

**BOTSWANA: COMMON COUNTRY ANALYSIS (cca) 2020**

**FOREWORD**

The Common Country Assessment (CCA) is a process for reviewing and assessing Botswana’s national development situation with the aim to identify key issues that form the basis for on-going policy dialogue and successive five-year United Nations Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAFs); partnership agreements entered into with the Government of Botswana that articulate the UN’s collective response to help the country address national priorities and gaps in its pathway towards meeting the SDGs.

Undertaken by the United Nations Country Team (UNCT) in collaboration with the Government, other development partners and stakeholders, the CCA identifies key development issues and challenges facing the country that the UN system, along with other agencies and the government, need to address in their policies and programmes of assistance. The assessment is based on secondary data (reports, research, other publications); community level consultations; key informant interviews; consultations within the UN system; and national level consultations. One of the central aims of the CCA is to ensure that planned programmes will be broadly consistent with the strategic outcomes sought by the Government in its national development plans.

The annual CCA Report will describe the current development situation in Botswana against SDG benchmarks; describe progress, opportunities, gaps and bottlenecks regarding achieving the targets related to People, Planet and Prosperity, and the SDGs by 2030; and emphasize the human rights based approach, sustainability, resilience, accountability, and the 2030 Agenda’s promise to leave no one behind and reach those furthest behind first.

[insert Zia’s input]

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**Abbreviations and Acronyms**

AAAA Addis Ababa Action Agenda

AU African Union

BAIS Botswana AIDS Impact Survey

BIDPA Botswana Institute for Development Policy Analysis

BSDS Botswana Strategy for Development of Statistics

CEDAW Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women

CSO Civil Society Organizations

DEA Department of Environmental Affairs

DIF Domesticated Indicator Framework

DWA Department of Water Affairs

EAD Department of Energy Affairs

FAO Food and Agriculture Organization

GBV Gender-Based Violence

GDP Gross Domestic Product

GEF Global Environment Fund

HDI Human Development Index

ILO International Labour Organization

LNOB Leaving No One Behind

MDA Ministries, Departments and Agencies

MDG Millennium Development Goals

MENT Ministry of Environment, Natural Resource Conservation and Tourism

MFED Ministry of Finance and Economic Development

MLMWSS Ministry of Land Management, Water and Sanitation Services

MOAFS Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security

MMGE Ministry of Mineral Resources, Green Technology and Energy Security

MTR Mid-Term Review

NDP 11 National Development Plan 11

NMES National Monitoring and Evaluation System

NSO National Strategy Office

PSC Parliamentary Select Committee

PWDs People with Disabilities

RNNP Revised National Population Policy

SADC Southern Africa Development Community

SDG Sustainable Development Goal

UN United Nations

UNAIDS The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS

UNCSD United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development

UNCT United Nations Country Team

UNDAF United Nations Assistance Development Framework

UNDP United Nations Development Programme

UNEP United Nations Environmental Programme

UNFPA United Nations Population Fund

UNICEF United Nations Children’s Fund

WHO World Health Organization

**Executive Summary**

With less than ten years remaining for the achievement of the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the 2020 Common Country Assessment (CCA) for Botswana provides a well-timed opportunity for the UN system, the Government and other partners to identify those critical milestones that must be achieved if the country is to remain on its path towards attaining a better and more sustainable future for all.

The CCA presents an insight into the key development issues and challenges facing the country, including those brought to the fore after the World Health Organization (WHO) declared the novel coronavirus disease (COVID-19) as a pandemic on 11th March 2020. Unless mitigative actions are taken immediately, the pandemic will likely reverse in short shrift, Botswana’s years of progress towards ending poverty and other deprivations, improving health and education, reducing inequality, and achieving sustained and inclusive economic growth, social development and environmental protection.

The pandemic has drawn attention to the limited capacities of the country’s health, education and social protection systems, the urgent need to diversify the economic base from mining exports (i.e. diamonds), and the dependencies arising for a landlocked country. The pandemic is straining the country’s financial resources and has exacerbated poverty, inequality and livelihoods. Contraction of domestic output, loss of employment income, unemployment, small business failure, household food insecurity, violence against women and children, and lost teaching days are just some of the markers of COVID-19’s impact on life in Botswana.

The CCA highlights the challenge Botswana faces towards measuring progress towards the 2030 Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The ability to identify specific needs, formulate policies to address shortcomings, and monitor the impact of these policies are being undermined by existing data and capacity gaps, including the limited availability of disaggregated data, limited training on measurement methodologies and statistical tools, limited routine data collection and the storage of undigitized data.

The CCA examines **progress towards the 2030 Agenda and the SDGs**. Botswana’s commitment is noted in its alignment of the SDGs with National Development Plan 11 and Vision 2036. This alignment has assured the allocation of public financial resources and borrowed funds to SDG implementation. Furthermore, the establishment of the SDGs National Steering Committee and development of the SDG Roadmap and Communication Strategy provide solid foundations for attaining the 2030 Agenda.

The country has made commendable progress in terms of SDGs Implementation, attaining 9 out of the 12 MDG-related SDGs. It lags behind in terms of three targets related to maternal health, the integration of the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reversal of the loss of environmental resources, and the development of an environment conducive to beneficial trade and foreign direct investment.

Botswana is doing relatively well compared to other countries on data availability to monitor the SDGs. However, there has been limited integration of SDG indicators/targets into planning instruments and current monitoring and evaluation frameworks make it near-impossible to measure progress. The country’s current SDGs monitoring capacityis only at 34.8%.

The Financing for Development Agenda is critically important for effective and accountable financing for sustainable development through the SDGs and beyond. Botswana has not taken advantage of the new global framework for financing sustainable development adopted in 2015, despite the fact that it signed up to the Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA) calling for the adoption of Integrated National Financing Frameworks.

With regards to Botswana’s progress towards ensuring **People** fulfil their potential, the CCA reveals that children, adolescent girls and young women (AGYW), women, youth, the rural poor, the elderly, indigenous people, people with disabilities, the LGBTI community, migrants and refugees, and accused and detained persons, are among the groups being left behind, due to various cross-cutting factors. A key finding is that children (especially rural children under five years), AGYW and women (especially rural women) are farthest behind.

The lives of Botswana’s children are being impeded by their unequal access to quality healthcare, early childhood development and education opportunities, unequal access to safe and secure housing, and by harmful social and cultural norms that place them at greater risk of violence and sexual exploitation. Under-5 mortality rates remain high at 56 per 1000, with over half of children in this age range dying as a result of sepsis, severe malnutrition, diarrhoea and pneumonia. Among the estimated 11,132 children aged 0-14 living with HIV (2019), only 37% are receiving antiretroviral treatment. The Botswana Police Service indicates that a few days into the national COVID-19 lockdown during April-May 2020, as many as 23 cases of defilement were reported and that out of 22 rape cases, 7 of them were of children aged between 2 and 13. Furthermore, during January to May 2020, a total of 132 children were sexually abused.

Children in Botswana face education deficits. Only 30% of children aged 3 to 6 years have access to preschool education which remains unaffordable for the less privileged. Children in remote and marginalised communities are more susceptible to dropping out of schools or not even registering for school, Children with disabilities in rural areas are unable to access educational opportunities when appropriate facilities are located in urban centres. Furthermore, not only is primary education not free for children of foreign nationality but children of asylum-seekers and refugees have difficulty accessing education. About half of children (48.9%) live in multi-dimensional poverty, with 7 out of every 10 children deprived of sanitation. Children from poor, rural households have higher rates of deprivation.

A critical emerging finding of the CCA is the pervasive, deep-rooted nature of gender inequality in Botswana’s society. AGYW are exposed to harmful social and cultural norms which place them at greater health risk, at risk of violence and sexual exploitation, and limit their access to education and learning. 15,756 adolescents (10-19) and 30,533 young people (15-24) are living with HIV particularly in the Northern and Eastern parts of the country. However, only 66% of young people living with HIV (15-24 years) are receiving treatment. High rates of school dropout and grade repetition occurs as a result of pregnancy, especially among girls from poor, rural communities and of double orphan status. Fifty-eight (58) girls registered as pregnant when they returned to school after the April-May 2020 national lockdown.

Botswana’s women (especially poor, rural women) face unequal access to productive resources and markets, inappropriate labour market programmes, and harmful social and cultural norms that place them at greater health risk, at risk of violence and sexual exploitation, and diminish their political participation. The number of women living with HIV remains higher than men. They encounter difficulties accessing sexual and reproductive health services including post-partum care and maternal mortality remains high. Gender-based violence against women is pervasive across the country with 67.3% of women reporting sexual, physical, emotional, and/or economic violence by a partner or non-partner. Domestic violence increased during the April-May 2020 COVID-19 national lockdown with 272 women seeking out shelter and other assistance from NGOs.

The CCA also indicates that while women and men have equal right to land ownership, women are disadvantaged across the entire agriculture sector, owning less land, cattle and livestock, than men. Furthermore, Botswana lags behind on women’s political participation and is among the countries of the sub-region and the world with the least women in political positions, namely in Parliament and government, in the House of Chiefs and local government, and in decision-making positions in higher courts and at the international level.

The CCA describes Botswana’s progress towards protecting the **Planet**. It reveals that Botswana recognizes the value of its natural capital in providing resources and services needed for future development and economic growth. However, while the country is richly endowed with natural capital, it is challenged by biodiversity loss, food insecurity and climate change. Financing for the environment remains inadequate with the budgetary allocation for the sustainable environment portfolio for 2020/21 standing at 1%.

Increasing incidences of climate-driven aridity adversely affects Botswana’s water resources, livelihoods, agriculture, ecotourism activities, public health, and the cost of doing business. Energy security is challenged by existing disparities in access to energy such as the reliance on wood fuel as an energy source by rural households. The urgent focus on renewable energy is limited by funding, existing policy frameworks, technical capacities and R&D. Water resource management is challenged by the heavy reliance on fresh and saline groundwater; the pressure on water withdrawals by agriculture, households, mining and urbanization; poor maintenance of storage facilities and dilapidated water supply infrastructure; and the pressure to increase water supply without addressing distribution issues.

The CCA reveals that the country’s efforts at land management is challenged by land degradation and desertification due to overgrazing of livestock, severe drought, over-exploitation of wood resources - a significant threat to the productivity of Botswana’s land resources, food security, poverty, public health, etc. Urban governance strategies are challenged by rapid urbanization (expected to rise to over 70% in 2021) which is placing tremendous pressure on agricultural land, water resources, waste management systems, and infrastructure. Urbanization is exacerbating rural-urban inequalities due to its prioritization in national development planning and policy processes, and the emergence of gated residential estates and up-market shopping malls alongside burgeoning low income and inadequately serviced urban spaces where the informal sector has become a dominant activity.

The CCA also examines Botswana’s progress towards ensuring **Prosperity**. It indicates that Botswana continues to struggle with high levels of poverty and inequality. Its poverty level is high relative to its position as an upper middle-income country with poverty headcount ratios of 16.1% at USD 1.9/day and 31.1% at USD 3.20/day. Its GINI index was high at 53.3 in 2015. The unemployment rate (higher among women) was 23.2% in Q1 2020 and will likely increase due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Botswana’s economic progress is being stalled by the COVID-19 pandemic and its reliance on a few sectors for its revenues and growth. While mining, mainly diamond mining, is the largest single contributor to government revenues and contributes 80% of goods export earnings, diamond exports declined by 77.8% in Q2 2020 compared to Q2 2019. During Q2 2020, the mining sector shrunk by 60.2%, followed by the retail trade, hotels and restaurants sector by 40.3% as border closures and successive lockdowns halted foreign tourism. Declining revenues from these sectors have contributed to the fiscal deficit of BWP 1.52 billion in Q2 2020; a position that is expected to widen with Government’s increased welfare and healthcare expenditures. The fact that Government’s revised budget for 2020/21 budget is 16% less than originally envisioned suggests that the country will have to do more (including achieve the SDGs) with less financial resources.

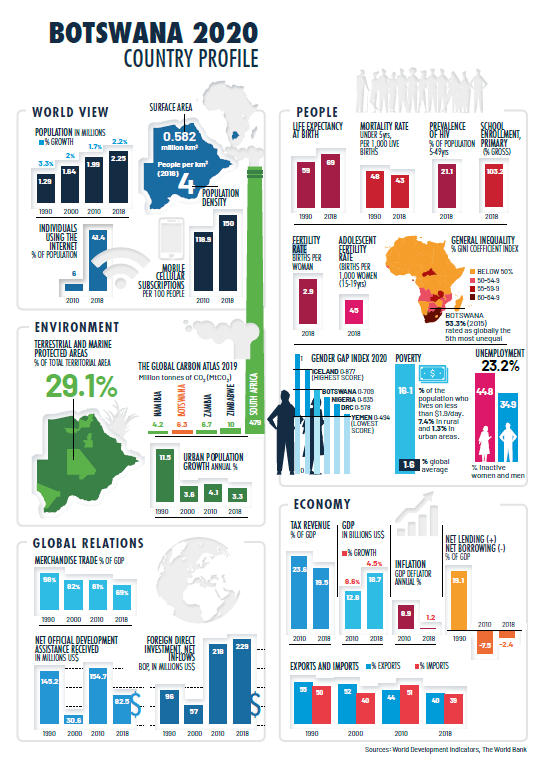
Botswana’s current growth model is not sustainable. The government’s focus has rightly shifted toward the non-mining sector and tapping its potential as a source of export revenue and growth. As Botswana emerges out of the COVID-19 pandemic, tourism holds the greatest promise for revenue generation and employment creation. High-end tourism is an area that Botswana has done relatively well in given tourism’s increasing share in GDP over time.

