS epidemic, and strengthening institutions for the poor, and;
- Provides a multi-sectoral approach for overseeing the design, implementation and monitoring of poverty reduction interventions.

OBJECTIVES OF THE NSPR

The Vision 2016 targets the eradication of income poverty by the year 2016. The NSPR provides the policy framework for enabling the poor to move out of poverty.

Figure 1 illustrates the processes towards poverty reduction. The welfare curve tracks the distribution of income (or other welfare measures) in ascending order (i.e. the percentage distribution of individuals from lowest to highest income). The horizontal line at z represents a robust poverty line. Of the total population, q percent of individuals in the population are below the poverty line. The shaded area represents the poverty gap for individuals falling below the poverty line. Poverty is unequal, as shown by the depth of poverty in the shaded area, which is severe at the bottom end.

The joint goal of Vision 2016 and the NSPR is to enable the welfare distribution curve to move towards and eventually above the poverty line through a reduction in the depth of poverty and graduation of the poor out of poverty. The Vision 2016 strives to complete the shift by 2016.

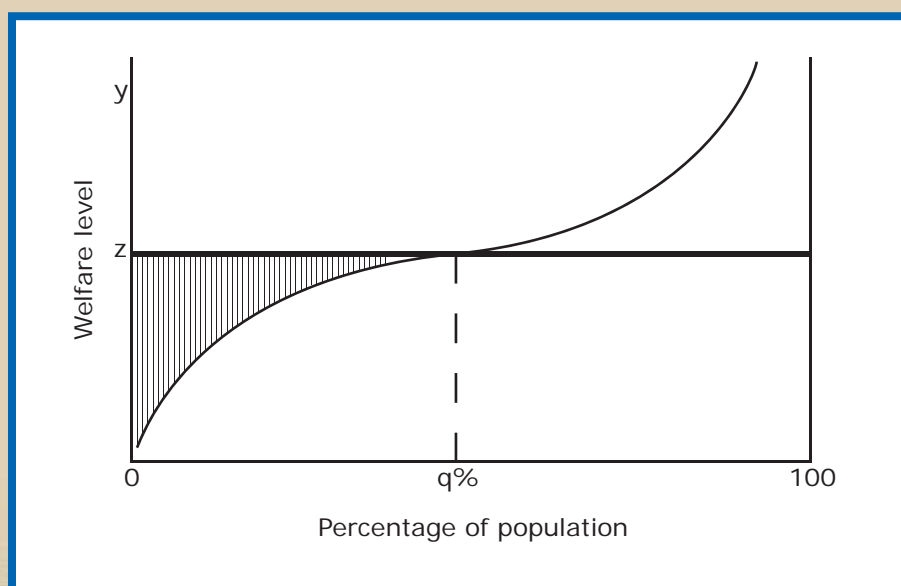


Figure 1:
An Illustration
of Poverty
Reduction
Processes



PATHS FOR REDUCING POVERTY STRATEGIC POLICY AREAS

The strategic pathways for poverty reduction charted in the NSPR are:

- The promotion of broad-based growth focused on sectors that benefit the poor (creating and expanding employment opportunities and sustainable livelihoods);
- The enhancement of human capabilities of the poor (enhancing access to basic quality education, health and nutrition for the poor);
- The promotion of cost-effective pro-poor social safety nets (improved targeting and coverage, and level of benefits for the poor);
- An enhanced effective response to the HIV/AIDS epidemic (reducing the aggravating effect of the disease on employment and productivity, disease burden and health costs, and vulnerability to poverty), and;
- The strengthening of institutions for the poor to effect their participation in the growth processes, and to enable their access to social services and public safety nets.

Broad-based, Labour-absorbing Economic Growth

Broad-based economic growth is likely to have appreciable effects on poverty reduction if growth occurs in sectors that the poor depend on for their livelihoods. It is desirable that such growth processes utilise their abundant factor(s) and economise on and increase the productivity of scarce factors.¹

Lowering transaction costs through investment in infrastructure, markets and innovative institutions enhances the participation and integration of the poor into markets, and increases the returns to their scarce factors. It is crucial that such broad-based growth also occurs with low fluctuations to minimise the risk of deepening poverty. Improved income distribution, as the economy grows, reinforces the effect of economic growth on poverty reduction.