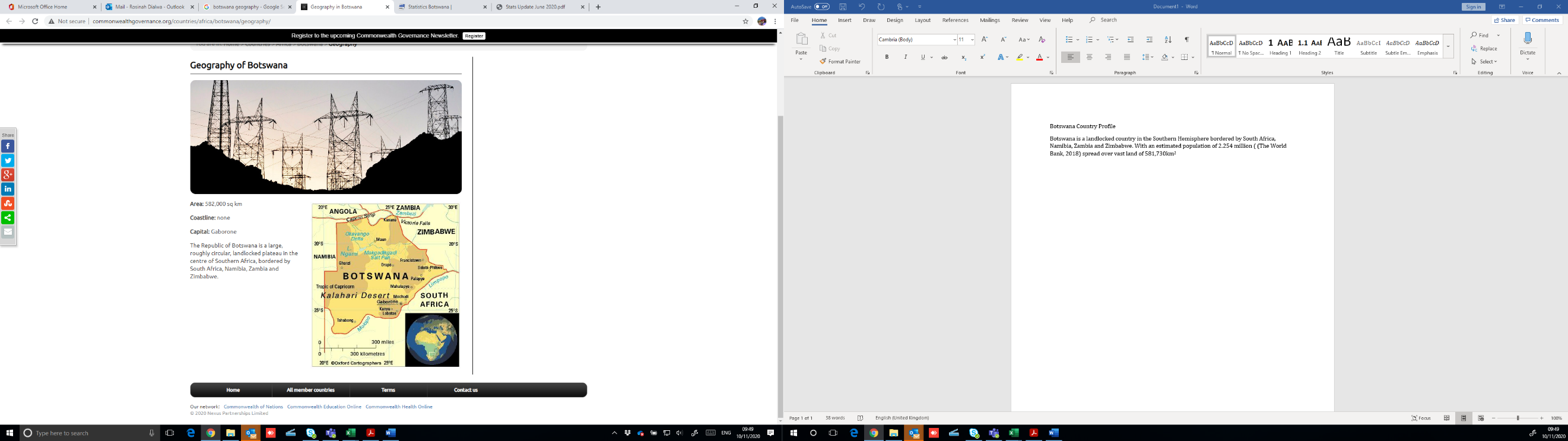
Going forward, if Botswana is to boost exports, it will have to be globally and regionally competitive and cost and quality of goods and services will matter. The country will have to improve its ‘ease of doing business’ indicators if it is to attract FDI and talent. It should identify areas where value can be added to goods and services it is already competitive in, including diamonds, beef and potentially soda ash. Botswana also requires more inclusive growth and should pursue an inclusive growth strategy that ensures growth occurs in sectors in which the poor work, investment occurs in areas where the poor live, and use is made of factors of production that the poor possess to enhance their capabilities.

**1. Methodology**

[insert Helen’s input]

**2. Botswana Country Profile**



The Republic of Botswana is a landlocked country in the Southern Hemisphere bordered by South Africa, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. With an estimated population of 2.254 million, comprising 1,088,049 male and 1,166,077 female spread over vast land of 581,730km2, Botswana is a former protectorate of the British government between 1885 and its independence in 1966.[[1]](#footnote-1) The first general elections were held in 1965, leading to self-government and independence on 30 September 1966 with an active political opposition until present day.

Botswana has a constitutional democracy that provides for three (3) arms of Government, namely the **Legislature**, which is the law and policy-making branch of government; **Judiciary** which consists of the courts, the Court of Appeal, High Court and the Magistrates Court, and plays a key role in the democratic process, providing checks and balances; **and Executive** which is headed by the President and implements the laws made by Parliament. The Constitution includes a Bill of Rights.Afro-barometer Perception based studies undertaken on public attitude towards democracy, governance, and society reveal that in Botswana, there is a lot of public trust for the army (56.5%), traditional leaders (54.1%), Courts of Law (48.7%), President (47.7%) and police (43.9%). Botswana has a Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) of 61%, ranking 34 in 198 countries.[[2]](#footnote-2) This exceeds the average score for the sub-Saharan Africa (32%), the lowest scoring region.

Figure 2

*Public Perceptions on Trust in Botswana, 2019*

The *World Justice Project Rule of Law Index®* is the world’s leading source for original, independent data on the rule of law and measures countries’ rule of law performance across eight factors: Constraints on Government Powers, Absence of Corruption, Open Government, Fundamental Rights, Order and Security, Regulatory Enforcement, Civil Justice, and Criminal Justice. Botswana has a World Justice Project Rule of Law Index score of 0.60, which is higher than the global average (0.56) and much higher than the regional average (0.47).[[3]](#footnote-3) Only **Mauritius** and **Namibia** have higher scores in the region. Botswana’s score for the indicator “Open Government” is the only one below the global average. This measures the openness of government defined by the extent to which a government shares information, empowers people with tools to hold the government accountable, and fosters citizen participation in public policy deliberations.

The overall INFORM risk index identifies countries at risk from humanitarian crises and disasters that could overwhelm the national response capacity. The INFORM’s Global Risk Index (GRI) is made up of three dimensions – hazards and exposure, vulnerability and lack of coping capacity. At a GRI of 3.2, Botswana is rated as a low risk-class country.[[4]](#footnote-4) Inequality comes up as a high risk, as well as droughts. Only Mauritius and Seychelles have lower scores. With an estimated Gini Index of 53.3 in 2015, inequalities in the distribution of income or consumption expenditure among individuals or households remain high in Botswana even though there was a 11.9% improvement from 2009.[[5]](#footnote-5)

Botswana’s 2019 HDI of 0.735 puts the country in the high human development category, positioning it at 100 out of 189 countries and tertitories. The HDI is a summary measure for assessing long-term progress in three basic dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, access to knowledge and a decent standard of living. Compared to Eswatini and Namibia, Botswana has fared much better on the three basic dimensions of human development. Only Mauritius and Seychelles are higher in the ranking than Botswana.

Furthermore, in 2020, Botswana with a score of 0.709, ranked 12th among sub-Saharan African countries on the Gender Gap Index, and 73rd at the global level. Progress has been made in education and health and 80% of the gender gap has been closed in terms of participation and economic opportunities for women. However, the country lags behind on women’s political participation and is among the countries of the sub-region and of the world with the least number of women in political positions, namely in parliament and in the government.

Policy-formulation processes in Botswana are designed such that sectoral policies align with national policy. Since independence in 1966, Botswana has operated a system of development planning characterized by regular preparation of national development plans (NDPs). NDPs outline the national development strategy to be pursued by all development efforts in the country. Aligned to the long-term national Vision 2036, the 11th National Development Plan (NDP 11) of April 2017 to March 2023 focuses on the six broad-based national priorities of: i) Developing Diversified Sources of Economic Growth; ii) Human Capital Development; iii) Social Development; iv) Sustainable Use of Natural Resources; v) Consolidation of Good Governance and Strengthening of National Security; and vi) Implementation of an Effective Monitoring and Evaluation System. The NDP 11 was developed in consideration of the development challenges facing the country, and the need to align the focus of the Plan with global, continental and regional initiatives such as; the UN’s Sustainable Development Goals, AU Agenda 2063, and the Revised SADC Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan.[[6]](#footnote-6)

The Mid-Term Review (MTR) of the NDP11 was presented in the July 2020 session of Parliament to appreciate the first 3 years of implementation of the National Development Plan; what was achieved, challenges and possibly to adjust as necessary. While emphasizing the need to diversify the economy away from diamonds, the MTR also demonstrated that Botswana has too many policies, strategies and plans which conflict, overlap and elongate bureaucratic processes. Botswana’s policy formulation and implementation are undertaken by institutions at different levels: national, district and local/settlement levels, with minimum participation of the general citizen.[[7]](#footnote-7) Community engagement and consultation is usually undertaken through Kgotla platforms that tend to be poorly attended.[[8]](#footnote-8)

**3. Life in BOTSWANA today**

[insert Helen’s input]

# 4. Progress towards the 2030 Agenda and SDGs

## 4.1 Vision and Principles

## A Systems Perspective: Integration and Acceleration

In Botswana, the transition from the MDGs to the SDGs coincided with the preparation of Vision 2036 and National Development Plan 11. Vision 2036, ***“Achieving Prosperity for All”*** and NDP 11 “***Inclusive Growth for the Realization of Sustainable Employment and Poverty Eradication”*** were approved by Parliament in July 2016 and April 2017 respectively. This therefore provided an opportunity for Botswana to align its medium- to long-term national goals and priorities with those of the SDGs. A deliberate decision was taken to design the projects and programmes for delivering the country’s priorities and the Vision in a manner that would, to the extent possible, contribute to the attainment of the SDGs.[[9]](#footnote-9)

Having embraced the UN’s Agenda 2030 as key to transforming its economy, Botswana established an institutional mechanism, in the form of an SDGs National Steering Committee (NSC) and its subsidiary body, the SDGs Technical Task Force, to oversee and guide implementation of the SDGs in the country. A Botswana SDGs Roadmap (2017-2023) was developed and launched in February 2018 setting the approach and identifying strategic intervention areas for successful implementation of the SDGs. An SDGs Communications Strategy was also developed and put in place in 2019 to guide advocacy, sensitization and awareness-creation on SDGs. These measures provided a solid foundation for implementation of the SDGs in the country.

## 4.2 Implementation

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## Integrated National Planning

The Botswana SDGs Roadmap identified broad areas of focus: i) Coordination, Ownership and Leadership, ii) Implementation, Building on Existing Structures, and iii) Data and Progress Tracking and Reporting. These areas of focus would be implemented in three phases as follows:

* + *Phase 1 (2016-2022):* This phase is for the broad uptake of the SDGs agenda into mainstream development. It is expected that during this phase, the country will have attained all the MDG-related SDGs and registered measurable progress on all other SDGs;
  + *Phase 2 (2023-*2029): This phase is for transformation of development drivers towards sustainability with all relevant SDGs targets set to be achieved by 2029; and
  + *Phase 3 (2030):* The third and final phase is for wrap up, reporting and packaging. The country would commence setting new goals for its next development phase in line with the national context and global developments and continue with implementation of Africa’s Agenda 2063.

The SDGs Roadmap includes a five-year plan of action implemented through annual work-plans. The Roadmap foresees the attainment of all the Millennium Development Goals that relate to the SDGs by 2022. Therefore, when reviewing progress in the implementation of the SDGs, a reflection on efforts that are being put in place to address those specific targets that were not achieved during the MDGs, is necessary.

Table 4.2

*Alignment of Sustainable Development Goals to NDP 11 and Vision 2036 Pillars*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **The Five (5) P’s** | **People**  **-End Poverty &**  **Fight**  **Inequality, Ensure**  **Healthy lives,**  **Knowledge, Inclusion of**  **Women &**  **Children** | | **Planet**  **-Protect our**  **Ecosystem for All**  **Societies &**  **Our Children** | **Prosperity**  **-Grow Strong Inclusive &**  **Transformative Economy** | **Peace (Justice)**  **-Promote Safe &**  **Peaceful Societies &**  **Strong Institutions** | **Partnership**  **-Catalyze Global Solidarity for**  **Achieving SD** |
| **SDGs (Target 2030)** | 1 2, 3, 4,5 | | 6, 12, 13, 14, 15 | 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 | 16 | 17 |
| **NDP11 Priorities** | End Poverty &  Fight  Inequality | Social Development | Sustainable Use of  Natural Resources | Diversified Sources of  Economic Growth  & Human Capital  Development | Consolidation of Good  Governance & Strengthening of National  Security | Implementation of an Effective  Monitoring &  Evaluation |
| **Vision 2036 Pillars** | Human and Social Development  (Pillar 2) | Human and Social Development  (Pillar 2) | Sustainable Environment  (Pillar 3) | Sustainable Economic  Development  (Pillar 1) | Governance, Safety &  Security  (Pillar 4) | Governance &  Safety &  Security  (Pillar 4) |

Source: MFED/UNDP (2020). *National Report on the Status of Implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals Agenda in Botswana*.

The Botswana MDGs Report of 2015noted that Botswana made achievements in nine (9) out of the twelve (12) MDG targets.[[10]](#footnote-10) The three (3) targets found to be moving slowly in terms of implementation were:

i) Target 6 related to maternal health, specifically the need to reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio;

ii) Target 10 calling for the integration of the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes, and to reverse the loss of environmental resources;

iii) Target 11 in relation to global partnerships for development, requiring countries to develop further an environment conducive to beneficial trade and foreign direct investment.

In pursuit of the unfinished MDGs business, significant progress has been made in reducing maternal mortality and under-five mortality (Box 4.2.1). Furthermore, a sustainable environment remains a key priority in NDP 11 which contains a wide range of projects and programmes that are aimed at the sustainable management of the environment including conservation of natural and cultural resources as well as climate change and mitigation, amongst others. Similarly, programmes such as the doing-business reforms; trade facilitation initiatives in relation to land, utilities, ICT, infrastructure and skills; and other programmes and projects aimed at diversifying the economy, have been developed to enhance global partnerships and to create a conducive environment for beneficial trade and foreign direct investment.