The Provision of Pro-poor Social Services

As in the case of Botswana, where there has been significant progress in the provision of social services and coverage (i.e. basic education and primary health care), the policy priorities of the social sector are to ensure that public spending on social services is efficiently done and the equity consideration is addressed, especially access and utilisation of social services by the poor.

The right organisational arrangements and institutions need to be in place to ensure that services are delivered to the poor. Such targeting could include making eligibility for income transfer programmes conditional on participation in social services, as it is implicitly practised in the Child Welfare Clinics (CWCs).

Cost-effective, Pro-poor Social Safety Nets

The poor are particularly vulnerable to erratic production and income shocks that often "slide" them into deeper poverty. Publicly provided safety nets have important supportive and protective functions, whereas private safety nets, through informal (family or community based) and market-based arrangements, are insufficient to reduce the downside variability in income and consumption.

Lessons from international experiences, including Botswana, indicate that publicly provided safety nets score low in reaching the poor, and often the programmes are

¹ A factor of production that is most limiting to growth is considered scarce, whilst others are deemed abundant relative to the scarce factor. For example, farm assets, such as arable land and draught animals, are often the most limiting (scarce) factors as compared to labour in African smallholder agriculture.

poorly coordinated, accruing high costs of transfer to households due to operational inefficiencies and leakages.

Cost-effective safety nets for the poor are marked by high poverty targeting effectiveness (as a percentage of programme beneficiaries), increased coverage of the poor (as a percentage of total poor), and net transfer of income at low cost.

Reducing the HIV/AIDS Disease Burden on the Poor

A high prevalence of HIV/AIDS slows or reverses achievements in economic growth and gains in social outcomes, and increases vulnerability to poverty. These undesirable economic and social outcomes are pronounced amongst the poor whose income generating capacity is severely curtailed by sick or deceased members of the family who previously gave financial support (or increased demographic burden), the depletion of assets due to the high-cost of health expenses, and diminishing physical capacity to survive on low food intake.

Enhancing an effective response to the HIV/AIDS epidemic breaks the synergy between poverty and the disease, and reduces the disease burden and its consequences on the poor.

Strengthening Institutions for the Poor

Implementing effective poverty reduction policy rests on:

- Organisational and institutional arrangements and practices that enable the identification of the poor, capture their needs correctly and link them into the growth process (e.g. institutions providing access to credit to the poor, technology and transfer of knowledge, marketing services);
- The delivery of social services to the poor (institutions providing basic services to the poor);
- Effective targeting of the poor in the provision of social assistance (e.g. destitute programmes), and;
- The engagement of the poor in monitoring the performance of programmes and projects (e.g. beneficiary assessment arrangements).

Without properly functioning institutional arrangements and practices, the effectiveness of good policies and programmes is likely to diminish.

AREAS OF ACTION

Systematically addressing the questions related to the "how" of poverty reduction along the lines of the strategic areas discussed above remains a challenge.

The over-riding questions are: How is broad-based and sustained economic growth that expands employment opportunities for the labour force achieved? How is the effective provision of social services targeted at the poor ensured? How can HIV/AIDS be effectively addressed through poverty reduction initiatives? How can comprehensive and efficient safety nets targeted at the poor be developed and provided? How can organisational capacity and institutions be strengthened for the poor? How can the capacity of existing national development planning and local government institutions be strengthened to effectively deliver pro-poor programmes? And finally, how can the availability of relevant poverty statistics be enhanced in a timely manner to inform both policy and advocacy?

To systematically address these questions, the MSCPR in its February 2006 quarterly meeting, adopted the following areas of action:

Poverty Assessment and Policy: For policies and programmes to be responsive to the needs of the poor and to address their constraints for growing out of poverty, certain core questions need to be addressed. These are: What process underlines impoverishment? What are the characteristics of the poor? And, what remedial solutions should be addressed?

The objectives of the poverty assessment and policy activity cluster are:

- To establish poverty profiles and determinants;
- To strengthen the policy focus of poverty analyses, and;
- To inform policy options for poverty reduction.

Planned activities include: continued poverty diagnostics (establish poverty profiles and determinants), periodic situational reports on poverty, and policy focused poverty studies.

Poverty Focus of Policies and Programmes: An important step towards poverty reduction is the design of policies and programmes that respond correctly to the needs and constraints of the poor.

The key questions here are: To what extent are policies and programmes (growth, human resources development and social assistance) informed by recent poverty assessments? What are the interventions, channels and instruments for reaching the poor? Are existing policies consistent with requisite interventions and instruments?

The objectives of the activity cluster under this area of action are:

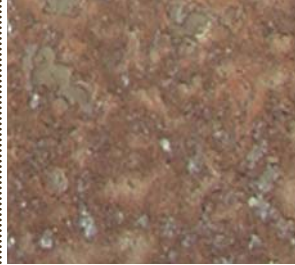
- To enhance knowledge on pro-poor policies and practices;
- To assist in self-assessment of pro-poor policies and programmes, and;
- To mainstream poverty into the development planning process (or, convergence of NDP² and poverty reduction strategies).

Specific activities include: the assessment of the poverty focus of the current NSPR programmes and the development of templates for periodic monitoring, and guidelines for the identification of pro-poor interventions; the evaluation of the poverty-focus of current economic and social policies; the sensitisation of policy makers on pro-poor policies and practices; and the mainstreaming of poverty in the NDP process and policies.

Poverty Focus of Institutions: The objective of this cluster is to foster effective pro-poor institutional arrangements. The emphasis is on the assessment of the poverty-focus of existing institutions, promoting pro-poor institutions, monitoring organisational and institutional effectiveness, and scaling up best institutional practices.

The planned specific activities include: the assessment of the poverty focus of institutions (e.g. the process of targeting, service delivery and participation of the poor); the sensitisation/training of local government and community-based institutions; the development of indicators and monitoring institutional effectiveness; and the identification and promotion of best pro-poor institutional practices.

² National Development Plan



Poverty Monitoring System: Setting up a system for monitoring progress and measuring achievement in development outcomes is an important component of the poverty reduction strategy. Instituting such functioning systems enables progress tracking, identification and determination of factors that prevent the attainment of set targets, the dialogue for policy change and corrective measures, and the mobilisation of broad-based support to effect public action.

The NSPR calls for the institution of a comprehensive monitoring system to track progress on poverty reduction.

The tasks ahead include: the review of existing poverty M&E systems, the development of poverty monitoring indicators, the institution of a computerised welfare monitoring and reporting system, and collaboration with the Central Statistics Office (CSO) on the implementation of poverty monitoring surveys to generate disaggregated measures of the core poverty/welfare indicators.

Impact Assessment, Lessons Learned, and Scaling Up: Policies and programmes are ultimately judged by their effectiveness in improving welfare outcomes, particularly in reducing poverty in its different dimensions. The principle of managing development effectiveness calls for proper documentation of the impact of policies and programmes, drawing lessons learned, and scaling up to enhance effectiveness in improving welfare outcomes.

Planned activities include: to take stock of recent impact studies and synthesise findings; to set selection criteria for the identification of policies and programmes; to provide training on impact evaluation methods; and to report to the RDC/MSCPR/RDCD on recent findings and lessons learned. These activities are intended to promote impact-evaluation practices, to provide lessons from evaluation studies, and to advocate for scaling up.

Knowledge Sharing, Advocacy and Building Consensus: The drive for poverty reduction can be accelerated if the country is able to pool its existing knowledge base, incorporate recent best practices and advocate for policy change. Widely shared information and knowledge form the basis for effective policy dialogue and building an informed coalition against poverty.

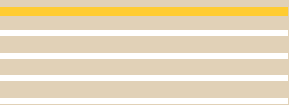
In order to enhance information/knowledge sharing, promote policy dialogue and build an informed coalition, the MSCPR will: periodically report progress on poverty reduction through different platforms; develop the right mix of skills for the design and implementation of poverty assessments; promote discussion and public dialogue (search for reform options); and build an informed coalition against poverty.

THE WAY FORWARD

The implementation of the areas of action discussed above has already begun. The MSCPR is implementing linked activity clusters simultaneously and systematically synchronised to ensure proper sequencing and synergy.

The MSCPR is currently focused on four priority areas, namely:

- The review of existing NSPR programmes, the recommendations of which shall be implemented to enhance their poverty focus in terms of design,



implementation and monitoring;

- The evaluation of the adequacy of current government M&E systems, in order to identify indicators for monitoring the well-being of the poor and to institute a poverty monitoring survey;
- The sensitisation of policy makers and the public at large about NSPR, its implementation strategy and progress in poverty reduction, and;
- Enhancing awareness and facilitating mainstreaming poverty reduction into the National Development Planning process, policies and programmes.



**Annual Poverty Monitoring Report
2006/2007**



Republic of Botswana



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