Box 4.2.1

Box 4.2.1

|  |
| --- |
| **Botswana Progress Review – Women’s Reproductive Health and Gender Equality**  Botswana has detailed policy frameworks that lay the foundation for placing the improvement of sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR), HIV/AIDS, and gender equality, at the center of the development agenda. At the global level, Botswana is committed to achieving universal health coverage (UHC) and has aligned its national strategies to the “Health in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”. The Third National Multi-Sectoral HIV and AIDS Response Strategic Framework 2018-2023 (NSF III) and the National Health Policy 2011 are linked to other national strategic plans including those guiding sexual reproductive health and rights (SRHR), maternal, neonatal, child and adolescent health and nutrition; HIV testing services; TB and non-communicable diseases; gender inequality and gender-based violence (GBV).  Much progress has been made to improve accessibility to quality health services including sexual and reproductive, maternal and newborn services. There is a high prenatal attendance by pregnant women and more than 98% of births are institutional.[[11]](#footnote-11). Paradoxically the investment into ensuring availability of comprehensive integrated SRHR, HIV and other health services has not adequately translated into desired maternal mortality targets. Botswana’s Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMRatio) of 133.7 deaths per 100,000 live-births is inconsistent with the target for an upper middle-income country.[[12]](#footnote-12)    The Botswana MMR 2019 Statistics Brief shows that maternal deaths continue to be disproportionately located among age groups 25-29 and 30-34 years. It is similarly concerning that about eight percent (8%) of maternal deaths occur amongst adolescents aged 15-19 years. Direct obstetric causes contributed a higher proportion (73.2%) of total maternal deaths compared to 26.5% being indirect causes in 2018. The three leading direct contributing factors of maternal deaths over time are postpartum haemorrhage (PPH), abortive complications and hypertensive disorders. Whilst postpartum haemorrhage and abortion related complications declined slightly in 2019, infections including those associated with abortions continue to be a significant cause. (MoHW Program Reports 2017-2019).  Figure 1  *Total number of maternal deaths compared to Projected targets*    *Target:* UNFPA 2018, Policy Brief towards achieving SDG 3.1: MMR target for Botswana  *Actual:* MoHW, SRHD-MNH MDS Reports 2017-2019  Assessments identify substandard care as a major contributing factor in maternal deaths. (Botswana MoHW, 2018). The factors leading to maternal deaths have been attributed to delays within a health facility arising from the failure to provide timely and comprehensive care to pregnant women who arrive at the facility. Consistent with previous assessments the majority of maternal deaths are attributable to the *3rd obstetric delay* factors including limited skilled providers, unavailable commodities and equipment, poor management of obstetric complications and referral delays. The majority of maternal deaths are therefore preventable. (Botswana MoHW, 2014). It is also known that unsafe abortions are one of the leading causes of maternal death. Many women who undergo illegal abortions and suffer complications do not seek medical attention due to fear of persecutions. According to Botswana Penal Code (section 160) abortion is criminalized except in cases of rape, incest, threats to the life or health of the pregnant woman or severe fetal impairment.  Gender inequalities persist in Botswana and limit women’s choices, opportunities and access to information, health and social services. The Botswana National Relationship Study (BNRS) which was undertaken in 2017 identified that one in three women reported experience of some form of gender-based violence in their lifetime. Intimate partner violence (IPV) remained the most prevalent form of gender-based violence (GBV) with 36.5 % of women interviewed having experienced IPV and 26.7% of men admitting to perpetrating intimate partner violence. Women of reproductive age were more likely to experience IPV and 15% of women who have ever been pregnant had experienced GBV during pregnancy. The Relationship study further found that women with all types of disabilities were two to three times more vulnerable to GBV than men and that the rates were highest among women with functional mobility. Increased risk for adverse SRH outcomes persists where sexual gender-based violence (SGBV) survivors do not receive comprehensive survivor-centered services including clinical management of rape such as access to post exposure prophylaxis to prevent unintended pregnancies, STIs and HIV infection.  The situation of specific groups of women can be worse taking into consideration the GBV intersecting with disabilities, sexual workers and LBGTI communities. For instance, The Hands Off! (AIDS Fonds; Hands Off, 2017) Study revealed that violence is a key factor in the vulnerability of sex workers to HIV/AIDS, preventing sex workers from accessing valuable information, legal support and health services that help to protect them from HIV/AIDS. Sex workers in Botswana experience high levels of violence, ranging from societal stigma and discrimination to beatings, theft and rape. On the other hand, it is also known that women with disabilities face greater risks of experiencing double stigma and discrimination. According to Alight Botswana Study Report (Alight Botswana, 2018), women and girls with disabilities are often victims of injuries, further disabilities, poor sexual and reproductive health outcomes such as increased likelihood of unintended pregnancies, acquisition of HIV and other sexually transmitted infections.  This makes tackling gender inequality key to ending the HIV epidemic as well as achieving other, broader development outcomes. Factors such as early sexual abuse, forced marriage and GBV have also increased women and girls’ vulnerability to HIV. Given the demonstrated crosscutting impacts of SRHR on human rights, gender equality and HIV & AIDS, linkage and scaling up SRHR/HIV and GBV services is a critical strategy for the achievement of SDGs 3 &5 as well as adequately responding to national SRHR/HIV and GBV goals and other regional and international commitments.  **Recommendations**   * Strengthen policy and legal environment that enables all people to exercise their SRHR rights and access quality integrated SRHR services including family planning, safe abortions, maternal and newborn care, HIV and GBV services. * Increase capacity of policy makers and programme managers to mainstream gender, equality and human rights across policies, programme implementation, and monitoring for SRHR/HIV and SGBV, including the prevalence and consequences of unsafe abortions. * Improve availability and use of integrated SRHR services that are gender-responsive and meet human rights standards for quality of care and equity in access. * Ensure that quality integrated SRHR/HIV and SGBV services are provided by well-trained service providers with the necessary skills, knowledge and institutional tools to deliver an integrated package of SRHR/HIV and SGBV services. * Strengthen the capacity of health care workers to provide adequate emergency obstetric care (EmOC) and key populations (KP)-friendly services aligned to WHO and regional standards. * Catalyze efforts to adopt the use of innovative technologies that can improve the quality and effectiveness of services and management of obstetric emergency in areas with poor access and for hard to reach populations as prioritised in the national RMNCAH strategy and in line with global and regional guidance. * Mobilize women, girls, men and boys at community, family and individual levels for the elimination of gender stereotypes regarding sexual and reproductive rights in favor of respectful relationships and positive masculinities. * Step-up efforts to improve access to family planning services as the foundation for reducing unwanted pregnancies and abortions. * Improve the capacity to respond to the SRH needs of young people by strengthening adolescent and youth friendly sexual and reproductive health services to meet global standards. * Ensure availability of high quality disaggregated sexual SRHR/HIV and GBV data and information is produced, analyzed and used to inform evidence-based programming and policy development. |
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The following recommendations from the 2015 MDG Report should continue to inform sustainable development initiatives, particularly as the country accelerates towards the 2030 timeline:

1. The need for development of an Inclusive Economic Growth model for private sector participation in growing the country’s economy while at the same time paying attention to socio-economic dimensions, including gender mainstreaming;
2. The need to appreciate and address SDGs’ interrelations for efficient and effective implementation and realization of the net effect of sustainable development on the society. The MDGs implementation process acknowledged that without synergy between developmental goals, it will not be possible to pronounce on whether the success in any particular goal has net positive or negative effects on society’s overall welfare;
3. The need for Botswana to have certain components of the SDGs agenda designed to mount an awareness campaign on climate issues in the same magnitude as that for HIV and AIDS prevention, to ensure the general public and private sector understand the effects of their collective activity on the climate. During the MDGs era, there was a low level of awareness in respect of the causes and impacts of climate change on ecosystems, human health, welfare and the economy; and
4. The need to address disparity gaps at sub-national level to sustain development. For instance, real poverty can be alleviated when rural-urban inequality, gender inequality and all other possible disparities are addressed.[[13]](#footnote-13)

## Strengthening Local Partnerships and Participation

Advocacy, sensitization and awareness-creation are central to generating momentum and commitment to attain the SDG targets. Further, building public awareness is a critical step towards a participatory process in implementing the SDGs that ultimately leads to maximizing ownership and sustainability of development:

sustainable development requires the meaningful involvement and active participation of regional, national and subnational legislatures and judiciaries, and all major groups: women, children and youth, indigenous peoples, nongovernmental organizations, local authorities, workers and trade unions, business and industry, the scientific and technological community, and farmers, as well as other stakeholders, including local communities, volunteer groups and foundations, migrants and families as well as older persons and persons with disabilities. (United Nations, 2012, p. 11)[[14]](#footnote-14)

In this context, Botswana has set up a solid institutional SDGs Roadmap as a prerequisite for leveraging interlinkages, mainstreaming, localization and steering implementation of the SDGs across all sectors. However, sectors are not able to explicitly identify interlinkages across goals and targets in an integrated and holistic way which is a prerequisite for systematic policy design, implementation and multi-stakeholder collaboration. It is therefore recommended that:

1. The national SDG Secretariat facilitate a process that explores the nature, strengths and potential impact of sectoral interactions and fast track the development of guidelines which define modalities for seeking partnerships with the private sector, civil society, research, academic institutions as well as think tanks in the implementation of specific SDG targets.
2. Botswana invest in capacity building platforms that allow for broad multi-disciplinary and multisectoral conversations with all stakeholders. The process will identify concrete clusters of targets that need to be addressed together for an integrated approach to implementation and monitoring. Private sector, civil society and academia remain relatively untapped resources in accelerating Botswana’s progress towards the SDGs and a concerted effort is required to leverage their unique capabilities and resources as the country embarks on the Decade of Action.

Box 4.2.2

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| **Private Sector Engagement**  **Case Study**: Botswana Stock Exchange Sustainable Stock-Exchange Initiative  In 2016 the Botswana Stock Exchange (BSE) partnered with UNDP to kick-start the enrolment of BSE into the Sustainable Stock-Exchange (SSE) Initiative. Members of the SSE commit to promoting sustainability performance and transparency in capital markets. The BSE has voluntarily committed itself to achieving the SDGs through the promotion of long-term sustainable investment and improved environmental, social and corporate governance disclosure and performance among companies listed on the exchange. The SSE initiative has identified five Sustainable Development Goals and targets [SDG targets 5.5, 8.3, 12.6, 13.3 and 17.6] that stock exchanges are well positioned to support.  In 2018 UNDP and the BSE commissioned a research to determine the overall state of sustainability practices among BSE-listed companies related to Financial services and insurance, Retail & Wholesaling, Property & Property Trust, Banking, Tourism, Energy and ICT.  Findings showed that although notable progress has been made within the private sector in terms of being aware of key sustainability principles, there are still gaps in terms of verifiable and deliberate actions to achieve the SDGs. The UN in Botswana has made progress in introducing the SDGs to the country through spearheading the setting up of SDGs coordination mechanisms, producing guidance material, commissioning reports and baseline studies. However, the private sector has not been fully engaged in the implementation of SDGs leveraging their skills, efficiencies, financial resources and corporate social investments pursuits.  **Source**: *Profiling Private Sector Sustainability Practices in Botswana: Botswana Stock Exchange Listed Domestic Companies*. |

## 4.3 Follow-Up and Review

## The Domesticated Indicator Framework

Beyond the national development frameworks (NDP and Vision 2036), Botswana also subscribes to various development frameworks at regional, continental and global levels including Southern African Development Community (SADC), African Union Agenda 2063 and the SDGs, the progress monitoring and evaluation of which are data intensive. Therefore, there is heightened interest in the provision of quality statistics on elements that have become critical assessment indicators. The Domesticated Indicator Framework contains 17 goals, 169 targets and 209 indicators. *The National Report on the Status of Implementation of the SDG Agenda in Botswana*, completed in September 2020, revealed that although the country has lined up programmes and projects supporting 174 of the 209 indicators, the sectors experience challenges related to poor programme design, flawed implementation and monitoring.[[15]](#footnote-15)

Of the 209 indicators, 158 are measurable and categorized under Tier I and II, 47 are unmeasurable as their methodologies are still being defined, while 4 are multitier indicators. The above classification implies that the country’s SDG current statistical monitoring capacity, i.e. the ability of the country to generate or produce SDG data, is at 34.8%. Table 4.3 highlights the number of Botswana relevant targets and indicators vis-à-vis the global ones, the number of indicators supported by actions/programmes and projects by both government and partners as well as mainstreamed indicators per goal. As indicated in Table 4.3.1, 88 of the 209 applicable indicators have baselines. These include both quantitative (76) and qualitative indicators (12). Of the 88, only 42 have been mainstreamed/integrated in plans, and have annual performance targets. This means the impact of the numerous interventions funded by government and partners in the form of programmes and projects, can only be assessed and tracked for 42 indicators. This makes it near impossible to reliably measure progress in the implementation of the SDGs in Botswana. This may be attributed to the lack of SDG planning guidelines. However, MFED has developed SDG Planning Guidelines as a tool to find practical ways to accelerate the rate of implementation of the SDGs in Botswana.[[16]](#footnote-16) The Guidelines provide a mechanism to move the national discussions away from conversations around goals to planning for and implementing specific SDG targets according to the development challenges facing the country. Work is underway to roll out these guidelines across the sectors and line Ministries and it is critical that MFED finalizes both the guidelines and their roll-out.

Although the recent assessment identified more indicators with baselines (88) compared to those in the SDGs Domesticated Indicator Framework Baseline Report of 2018 (55), there is limited data to facilitate the determination of baselines and the setting of annual targets for the rest of the measurable indicators which means that the SDGs monitoring capacity in the country is only at 34.8%.

Table 4.3

*Status of Mainstreaming of the SDG targets and Indicators at a Glance*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Sustainable Development Goal  (SDG) | Targets | | Indicators | | Measurable indicators  (as at  31.12.18) | Indicators with supporting Actions/ Programs | Indicators with baselines | Indicators mainstreamed and with  Annual Targets |
| GIF | DIF\* | GIF | DIF |
| Goal 1: No Poverty | 7 | 7 | 12 | 13 | 9 | 11 | 7 | 5 |
| Goal 2: Zero Hunger | 8 | 5 | 14 | 11 | 8 | 11 | 6 | 1 |
| Goal 3: Good Health and  Well Being | 13 | 13 | 26 | 28 | 25 | 25 | 11 | 8 |
| Goal 4: Quality Education | 10 | 9 | 11 | 11 | 9 | 10 | 3 | 0 |
| Goal 5: Gender Equality | 9 | 9 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 13 | 7 | 2 |
| Goal 6: Clean Water and  Sanitation | 8 | 8 | 11 | 11 | 11 | 8 | 5 | 3 |
| Goal 7: Affordable and  Clean Energy | 5 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 2 |
| Goal 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth | 12 | 12\*\* | 17 | 16 | 14\*\* | 12 | 6 | 4 |
| Goal 9: Industry,  Innovation and  Infrastructure | 8 | 8 | 12 | 12 | 11 | 12 | 5 | 1 |
| Goal 10: Reduced  Inequalities | 10 | 6 | 11 | 10 | 6 | 7 | 2 | 1 |
| Goal 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities | 10 | 6 | 16 | 13 | 8 | 8 | 4 | 3 |
| Goal 12: Responsible  Consumption & Production | 11 | 3 | 13 | 13 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Goal 13: Climate Action | 5 | 1 | 7 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| Goal 14: Life Below Water | 10 | 1 | 10 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Goal 15: Life on Land | 12 | 8 | 14 | 12 | 10 | 10 | 8 | 6 |
| Goal 16: Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions | 12 | 9 | 23 | 22 | 16 | 15 | 8 | 3 |
| Goal 17: Partnerships for  Goals | 19 | 14 | 25 | 24 | 18 | 20 | 8 | 0 |
| **Total** | **169** | **123** | **242\*\*\*** | **219\*\*\*** | **168\*\*\*** | **174\*\*\*** | **88**\*\*\*\* | **42** |

Note. Target 8b in DIF (page 33) is misaligned. For the purpose of this report, it is assumed target 8b and indicator 8b.1 are included in the DIF; \*\*\* includes repeating indicators and \*\*\*\* includes proxy indicators. Source: MFED/UNDP (2020). *National Report on the Status of Implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals Agenda in Botswana*.

A number of reasons can be attributed to the current status of monitoring the SDGs:

1. There is a high level of functional illiteracy within ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) to meaningfully integrate SDG principles, targets and indicators into development plans, policies, programmes and projects.[[17]](#footnote-17)
2. As a new agenda, SDGs impose new demands on human resources and technical statistical knowledge. Training on new methodologies and tools, understanding of SDG indicators and their calculation as well as analysis and interpretation of the data have become a new requirement coming with this agenda. Institutions for data collection, processing and dissemination, in particular statistics bureaus, have to handle new or additional supervision and coordination responsibilities brought about by the SDGs, yet systems are not ready for these new requirements.
3. MDAs may not be aware of the existence of baseline data particularly as it obtains in the SDGs DIF Baseline Stats Brief (2018) which can be useful in planning an integration of the SDGs in planning instruments.

Some of data might possibly exist in hard copy but is not yet digitized. The lack of available digital data formats is one of the most pressing constraints of Statistics Botswana. This impedes the efforts to establish a baseline and construction of an M&E system for the SDGs. The data format in hard copy also makes it difficult to share and analyze data between agencies, especially for submission to Statistics Botswana.

Box 4.3

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| **Status of the Environmental SDGs in Botswana**  As in other countries, Botswana’s prospects for advancing environment-related SDGs are constrained by data gaps and inadequate budgetary allocation for environmental information management.   * SDG alignment: Botswana’s clean water and sanitation - Key indicators under Goal 6 on the *“proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services”,* show limited progress. Recent data on Botswana’s access to safe water in urban areas depict a slightly falling trend, registering about 83 per cent coverage in 2017. Regarding SDG 6.2.1 on the *“proportion of population using (a) safely managed sanitation services and (b) a hand-washing facility with soap and water”*, while the targets seek to ensure at least 89 per cent of the country’s rural and urban populations are covered by basic services to sanitation by 2023 and to have no people practicing open defecation by 2030, only 78.5% of households in urban areas and 46.9% in urban villages have flush toilets. The most common toilet type in rural areas is pit latrines (43.6%).   SDG alignment: Botswana’s clean energy - The proportion of the population with access to electricity increased from 10.1% in 1991 to 62.8% in 2017. In 2018, 53% of the population relied primarily on clean fuels and technology. The share of renewable energy in the total final energy consumption declined from 36.6% in 2000 to 28.6% in 2017.  SDG alignment: Botswana’s biodiversity - Botswana progress for SDG 15 on “*protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss*” continues to face multiple challenges. These include declining forest cover, loss of biodiversity and ecosystems, illicit trade in wildlife and wildlife products, and proliferation of invasive species. The country, for example, lost [over 350 elephants at Okavango](https://www.nature.com/articles/d41586-020-02703-9) in the early part of the year 2020 attributed to the contamination of elephant watering areas by toxic cyanobacteria proliferated by the warming temperature situations. Current [forest area](https://unstats.un.org/unsd/environment/forestarea.htm) as a share of land area for Botswana stands at 26.9 per cent, being a decline from its 2000 levels of 31.1 per cent. The country’s shifting demographics and its level of, and approach to the consumption of its natural assets are cited as some of the key drivers. Those forested areas affected mostly are woodlands in rural areas whose immediate communities are mostly dependent on wood fuel for cooking and lighting. Such a negative trajectory is likely to hamper the country’s commitments to the Paris Agreement on climate change as well as its progress to the Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development and will affect Botswana’s attainment of Goals 1 and 2 on eradicating poverty and hunger, respectively. |

It should be noted that Botswana is doing relatively well compared to other countries on data availability to monitor the SDGs. Even advanced economies are partially struggling with data availability within their own statistical systems to establish SDG baseline. For example, the Danish Government has called on the ecosystem to provide information and also complement their domesticated indicators with qualitative and quantitative information and data. In an environment with limited resources, Statistics Botswana together with the key stakeholders might consider following the Danish experience and reach out to the ecosystem, especially the private sector.

Strengthened data governance arrangements, adequate resourcing and enhanced capacity are key ingredients for the successful implementation of the SDGs monitoring framework. It is recommended that:

1. The role of Statistics Botswana be elevated from SDG data coordinators to SDG data lead agency with the mandate to directly access data at the respective line ministries and agencies.
2. The Ministry of Finance and Economic Development should provide strategic oversight and put adequate policies in place attempting to achieve the SDGs. It seems that data governance arrangements have not penetrated sufficiently to the technical levels and data sharing seems to be problematic.
3. Continued commitment and ownership of all stakeholders be ensured, and support given to the collaboration of stakeholders to build a data ecosystem.
4. The SDG data governance framework be strengthened, and roles and responsibilities related to SDG data collection be confirmed, as important short-term measures that help to strengthen the statistical capacity in a sustainable manner.
5. Adequate resourcing, and capacity strengthening, or training activities be undertaken to mitigate the fact that a complete database and systems are not yet in place in most ministries/agencies. Capacity building and training activities should incorporate new data collection tools and technologies into the Botswana SDG monitoring toolbox and the digitization of existing tools and systems.

## Data Gaps and Capacity Needs

Data quality in all the seven dimensions of relevance, accuracy, coherence, credibility, timeliness, accessibility and interpretability remains weak across the data value chain. Human resources capacity challenges remain prevalent including weak statistical knowledge, data analysis and reporting at the administrative level. Furthermore, a significant proportion of data available are not adequately disaggregated on issues of gender, socio-economic status, disability and other relevant diversities. Furthermore, while government sectors collect administrative data, the sectors are not well equipped in terms of statistical processes concerning refinement of data collection tools, automation of data collection systems and processing of administrative data. There is the lack of national standards and guidelines for setting of annual performance targets. The Botswana Strategy for Development of Statistics (BSDS) highlights additional challenges in the data production value chain namely the lack of statistical advocacy in and across sectors and low levels of coordination and information sharing. These challenges contribute to flawed programme design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

Realizing the intensive nature of the SDGs in terms of data, the Botswana SDGs Roadmap (2017-2023) called for a data revolution if government is to successfully monitor, evaluate and report the country’s performance against the SDGs. The process of data collection and reporting is critical to monitoring progress in the SDGs as it is key to guiding evidence-based programme management and decision making. The national coordinating structures, including Parliament, must make sure that implementation of SDGs is on track and can be recalibrated in light of evidence and public feedback.

The National Strategy Office (NSO) coordinates the National Monitoring and Evaluation System (NMES) which is aimed at assessing progress made towards achieving NDP 11 priorities. The NMES advocates for efficiency, effectiveness, transparency and accountability for sustainability of development results. An expanded NMES can be an effective tool for measuring progress made towards achieving the country’s development priorities, including the SDGs. This calls for more strengthened efforts towards data development and management, ensuring quality, timeliness, reliability of the data at appropriate disaggregation levels so that policy and decision making are inclusive, in the spirit of leaving no one behind. Harnessing the potential of the data revolution for the VNR requires the NMES to integrate the exponentially increasing amounts of data available. Much of this data comes from untraditional sources as far as national statistical systems are concerned. Therefore, new partnerships would be crucial to allow access, save costs and provide more detailed, insightful and real-time data. The extent to which the Botswana NMES is ready to embrace this data revolution is uncertain. Although at a higher policy level, the Botswana Government speaks of its Transformation Strategy and leap-frogging into the Fourth Industrial Revolution, reality is that frameworks for operationalization, standards, systems and capacities are lagging behind, leading to missed opportunities.

National databases rely on multiple surveys conducted by Statistics Botswana such as household surveys, vital registration and census as sources of data as well as routine monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of programmes and projects. Routine collection of data by line ministries can improve the full and effective operationalization of the SDG indicator framework. This is because while Statistics Botswana is the main institution for collecting and publishing national statistics, the organization is only responsible for 35% of the SDGs related data while the majority of the data, (60%), is to be provided by the various line ministries, departments and agencies and only 5% by international data sources.

Botswana has developed an M&E policy framework and manual with clear roles and responsibilities, tools and processes for data collection at all levels as well as a Data Management Strategy. These instruments must serve to address fundamental M&E systemic challenges, including standardization of M&E practices and increasing service delivery responsiveness to time-sensitive information. The country also needs to invest in modern electronic data collection and monitoring systems. The systems must also be automated so that they widen opportunities for accessibility to data and reduce long and repetitive manual data collection processes. Any data available in hard copy should be digitized and uploaded into the NSS. Such activity might reduce the data gap further.

Statistics Botswana has initiated work aimed at expanding the SDGs statistical monitoring capacity of the country. The work will assess data availability and gaps for the “46 easily available” category of indicators as a first step and thereafter solicit measures to build capacity and skills for collection of missing data using appropriate tools. The MFED Guidance Note to support its SDG coordination role identifies actions necessary for improving monitoring, data collection, analysis and reporting as follows:[[18]](#footnote-18)

* Production of Statistical SDG Annual Reports tracking indicator movements in the SDGs;
* Developing and implementing a statistical capacity development plan to support MDAs in the collection, compilation and production of data required in order to improve SDG monitoring capacity in the country; and
* Facilitation of the active participation of the SDGs National Secretariat in the Thematic Working Groups and their sub-committees to ensure alignment of the 2030 Agenda with the national development agenda.

## 4.4 SDG Financing Landscape

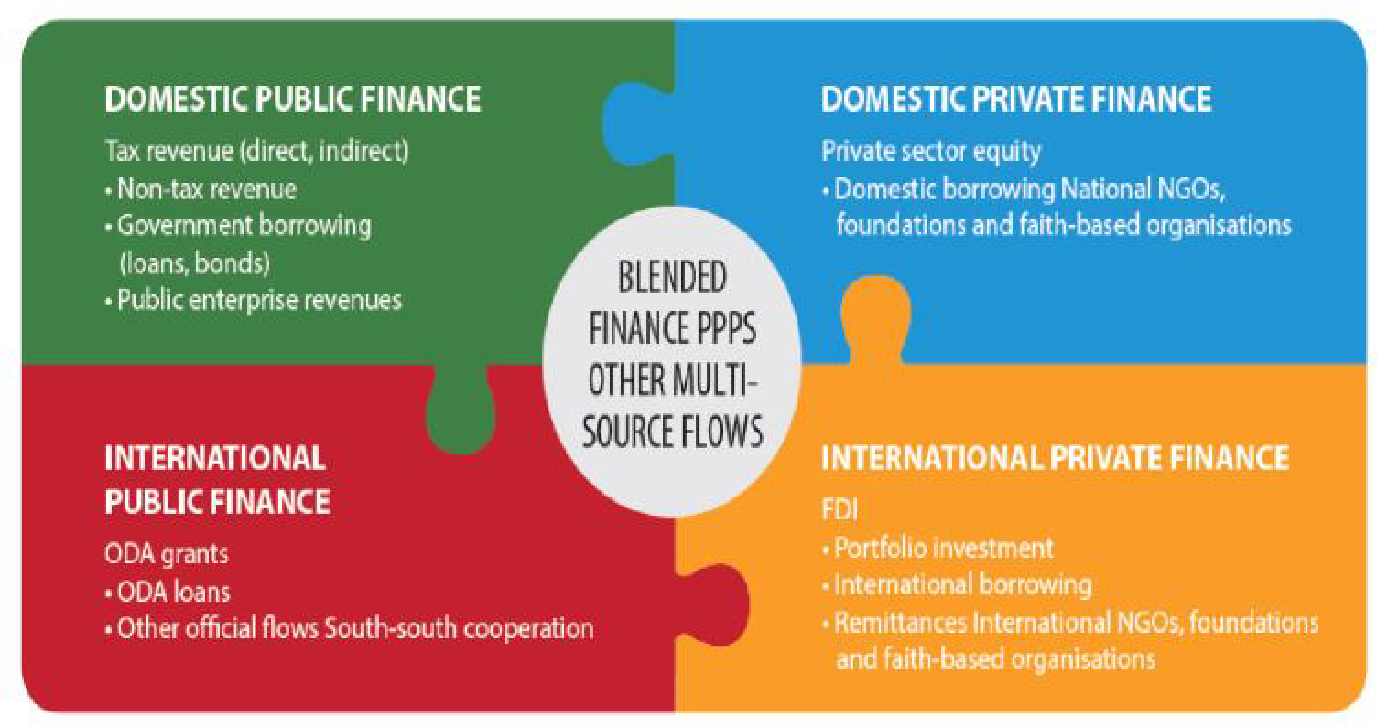
The decision by the country to align the SDGs with the NDP 11 was a critical precursor for the allocation of public financial resources and borrowed funds (budgeting) to support SDG implementation. This allowed the government to integrate SDGs, not only in the planning process, but also into all cycles of budgeting processes. The allocation of financial resources to SDGs programmes and projects is based on the assumption that all the SDG-related activities are mainstreamed into national and associated district and urban development plans. The Government of Botswana utilizes financial resources raised from tax revenues, government borrowings and grants from development partners to fund implementation of plans.

The Development and Budget Division within the MFED coordinates both budgetary processes and the implementation of development projects and programmes.[[19]](#footnote-19) The annual budget speeches are presented to Parliament for budget debate before approval. The budget speeches act as progress reports towards the attainment of the goals and objectives contained in the plans. The budgeting process embraces the principle of accountability and transparency. However, an analysis of results of the Open Budget Survey indicates that the country provides the public with limited budget information and there are few opportunities for the public to engage in the budget process.[[20]](#footnote-20) This has been attributed to the failure by the country to publish the Executive’s Budget Proposal and Year-End Report online in a timely manner. Furthermore, MFED does not make the In-Year Reports and Mid-Year Review available to the public. The limited participation of the public in budgeting does not yield the positive outcomes associated with greater budget transparency in ensuring that SDG-related activities are adequately mainstreamed into medium-term plans and adequately budgeted for.

Botswana does not have an independent fiscal institution (IFI) which in turn compromises accountability. The oversight role could be strengthened through institutionalization of a Parliamentary Select Committee (PSC) on SDGs. The PSC has the power to call on government officials to provide information on the impact of government policies and programmes. The Committee can also call public hearings to garner citizens’ views on SDG implementation and utilize its oversight mechanisms in assessing progress in implementation of SDGs. This will generate important information that could be used as fodder for government planning and delivery mechanisms through the national SDG coordinating structures.

The Financing for Development Agenda is critically important for effective and accountable financing for sustainable development through the SDGs and beyond. The AAAA speaks to the need to create an equitable global economic system that leaves no country and person behind and recognizes that women, constituting half the world’s population, are still left out of participation and leadership in the economy. It further recognizes that achieving GEWE and the realization of women's human rights are essential for inclusive and equitable economic growth and sustainable development and therefore the importance prioritizing investment in this area.

Botswana has not taken advantage of the new global framework for financing sustainable development which was adopted in 2015, despite the fact that Botswana signed up to the Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA). The AAAA builds on the commitments and progress made in the implementation of the Monterrey Consensus and the Doha Declaration. The AAAA outcome document affirms the UN Member States’ strong political commitment in addressing the challenge of financing and in creating an enabling environment at all levels for sustainable development in the spirit of global partnership and solidarity.



The outcome document of the conference, Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA), assumes that countries will use their own national development strategies and plans to respond to the implementation and realization of the SDGs. The AAAA calls for the adoption of Integrated National Financing Frameworks (INFFs). In this regard, Governments are now increasingly requesting for support to take forward policy and institutional reforms to enable more integrated management of a broader set of financing for development flows to support the implementation of their national priorities and the SDGs. The path to achieving the above has got even more challenging with the advent of the global coronavirus in December 2019 (COVID-19), which has literally had adverse impacts on the humanitarian, health, women’s rights, and development landscapes of almost all countries around the world. As stated in the Economic Recovery Transformation Plan (ERTP), Botswana will now need approximately P40 billion to support the economy out of impact of the COVID-19 and build back better.

**4.5 Recommendations for Acceleration in the Decade of Action**

Strategic interventions are required in all areas to accelerate implementation and enhance achievement of the SDGs. These are identified below:

**Planning and Budgeting**

*Government needs to intensify efforts towards a structured approach in the implementation of the SDGs to ensure that all relevant and prioritized SDGs targets and indicators are fully integrated in planning and financing instruments and that progress made is measurable:*

* Expedite efforts to roll out the SDGs Planning Guidelines so as to fully integrate prioritized targets and indicators in national/sector plans and financing instruments.
* Promote public engagements in budgetary processes for greater budget transparency and to ensure that priority SDG related actions, including on gender equality and women’s empowerment, are adequately mainstreamed in plans and budgeted for.
* Enhance oversight role of the Parliamentary Select Committee on SDGs to ensure that that the planning and budgeting process incorporates SDG principles while addressing national priorities to boost the attainment of the SDGs.

**Monitoring, Data Collection, Analysis and Review**

*Government must strengthen efforts towards data development and management to support implementation of its development agenda, including the SDGs. Quality, timely and reliable data that is disaggregated is critical to support a transformation process that seeks to ensure prosperity for all and leave no one behind.*

* Improve the country’s SDGs statistical monitoring capacity currently measured at 34.8%. Roll out the Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) Policy Framework and Manual in order to address fundamental systemic M&E issues, including standardization of M&E practices and timeous delivery of time sensitive data.
* DIF needs to be updated on a continuous basis to take into account ever changing circumstances pertaining to the SDGs globally and developments in the local front. Consideration to fully align prioritized indicators in the SDGs and National Performance monitoring systems ought to be made to avoid parallel systems, thereby ensuring equity and efficiency in resource allocation and use.
* Data collection tools and monitoring systems ought to be modernized and automated to widen opportunities for data accessibility and to reduce long and repetitive manual data collection processes.
* The Ministries of Health and Wellness and Investment Trade and Industry should remain focused on all outstanding MDG related SDGs to fulfil the SDGs Roadmap ambition of attaining all MDGs related indicators where the country’s performance was below target by 2022.

**Partnerships**

*Building public awareness and engaging all key stakeholders is a critical step towards a participatory process that ultimately leads to maximum ownership and sustainability of development results. The National SDGs Secretariat must enhance efforts towards implementation of the SDGs Communication Strategy.*

* Effectively roll out the SDGs Communication Strategy to leverage the knowledge building process and to set priorities for action.
* SDG awareness campaigns must continue to take place among key stakeholders and with all district and urban councils. Information, Education and Communication materials must be developed in local languages as a critical step towards a participatory process.
* Media should remain a key partner in SDG advocacy, sensitization and awareness creation. The National SDGs Secretariat, ministries and departments must work with academia and other training institutions to develop tailor made training programmes on SDGs for the media. This will also facilitate development-oriented reporting.
* Government must forge strategic partnerships with think tanks, civil society organizations, academia and research institutions to produce knowledge products to planning, policy and decision making and enhance implementation of the SDGs.
* Promote the role of think tanks, academia and research institutions to effectively provide the required knowledge and solutions to SDGs implementation;

**Implementation and Coordination**

*National ownership of the SDG agenda is important. Its alignment with existing priorities and processes will ensure successful implementation. Overall, the institutional mechanism for implementation of the country’s development agenda must be rationalized for effective coordination and utilization of resources, avoidance of multiplicity of structures and to ensure equity and efficiency in the delivery of the country’s development agenda, including SDGs.*

* Government policy implementation must at all times be guided by the principle of gender equality and ***“leave no one behind”*** which are at the center of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.
* Structures for implementation and monitoring of the NDPs, SDGs and Vision 2036 must be rationalized for effective coordination and collaboration.
* Domestication and localization of the SDGs at the subnational level must be expedited to afford the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development to track performance and assess the contribution of local government in the attainment of the SDGs.

**Financing for SDGs**

*Successful implementation of the SDGs will require sustained efforts towards resource mobilization and developing an appropriate financing architecture for the country. The effects of COVID 19 have put a further strain on the country’s financial resources. Further, the last few years have been characterized by declining public revenues, budget deficits and overall decline in foreign reserves.*

* Take advantage of the Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA) to address challenges of financing and to create an enabling environment for implementation of the SDGs at all levels.
* Leverage private sector financing to support implementation of the SDGs through various initiatives such as public private partnerships.

**5. PEOPLE AND DEVELOPMENT**

**5.1 PREAMBLE**

Relative to most countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, Botswana is at an advanced stage of a demographic transition that has been facilitated by strategic investments across a range of population dimensions. However, the country has made uneven progress towards ending poverty and hunger, and ensuring its citizens and residents fulfil their potential in dignity and equality, in a healthy environment and with access to quality education.

The Total Fertility Rate (TFR) has declined to 3 births per woman (2017) largely due to the implementation of a high-quality family planning programme, an increase in the age at first birth (mean age of mother at birth estimated at 27.7 years in 2018), increased women’s participation in the labour market and improved child survival (23 deaths per 1000 in 2011 compared to 52 deaths per 1000 in 2001). However, despite the substantial decline in TFR, the current fertility rate suggests the economy continues to bear a sizable child dependency burden that may limit the availability of resources for savings and future investments. The burden is attributed to the high number of births per 1,000 girls aged 15–19 years (39 births/1000 in 2019), indicative of a substantive gap in access to information and services among adolescent girls and young people that hinders their ability to exercise their reproductive rights.

Life expectancy at birth for men and women respectively is expected to increase from its 2011 levels of 62.6 and 64.6 years to the projected 65.4 and 68.2 years in 2021. The declines in both fertility and mortality in Botswana have resulted in its age-structure shifting from one with more child dependents to one with significantly more people in the economically productive ages where two-thirds of the population are between the ages of 15-64 years (Figure 5). This puts Botswana within a temporary window period to harness the first demographic dividend before the age structure further shifts and becomes dominated by old age dependency.

Figure 5

*Age Distribution of Botswana Population, 1960 and 2015*

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| --- | --- |
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However, while two-thirds of Botswana’s population is within the working age group, only about 60% of these persons are considered economically active. Women are more often than men out of the labour force: overall 44.8% of women are inactive against 34.9% of men. One indicator of the underutilization of female labour to the economy is the unemployment rate. In this case, there is a larger gender gap: 21.4% of women (15 yrs+), and 14.6% of men, are unemployed, a gender gap of 6 percentage points.[[21]](#footnote-21) The time spent by women on unpaid care work is usually a root cause of women’s underutilization. This impacts their availability to enter the labour force or remain there, their access to contributory social protection and retirement entitlements, the balance between dependents and economically active persons, and potential demographic dividend gains.

Young people are the most affected by unemployment. Youth unemployment for quarter one of 2020 was estimated at 31.3 percent with higher rates among female youth (32.2 percent), in urban villages (52.9 percent) and among the youth population qualified at the secondary education level (69.8 percent).[[22]](#footnote-22) This situation has implications for the real-life economic dependency in Botswana which is substantially different from the theoretical dependency ages of 0-15 years and 65+ years, with young people remaining dependent up to the age of 32 years. This brings a sharp focus on the urgency for the implementation of strategic policy actions to harness and maximize the demographic dividend.

Botswana has undergone rapid urbanization since independence. In 2011, almost two thirds (64%) of the population lived in urban areas and were projected to reach 80% by 2026. Combined with the population bulge in the economically active age groups, as well as the potential of women not currently in the labour market as labour supply, and the generation of mass quality jobs for young people, this can be a valuable engine for socio-economic transformation and development. However, higher multidimensional poverty in rural areas, the COVID-19 pandemic, gender-based violence, amongst other drivers of poverty and inequality have emerged to challenge the realization of this potential and call for a revised prioritization of current population issues.

The People and Development chapter addresses what is known about inequality, discrimination and vulnerability in Botswana with the aim to simultaneously (1) identify key population groups at risk of exclusion and (2) describe the current situation of these groups with an assessment of their underlying causes, conditions and challenges, in order to form the basis for the development of a theory of change for these groups. The chapter therefore emphasizes the evidence that might be most compelling in making the case for change.

The chapter is organized around the critical drivers of inequality within the Botswana context that have the capacity of leaving key groups behind and vulnerable. These drivers of inequality arise as challenges to people’s right to the dimensions of a good quality of life – Health; Physical and Legal Security; Education and Learning; Financial Security and Social Protection; Secure Human Settlements; and Participation, Influence and Voice. A systematic approach is adopted to analyzing these aspects of multidimensional inequality within Botswana, utilizing the Leaving No One Behind (LNOB) framework, the Multidimensional Poverty Index, and an adaptation of the Multidimensional Inequality Framework (MIF).[[23]](#footnote-23) Findings reveal that children, adolescent girls and young women, women, youth, the rural poor, the elderly, indigenous people, people with disabilities, the LGBTI community, migrants and refugees, and accused and detained persons, are among the groups being left behind, due to various cross-cutting factors.

**5.2 HEALTH**

Children, adolescent girls and young women, women, LGBTI, the elderly, people with disabilities and migrants and refugees are among those who face health inequalities in Botswana arising from a range of institutional, social, cultural, environmental and economic risk factors.

**Driver of Inequality: Unequal Access to Quality and Timely Healthcare**

**Children**

* Groups of children in Botswana continue to experience discriminatory attitudes and disparities in accessing basic health services. They include children living in remote areas, children of foreign nationality, children with disabilities, children in street situations, children born to unmarried parents, orphans and children in foster care, and children affected by HIV/AIDS.
* Child mortality - While there has been a steady decline in infant mortality rates over the years, neonatal, infant and under-5 mortality rates remain high at 39, 38, and 56 per 1000 children respectively. Neonatal mortality account for about 70% of child deaths in the first year.[[24]](#footnote-24) Over half of under-5 children die before their fifth birthday due to sepsis, severe malnutrition, diarrhoea and pneumonia.[[25]](#footnote-25)
* Child malnutrition - Malnutrition among children is an issue of concern with the stunting rate estimated at 31.7% for children under-five, the proportion overweight at 7.8% and birth weight remaining low (12.5% in 2015). Children in Kgalagadi (North & South), Mabutsane, Gantsi, Okavango, Boteti, Bobirwa and hard-to-reach districts and geographically isolated areas (e.g., farms) have the highest rates of malnutrition. Malnutrition is also observed among children in refugee camps and children of illegal immigrants.[[26]](#footnote-26)
* Immunizations – While national immunization coverage is high, DTP3 and MR1 averages trend below the regional target of 90% in most district and dropout rates are high. Coverage is low in hard-to-reach districts where essentials vaccines take longer to reach, e.g. Gantsi, Okavango and Kgalagadi North and geographically isolated areas such as farms. There are some communities where the rate of fully immunized children by age 1 year is only at 53%. Children in refugee camps and children of illegal immigrants are at a particularly high risk of missing routine immunizations.[[27]](#footnote-27)
* HIV/AIDS - Children face unequal access to treatment and care services. Among the estimated 11,132 children aged 0-14 living with HIV in 2019, only 37% are receiving antiretroviral treatment compared to 84% of adults, 15 years and above.[[28]](#footnote-28) (Note - due to government’s concerns about the validity of these estimates, UNAIDS was directed not to publish these estimates in 2019 pending further investigation).
* Inequality arises from stock-outs of vaccines and other commodities; stigma and discrimination; inadequate parental support to children living with HIV; limited access to transport to facilities; lack of information on available services; poor referrals and linkages to services; inadequate neonatal care facilities; low breastfeeding rates and poor infant and young child feeding practices; unintended teenage pregnancies; increased household food insecurity, among other factors.[[29]](#footnote-29) Cost and lack of identity documents limit access to health care and antiretroviral treatment for children living in remote areas and nomadic communities, refugee and asylum-seeking children, abandoned children, children living in alternative care institutions and indigenous Basarwa/San children who are not born in hospitals.[[30]](#footnote-30)

**Driver of Inequality**: **Harmful Social and Cultural Norms Which Result in Certain Groups Being at Greater Health Risk**

**Adolescent Girls and Young Women**

* Negative indicators of sexual reproductive health (SRH) and HIV are persistent among this cohort. The sexual experiences of several adolescents start early; 33% of adolescents in school had their first sexual encounter before age 13, and 22% had a forced first sexual experience, particularly girls below 15 years.[[31]](#footnote-31)
* HIV/AIDS - 15,756 adolescents (10-19) and 30,533 young people (15-24) are living with HIV with high incidence indicated in the Northern and Eastern parts of the country.[[32]](#footnote-32) Young women have an HIV prevalence twice that of young men (9 % vs 5.5 %). New HIV infections among AGYW (15-24 years) remain high accounting for 24% of the estimated 9,500 new infections in 2019.[[33]](#footnote-33) Treatment coverage lags behind that of adults – 66% of young people living with HIV (15-24 years) are on treatment compared to 84% of adults 15 years and above.[[34]](#footnote-34)
* Inequality arises from structural, social and cultural factors such as age-disparate relationships (25% of AGYW are engaged in age disparate relationships); forced sex; sexual violence (9.3% adolescent girls under 18 years have experienced sexual violence compared to 5.5% of boys); limited access to information on HIV prevention (47.4% among females compared to 47.1% among males);[[35]](#footnote-35) lack of access to contraceptives; inconsistent condom use (50% among young females compared to 29% among males); early and unintended pregnancy (EUP) rates (high at 39 births/1000 in 2019); and the adverse influence of patriarchy, misogyny, dikgosi, and customary law which enables young girls to marry without parental permission. The April-May 2020 national COVID-19 lockdown further heightened vulnerabilities to SRH issues by restricting access to contraceptives, including condoms. Furthermore, programmatic interventions for AGYW that have shown to be ineffective continue to be implemented (i.e. stand-alone youth centres for provision of SRH services and peer education) while those proven to be effective are delivered ineffectively (i.e. Comprehensive Sexuality Education), with inadequate dosage (low intensity and short duration) resulting in limited or transient results.

**Women**

* HIV/AIDS - The number of women living with HIV remains higher than men, with the HIV prevalence rate being highest amongst rural women. Health inequality arises from pervasive gender inequality, patriarchy and discrimination which undermine progress in the HIV response. Women living with HIV/AIDS are vulnerable with regards to economic opportunities and access to health care justice. They face challenges in terms of marriages and relationships as they are often accused to be the ones bringing HIV into the relationships; they carry the burden of care for those affected by HIV/AIDS; and encounter difficulties accessing sexual and reproductive health services including post-partum care.
* Maternal Mortality – Evidence is presented in Box 4.2.1 in Chapter 4: Progress Towards the 2030 Agenda and SDGs.

**Female Sex Workers (FSW)**

* There were an estimated 6718 female sex workers across 12 study health districts in 2017, comprising 1.61% of total female population in those districts.[[36]](#footnote-36) Greater Gaborone and Greater Francistown had the highest number of FSW (estimated as 1641 and 687 respectively). Bars were the hotspot type with the highest numbers of FSW. The most common occupation of clients was reported as government workers (18%). Truck drivers were the most common client (34%) for FSWs in Chobe, while mine workers were the major client group in Palapye (34.5%).[[37]](#footnote-37)
* Female sex workers are at higher risk of HIV infection due to their profession and unprotected sex practices. At least 42% are living with HIV, while 88% are receiving antiretroviral therapy. In the 2017 Behavioural and Biological Surveillance Survey (BBSS), FSW surveyed in Gaborone, Francistown, Palapye, Maun and Chobe, had HIV prevalence rates ranging from 28.3% in Maun, 57.6% in Gaborone to 71.8% in Chobe.[[38]](#footnote-38)
* Inequality arises from the fact that aspects of sex work are criminalised in Botswana which results in the marginalization of sex workers and increases their vulnerability to victimisation, including sexual and other violence, harassment, blackmail and discrimination with impunity.[[39]](#footnote-39) Harassment by law enforcers including threats of arrest in exchange for sex, the confiscation of condoms and the use of condoms as ‘evidence’ in criminal cases against sex workers, deter sex workers from carrying condoms and leave them vulnerable to HIV and sexually transmitted infections (STIs).[[40]](#footnote-40)

**Men who have Sex with Men (MSM)**

* In 2017, the number of Men who have Sex with Men (MSM) was estimated at 2625 in 10 study districts leading to an adjusted national size estimate of 4169. The highest number of MSM were found in Francistown (>40%), Gaborone (24.5%) and Selebi Phikwe (10%).[[41]](#footnote-41)
* MSM have a high risk of HIV infection due to transmission through anal sex, especially for the receptive partner. In the 2017 BBSS, condom use at last sex was reported by 77% on average, with less than two-thirds reporting they always used condoms (61%). About 20% reported engaging in sex work, 42% were in concurrent relationships, and 40% had (mostly casual) female partners in the six months prior to the survey, thus intersecting with the female population at large.[[42]](#footnote-42)

**Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex (LGBTI) Community**

* No data is available on the size of the community and HIV and TB prevalence rates. LBT women experience limited access to health care services, including sexual and reproductive health services.[[43]](#footnote-43)
* In 2014, at least 75% of HIV programmes and services for transgender persons were provided by civil society organizations (CSOs).[[44]](#footnote-44) Transgender persons are unable to access identity documents that reflect their gender identity. There are documented cases in which identity document barriers have resulted in delays in accessing health care, and where access was impeded when health workers call the police since transgender persons present identity documents that do not reflect their gender identity.[[45]](#footnote-45)

**The Elderly**

* The demographic transition to an ageing population, accompanied by an epidemiological transition from the predominance of infectious diseases to noncommunicable diseases, is associated with an increasing demand for health care and long-term care. Mental health problems (e.g., depression, dementia and anxiety disorders) are increasing with ageing.
* Older persons are frequently, and mistakenly, seen as a sexually inactive group and consequently not at risk of HIV. They are at increased risk of HIV infection because they are not included in public information campaigns and diagnosis can be difficult as the symptoms of HIV/AIDS are similar to those of other immunodeficiency symptoms that can occur in later life. Health-care providers often fail to inquire about their sexual activity as younger health-care providers are inhibited to discuss such issues with older people.

**People with Disabilities**

* The 2017 Botswana Demographic Survey (BDS) indicates that 90,945 individuals (or 4.2% of the population) self-report as having a disability. Females have a higher prevalence rate of disability at 4.7% compared to males at 3.7%. Proceeding of the 30th November 2020 UNFPA, WAR and RCO Dialogue with traditional leaders in Maun indicated that in the small communities of Maun, multiple forms of physical handicap and mental illness result from incest and the sexual assault and rape of women and girls within the family context.
* The 2018 ALIGHT Botswana study revealed that PWDs (including youth and women) are 50% more likely to experience violence, including gender-based violence (GBV), exposing them to HIV and STIs. A 2016 report documenting challenges and human rights issues facing PWDs indicated that PWDs in Botswana are not always treated as autonomous persons, including by not having their health-related decisions recognized by healthcare workers.[[46]](#footnote-46) People with disabilities reported that they have been treated with indignity in health facilities and discrimination when accessing sexual and reproductive healthcare; some individuals who sought sexual and reproductive health services were presumed to have been sexually assaulted instead of consensual sexual partners. People with disabilities also reported instances of breaches of confidentiality and failures of healthcare workers to provide reasonable accommodation, including provision of interpreters for hearing impaired individuals.[[47]](#footnote-47)
* There is limited data on health issues among people with disabilities. Existing national surveys do not cater for PWDs. Furthermore, there is an absence of legislation targeting PWDs; the revised Policy on Disability and Disability Framework remain outstanding.[[48]](#footnote-48)

**Migrants and Refugees**

* Most international migrants in Botswana originate from India, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe, and the United Kingdom, with 80% falling within the 15-49 age group, i.e. the most sexually active and economically productive age group. Botswana’s 170,000 non-citizens in residence constitute 7 percent of the country’s total population; of these, an estimated 30,000 are living with HIV with approximately 27% receiving ART.[[49]](#footnote-49)
* Migrants are being left behind through limited access to free, publicly financed antiretroviral therapy This is despite the 2016 “Treat All” policy and the government’s National HIV and AIDS Strategic Framework 2018–2023 (NSF III) which recognizes non-citizens as a priority population requiring programmatic attention.[[50]](#footnote-50) While within the non-citizen population, prisoners and refugees have access to ART, other migrants have to purchase ARVs from private facilities at a high cost. Non-citizen population who cannot afford ART treatment on their own include low-wage workers, such as maids, cleaners, and hair braiders, and other day laborers; and unmarried partners of citizens, including the unmarried mothers of children fathered by citizens.[[51]](#footnote-51)
* Non-citizens (including their children) were excluded from government COVID-19 food assistance during the April-May 2020 national lockdown. Asylum seekers are held in prisons and prison-like conditions, including at the Francistown Centre for Illegal Immigrants. Poor conditions include lack of adequate healthcare.[[52]](#footnote-52) The refugee population tends to face exclusion from tertiary healthcare assistance that require referral to private health facilities. In the past year, UNHCR reported the death of an individual who succumbed to an illness, following his inability to access tertiary healthcare.
* Policies and practices that restrict access to essential healthcare services for migrants and refugees can reduce their access to information on on HIV prevention; lead to them avoiding testing services and treatment for HIV for fear of arrest and deportation; fewer knowing their HIV status; increased HIV prevalence through the practice of Multiple Concurrent Partnerships (MCP), and reduced access to prevention of Mother-to-Child Transmission (PMTCT).

**Future Health Reporting: Key Populations**

Evidence related to access and inclusion to healthcare and HIV incidence is largely unknown for the following groups:

* People with Substance (e.g., alcohol and drugs) Addiction
* People with Mental Health Problems
* People living with Albinism
* Accused and Detained People
* Street Children
* Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC)

**5.3 PHYSICAL AND LEGAL SECURITY**

Inequalities in physical and legal security are driven mainly by differences in exposure to different forms of violence, inadequate protection, inequalities in access to justice and lack of recognition, or inadequate enforcement, of human rights. For the period April 1 to June 30, 2020, after national lockdown, the Botswana Police Service recorded a total of 531 cases of domestic violence, encompassing murder, threat to kill, rape and defilement.[[53]](#footnote-53)

**Driver of Inequality**: **Harmful Social and Cultural Norms Which Result in Women and Children Being at Greater Risk of Violence And**

**Sexual Exploitation**

**Violence against Children**

* Incidence of Violence (2020) - Sexual abuse: Girls 25%, Boys 4%; Physical abuse: Girls 28%, Boys 43%.[[54]](#footnote-54) The Botswana Police Service indicates that between 30 March and 5 April 2020, a few days into the national COVID-19 lockdown, 23 cases of defilement were reported and out of 22 rape cases, 7 of them were of children aged between 2 and 13.[[55]](#footnote-55) Furthermore, during January to May 2020, a total of 132 children were sexually abused.
* Childline Botswana notes that child sexual exploitation is ‘rampant’, particularly in northern regions, and it was the second most commonly addressed issue (after neglect) for the 611 total calls to the Crisis Line in 2015.[[56]](#footnote-56) Proceeding of the 30th November 2020 UNFPA, WAR and RCO Dialogue with traditional leaders in Maun identified perpetrators of sexual abuse of children as close relatives, such as fathers and step-fathers. Eight out of 10 children who are sexually abused know their abuser as they tend to be family members or friends, neighbors or babysitters and many hold responsible positions in society.[[57]](#footnote-57)
* Child abuse is under-reported. Less than 10% of victims of child violence seek and receive help and social workers.[[58]](#footnote-58) Reporting of perpetrators in sexual exploitation and abuse cases remains low due to distrust in the authorities, stigma, shame and reluctance of families and the general public to report such abuse. Children are discouraged from reporting by parents. The social norms among community members, police and magistrates is that families will manage their own problems.[[59]](#footnote-59) Access to justice is also limited. There is a lack of awareness around rights and accessing justice; police lack the capacity to report and respond appropriately and timely to cases of violence; and perpetrators tend to be disciplined and protected within the family. There is insufficient child-friendly legislation and guidelines in the justice system, no courts designated specifically to dealing with children’s cases, the majority of personnel in the justice system are not trained to handle children’s cases; and lawyers are not permitted at customary courts when matters affecting children are heard.[[60]](#footnote-60)

**Violence against Adolescent Girls and Young Women**

* AGYW experience forced sex (22% of sexually experienced adolescents had a forced first sexual experience) and sexual violence (9.3% adolescent girls under 18 years’ experience sexual violence compared to 5.5% of boys).[[61]](#footnote-61) There are reports of sexual abuse and harassment of girls perpetrated by teachers and of violence faced by girls on their way to and from school.
* Inequality arises from structural, social and cultural factors such as age-disparate relationships, and the adverse influence of patriarchy, gender-related stereotypes, misogyny, customary law and dikgosi.

**Violence against Women**

* Gender-based violence against women is pervasive across the country with 67.3% of women reporting sexual, physical, emotional, and/or economic violence by a partner or non-partner.[[62]](#footnote-62) Most GBV cases are committed by an intimate partner - 29% experienced intimate partner violence in the last twelve months (of the 67.3% of women who have experienced GBV).[[63]](#footnote-63) Violence is also high among women and girls with disabilities.
* The World Population Review (2020) ranks Botswana as the country with the second highest number of rape cases in the world at 92.9 per hundred thousand people. The 2013 BAIS IV Study indicated that 24.8% of females aged 15-49 who had an early sexual debut (before the age of 15) had not given consent at the time of intercourse.[[64]](#footnote-64) The Botswana Police Service recorded over 2780 cases of rape in 2020.[[65]](#footnote-65)
* Domestic violence increased during the April-May 2020 COVID-19 national lockdown. Botswana Gender Based Violence Prevention and Support Centre (BGBVC) and Women Against Rape (WAR) provided GBV consultations to 272 clients in April 2020; 155 came directly to the organization to seek safe shelter, 67 were provided with counselling through hotline services and 50 were assisted through the short message service line.[[66]](#footnote-66) Existing shelters reported an exponential increase in the demand for shelter. However, there is an inadequate number of shelters for GBV victims and inadequate medical and psychological rehabilitation services for them.
* Botswana’s high GBV prevalence is attributed to deep-rooted patriarchal attitudes and gender stereotypes regarding the role and responsibilities of men and women in society. The Botswana National Relationship Study (2018) found regarding rape, 45% of men believe that in any rape case, there is need to ask if the victim was not promiscuous; 34% of men affirmed that in some rape cases women want it to happen; and 41% of men believe that if a woman does not fight back, it is not rape.
* Reporting of GBV is low as less than 3% of women report cases to the police. Cases go unreported because of fear of retribution and victimization of survivors by perpetrators and the community, and the low numbers of investigations, prosecutions and convictions of perpetrators. A high proportion of victims withdraw their complaints due to economic dependence on perpetrators, pressure from family and the length of time for cases to appear before the courts. Legal protection of married women against GBV is hampered because marital rape is not recognized by law as a criminal offence. However, as of 1st December 2020, GBV specialized courts where GBV cases are filed as urgent applications, began operation in 25 magistrate courts across Molepolole, Gaborone, Francistown, Maun, Palapye and Selebi Phikwe.

**Driver of Inequality**: **Harmful Social and Cultural Norms Which Result in Certain Groups Having Less Access to Legal Rights and Security**

**Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Intersex (LGBTI) community**

* According to the 2019 Botswana CEDAW shadow report submitted by Black Queer Docx in consultation and partnership with the Lesbians, Gays and Bisexuals of Botswana (LEGABIBO),[[67]](#footnote-67) despite the fact that Botswana has express non-discrimination provisions in some of its national instruments such as the Constitution and the Employment Act of 2010, no specific legislation currently exists on non-discrimination, or one that foregrounds LBT women as a group deserving special protection against discriminatory conduct and practices. As a result. issues faced by LBT women by virtue of their femininity, sexual orientation and gender identity receive inadequate attention.
* LBT women face multiple and intersecting struggles which have a direct bearing on their socio-economic status and their ability to approach the courts. The dependence on the courts for recognition and equal treatment is ultimately untenable. Harmful stereotypical considerations manifest in the education system, in the area of employment, access to health care services, including sexual and reproductive health services, political participation and violence.

**Migrants and Refugees**

* Irregular migrants are often subjected to the worst forms of exploitation and abuse. Many are often engaged as cheap labour carrying out demanding, labour intensive and on many occasions, risky assignments for little to no pay. Out of fear of law enforcement and risk of deportation, irregular migrants often choose not to report violence or abuse inflicted upon them. An irregular migration status is not a criminal offence in Botswana but rather a violation of the Immigration Act and its provisions.

**Driver of Inequality**: **Unequal Access to Affordable and High-Quality Legal Assistance and Representation**

**Accused and Detained Persons**

* Although the Constitution of Botswana contains limited rights to a fair trial, there is no publicly funded legal aid or assistance available for criminal matters. Accused persons who do not have private legal representation are not likely to benefit from fair trials. While pro deo support is available to accused facing trial for capital offences, such support may be limited when junior or inexperienced counsel are appointed.
* Accused persons who are declared ‘not fit to plead’ at trial (e.g., due to lack of mental capacity or illness) may be detained indefinitely in mental health facilities and prison settings despite the lack of a trial and guilty verdict. The length of pre-trial detention violates fair trial rights with detainees often serving longer than any likely sentence while awaiting trial or appeal. The Minister of Defence, Justice and Security appointed a committee to visit prisons on a quarterly basis and allows authorities to visit with prisoners. However, these visits have been restricted due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

**Driver of Inequality: Lack of Implementation of International Human Rights Standards**

**Asylum Seekers and Refugees**

* Botswana is host to a population of just over 1,000 persons that include asylum seekers, and refugees. Asylum seekers are categorized into two; those awaiting refugee status determination by the Government of Botswana, and those rejected by the Government and awaiting refugee status determination by UNHCR under its mandate processes.
* The Refugee (Recognition and Control) Act of 1966 imposes an encampment policy that limits the right to free movement for persons of concern resident in the country. The two UNHCR populations of concern are those restricted and confined within the Dukwi Refugee camp, situated in the North-Eastern part of Botswana, and a small caseload resident in urban areas to enable access to higher education, healthcare, and livelihood needs with the permission of the regulating Ministry.
* Due to the outdated nature of the Refugee Law of Botswana and encampment policy, refugees are faced with challenges that prohibit their optimal exercise of basic human rights and exclude them from access to certain rights. They face deprivation and inequality as a result of the inability to freely move around beyond the confines of the camp and the prohibition to engage in any form of employment. This has led to full reliance on UNHCR for their basics such as food and non-food items for persons who should ordinarily have been self-sustaining.
* Extended periods in the detention center awaiting status determination by the government and the further prohibitions faced by the refugee community in the camp, place the community at risk of engagement in illegal activities as means of sustenance and they often face detention for movement without the possession of exit permits. Women and girls resort to engaging in survival sex in the host community of Dukwi where there is a high rate of truckers en-route to the Kazungula border. They are at high risk of contracting diseases and facing gender-based violence, including from their partners who disapprove of their choice to engage in such activities to supplement their household needs. The seclusion asylum seekers and refugees face, gender-based violence within the community and households, and psychosocial issues amongst the community, to name a few problems, can also be attributed to discrimination by the local community.

**Future Physical and Legal Security Reporting: Key Populations**

Evidence is unavailable related to:

* Children and AGYW regarding their experiences with physical and psychological violence expressed through bullying, intimidation and repression in schools.
* Men and boys regarding the incidence of GBV against them (the 2018 Botswana National Relationship Study indicated that 21% of men reported experiencing some form of violence at least once, and 18% of partnered men experienced some form of intimate partner violence), and precursors of gender-based violence (e.g., loss of power, privilege and control in social relations, and the resulting psychosocial trauma).

**5.4 EDUCATION AND LEARNING**

Inequalities in education and learning may results from family income and education backgrounds, key structural and institutional factors within education and learning systems, and the country’s social and cultural norms. The education of learners was disrupted by the April-May 2020 national lockdown during the COVID-19 pandemic - 595,707 learners were out of school due to school closures and learners lost 33 teaching days during the lockdown.[[68]](#footnote-68) Closures of non-formal opportunities deprived young people of social engagement with their peers and educators.

**Driver of Inequality**: **Unequal Access to Childhood Development Opportunities in The Early Years**

**Children**

* Only 30% of children aged 3 to 6 years have access to preschool education which remains driven by the private sector and therefore unaffordable for the less privileged. Children in the remote areas have limited opportunities and access to Early Childhood Education (ECE). Children in remote and marginalised communities are more susceptible to dropping out of schools or not even registering for school - 20,000 children are not in school. Children with disabilities in rural areas do not have access to opportunities and services because appropriate facilities are mostly located in urban centres.[[69]](#footnote-69)
* This unequal access directly affects children’s (especially poor children’s) equal learning and cognitive development opportunities, and through the burden of unpaid childcare, indirectly affects women’s ability to start a business, enter the labour force and access decent employment and professional training opportunities.
* While primary education is free and compulsory under the Children’s Act, primary education is not free for children of foreign nationality. Asylum-seeking and refugee children also do not have equal access to education.
* Unequal access is fostered by the lack of appropriate funding mechanisms for preschool education; insufficient infrastructure, equipment and qualified staff in ECE centres; limited awareness by policy makers of the learning gains and educational advantages of ECE; and the challenge of early learners being required to walk long distances daily to access schools.

**Driver of Inequality**: **Unequal Access to Educational Opportunities**

**Poor and Rural Youth**

* There is a lack of clarity as to the definition of a youth. The 2010 Revised National Youth Policy 2010 defines youth as those aged 15-35 years. However, young men/women are defined in terms of ages 20-24 years whenever the terminologies ‘adolescent girls/boys and young women/men are used.
* Rural, poor youth are at risk of exclusion. They tend to finish school earlier. Forty-nine (49) percent of the poor finish school between ages 15-18 as compared to 36% among the rich.[[70]](#footnote-70) Cost sharing along with transport costs may limit access to education for children in poor and rural families. Cost-sharing fees were introduced in 2006 and set at a level equivalent to 5% of the cost to government of providing secondary education, with a provision for exemption for children from destitute families, orphans, students in need of care and registered with the Social Welfare Services and students whose parents are terminally ill and incapable of caring for the student materially low-income households. Fees per child were set at P300 a year for Junior Secondary and P450 a year for Senior Secondary schools. Students from households whose total earnings are less than P550 per month receive partial exemption if they have more than one child in secondary school.[[71]](#footnote-71)

**Children of Refugees**

* Children in the Dukwi camp receive basic education but become idle following completion of their secondary studies as they are unable to access higher learning institutions as the Government does not provide funding or support. There has been an increase in failure rates at secondary education leaving examinations as youth lack motivation about their future. Parents are prohibited from engaging in any form of work and are consequently unable to provide funding for their further education. There have been instances where students have forfeited on scholarships offered outside Botswana due to the inability to access travel documentation.

**Driver of Inequality**: **Harmful Social and Cultural Norms Which Result in Girls and Women Having Less Access to Education and Learning**

**Adolescent Girls and Young Women**

* Female dropout exceeds that of their male counterparts across Forms 3-5, with the highest attrition occurring from around the time when the JC examination is written. Higher rates of female dropout are found in the Central, Southern, North West, Kweneng and South East Regions. Pregnancy tends to be the main reason for female youth dropout and also accounts for the higher level of grade repetition among female youth across Forms 3-5. In 2015, the highest number of repeating students recorded were in Central and North West Regions.[[72]](#footnote-72) In 2015, 815 females dropped out of school due to pregnancy. Adolescent girls from poor, rural communities and of double orphan status are most affected by early and unintended pregnancy (EUP). Fifty-eight (58) girls registered as pregnant when they returned to school after the April-May 2020 national lockdown.[[73]](#footnote-73)
* High levels of teenage pregnancies are a major bottleneck for improving human capital development and addressing gender inequalities in education and employment. It is not clear how many girls return to school following childbirth. The CEDAW Committee expressed concern over the fact that public school re-admission policy requires pregnant girls who drop out of school to wait six months before they can return, and expects pregnant girls to enter technical training instead of general education.[[74]](#footnote-74) Some AGYW are instead forced to enter the working world. Proceeding of the 30th November 2020 UNFPA, WAR and RCO Dialogue with traditional leaders in Maun highlighted that girls, especially those in rural poor areas, are often seen as a source of income for their families: “we raise our girls as they can give us something back”.

**Driver of Inequality**: **Lack of Adequate Resources for High Quality Education**

**Youth**

* The low quality of public education negatively impacts success outcomes for youth. Classroom shortages give rise to high student-classroom ratios. In-class COVID-19 social distancing requirements compound this situation. Student-classroom ratios ranged in 2014 from 34, 37 and 39 in Lobatse, Gaborone and Selebi Phikwe, respectively to 60 in Jwaneng and 66 in Central Boteti.[[75]](#footnote-75) These large class sizes due to a shortage of classrooms and the large number of elective subjects translate to each class being taught by several teachers.
* The low level of public educational quality is evidenced in the significant gap in student test scores between the rich and poor and relative to their international peers. Students from the richest 25 percent of households score on average 23% higher than their peers from the poorest 25 percent of households in reading and 15% higher in math.[[76]](#footnote-76)
* The mean score for both Mathematics and Science in Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) 2015 was below the scale centre point of 500. Girls scored relatively higher than boys in both Mathematics and Science.[[77]](#footnote-77)
* In the three rounds of the international assessment program carried out by Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ), the difference between the average score and the score for the poorest quarter of students was only 17 points in Swaziland, 19 points in Lesotho, and 39 points in Namibia, but was a high 68 points in Botswana, not far behind the 72 points in South Africa.[[78]](#footnote-78)
* Furthermore, in 2019, only 37.5% of JC candidates and 20.95% of BGCSE candidates in government schools obtained Grades C or better (credit grades).[[79]](#footnote-79) With less than 70 percent of students transitioning from junior to senior secondary education and less than 80 percent securing high grades at BGCSE, the evidence suggests that a portion of youth are leaving school without achieving the necessary learning outcomes and skills for the labour market.

**Future Education and Learning Reporting: Key Populations**

Evidence related to access and inclusion in education and learning should be obtained for:

* Students who can potentially enroll/ enrolled at Tertiary educational institutions, including technical colleges.
* Orphans and Vulnerable Children and Youth (OVCY).

**5.5 FINANCIAL SECURITY AND SOCIAL PROTECTION**

Inequalities in financial independence and security are mainly driven by dependence on subsistence agriculture amid land degradation, desertification, drought and climate change, and inequalities in the labour market, access to job and self-employment opportunities, and the social security system.

**Driver of Inequality**: **Unequal Access to Productive Resources and Markets**

**The Rural Poor, Small Holder Farmers and Land Degradation, Desertification, Drought and Climate Change**

* Botswana’s rural population comprise approximately 30% of the total population. Although infrastructure and services have improved, poverty remains high as the majority of rural households continue to depend on subsistence agriculture under harsh climatic conditions and low incomes from informal businesses. The percentage of people living in severe poverty is higher in rural areas at 7.4% vis-a-vis 1.3% in urban areas. The Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) is 0.142 in rural and 0.034 in urban areas, with Ghanzi and Kweneng West having the lowest MPI values at around 0.2.[[80]](#footnote-80)
* A significant proportion of people living in remote and sparsely populated areas are in 121 Remote Area Dweller Settlements (RADS), spread across eight districts and with a population of over 33,000 people.[[81]](#footnote-81) The majority of San communities relocated to the RAD, are located in remote dry areas of western regions. The RADS are isolated with only basic services (boreholes for potable water, health facilities and schools) provided and little or no prospects for economic progress, thus leaving the inhabitants with almost no source of sustainable livelihoods.
* Other affected populations live on the margins of the Wildlife Management Areas (WMA), participating in Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) programmes through Community-Based Organizations (CBOs). There are currently 174 CBNRM villages, of which 43% are RADS. Their livelihoods depend on extensive livestock production system with very low productivity levels, limited arable agriculture, wildlife resources and non-forest products. The average poverty rate in remote area communities is high at 27%, which is higher than average rates for all rural villages (24.3%) and the national average (19.3%).
* These people and communities have been left behind in economic development because of their isolated geographic location and the harsh climatic environments in which they live. Their vulnerability is increased by degradation of the natural resource base due to over-grazing in communal areas, over-harvesting of veld products, and low participation in decision-making processes due to their remoteness, and their relatively lower levels of education and limited access to information.[[82]](#footnote-82) Long, severe and frequent droughts result in serious livestock losses and serious crop failures for those attempting arable farming. Studies for Southern Africa indicate that because of climate change, “crop yields could in future fall by as much as a third or more in some areas”.[[83]](#footnote-83) The situation will further deepen poverty for the affected communities unless strong measures are taken to build and strengthen resilience and adaptation. -
* During 2019/2020 consumption year, the number of food insecure people in Botswana surpassed the five (5) year average by 10.6%, due to persistent drought and reduced cereal production.[[84]](#footnote-84) The impact of COVID-19 on food production and income generation from informal rural businesses and casual labour, has further exacerbated household food insecurity, especially in women-headed households. Government of Botswana did scale-up the safety net system at the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic crisis, providing nutritionally balanced food baskets to almost all households in the rural areas.

**Rural Women and Land Ownership**

* While, according to Botswana law women and men have equal right to land ownership, these women do not have equal access to and control over productive resources such as land, water, property and finance.[[85]](#footnote-85)
* Women are disadvantaged across the entire agriculture sector. 2019 data indicates that women own only 40% of land holdings, 36% of hand area (ha) and 37% of fields. Furthermore, women accounted for only 37% of fields planted. Men dominate in agriculture owning 85% of cattle, 71% of goats, 79% of sheep, 68% of chicken and 63% of pigs.[[86]](#footnote-86)
* Access to water remains a challenge for rural women as women’s plots tend to be far from water points access. As water collection is still traditionally the responsibility of women and young girls in rural areas, this imposes an extra burden on them as sometimes water points are far distant from rural villages. Furthermore, boreholes ownership is highly skewed towards men, with women owning 27% of them versus 73% of the country’s boreholes owned by men.
* Over the past years the government have implemented a number of targeted safety net/social welfare programmes (e.g., subsidies and grants) with a wide coverage that include poor rural households and smallholder farmers. However, these programmes have barely made a dent in reducing inequalities.

**Indigenous People and Land Rights**

* Botswana is home to five major linguistic-tribal groups (Tswana, Basarwa, Bakgalagadi, Wayeyi and Hambukushu). However, the Tswana group is more dominant both politically and numerically. While, the government has undertaken several steps to ensure the inclusion of all linguistic-tribal groups, these efforts need to adhere to the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, especially in the area of land rights and access to water.

**Driver of Inequality**: **Lack of Appropriate Labour Market Programmes**

**Youth**

* Unemployment is a key characteristic of out-of-school youth, rendering this group vulnerable to poverty outcomes. 31.3% were unemployed in the first quarter of 2020 compared with a rate of 28.8% in the final quarter of 2019. Higher rates of unemployment are witnessed among females than males.[[87]](#footnote-87) Youth remain dependent up to age 32 which is late as compared to other upper middle-income countries which underscores heightened vulnerabilities for the youth.
* Among Botswana’s youth, their lack of specific and technical skills, low levels of education, their lack of work experience, the skills mismatch i.e. the mismatch between labour supply and demand limited their employability together with the current large size of the youth labour force and government’s inability to create jobs through a diversified economy, all contribute to high youth unemployment.[[88]](#footnote-88)
* Government’s response to youth unemployment and outcomes has been through policy and programme formulation, e.g. the 1996 Youth Policy, 2010 Revised Youth Policy, Out of School Youth Programme (OSYP), Young Farmers’ Fund (YFF), 2009 Youth Development Fund (YDF), 2009 Botswana National Internship Programme (BNIP), Job Creation Initiative (JCI), 2012 Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), 2014 Botswana National Service Programme (BNSP), and 2015 Graduate Volunteer Scheme (GVS).
* In his 9th November 2020 State of the Nation Address, President Masisi noted that as at July 2020, the number of interns absorbed into formal employment was 8,457, and that during the 2019/2020 financial year, 975 youth-owned businesses were funded at a cost of P94, 671,778 and created 1918 jobs.
* However, data collection tends to be weak regarding these interventions so the true number of participants in each of these programmes and their resulting outcomes, are unknown. Many of these policies and programmes are characterized by not being anchored on robust empirical research, are reactive, top-down derived, politically motivated, and short-term ‘quick fixes’ which are often poorly implemented and poorly coordinated between the different implementing ministries and departments, local authorities, the private sector, and NGOs.[[89]](#footnote-89) Inadequate training, mentorship and monitoring have undermined the successful implementation of several youth policies and programmes. Little attention has been placed on the sustainability of youth projects.

**Women Entrepreneurs**

* Over one-fifth of women are unemployed.[[90]](#footnote-90) Women own and operate an estimated 74% of informal businesses. In his 9th November 2020 State of the Nation Address, President Masisi noted that during the 2019/2020 financial year, CEDA had financed 1,442 women-owned businesses at a value of P 134 million.
* The concentration of female-owned businesses in the informal sector has led to their exclusion from labour and social security protections, including pension benefits. Accessible and affordable childcare facilities is limited across the country to ensure equal participation of women in the labour market.[[91]](#footnote-91)
* UN Women in 2019 conducted a study aiming to provide baseline data and information on micro-entrepreneurs and co-operatives in 7 selected villages in Okavango Delta (Gumare, Shakawe, Xakau, Sekondomboro, Tobera, Ngarange and Mokgacha) to inform key focus areas for the implementation of the AWOME program (Acceleration of Women Micro-Entrepreneurs). Findings of the study reveal that female micro-entrepreneurs and co-operatives in rural areas face many challenges: most of their micro businesses are not registered and operate informally due to lack of knowledge of registration requirements and the distance to registration office; most of the women entrepreneurs are breadwinners; most businesses are constrained by access to finance; these entrepreneurs lack basic business management skills, including record keeping skills; and they lack access to markets.

**Future Financial Security and Social Protection Reporting: Key Populations**

Evidence is limited or unavailable on:

* Women and financial inclusion - access to finance and financial services.
* Women in the service sector (e.g. tourism).
* Women entrepreneurs with disabilities.

**5.6 SECURE HUMAN SETTLEMENTS**

Inequalities in the capability to enjoy secure human settlements are driven, in part, by unequal access to basic needs such as shelter, among other deprivations.

**Driver of Inequality**: **Unequal Access to Safe, Secure and Quality Housing**

**Children**

* Over half of children (50.3%) live in multi-dimensional poverty, with many children living in or spending time on the streets. The country lacks specific policies, plan of action and specialized personnel for such children.
* Social assistance benefits are paid out to individuals with no evidence on how they trickle down to benefit children. Most children suffering from multi-dimensional poverty do not access social assistance, which risks inter-generational poverty. Seventy-seven (77) percent of multidimensionally poor children live in households that do not receive government social assistance.[[92]](#footnote-92) Advocacy work by UNICEF has resulted in designing and piloting of a Child Support Grant to address the first 1,000 days of life. Current efforts are also aimed at influencing government to commit to increasing allocation of resources to child-based programmes.

**People Living in Informal Settlements**

* Traditionally a pastoral society, with a predominantly rural population, ever-increasing numbers have been moving to urban areas and large villages in the last three decades to reach an urbanization rate of 7.7%.[[93]](#footnote-93) Over 60% of the population now live in urban areas.[[94]](#footnote-94)
* While this urbanization rate is high, it has not resulted in large informal settlements. Recognized and documented informal settlements are Old Naledi (Gaborone), Monarch (Francistown) and Peleng (Lobatse) with 19,000, 14,000 and 7,000 people respectively.[[95]](#footnote-95) Any new emergence of squatting is quickly dealt with by demolitions and stiff penalties for defaulters.[[96]](#footnote-96)
* The very poor (those with household incomes below P367 [US$50] per month) are excluded from all forms of formal housing finance. This group includes domestic workers, gardeners, casual labourers and others earning below the minimum wage, as well as hawkers and new rural–urban migrants. For most of these people, rented accommodation in SHHA areas or the informal settlements such as Gaborone’s Old Naledi and Mogoditshane are the only alternatives.
* International migrants often reside in low income, high concentration neighbourhoods with multi-residential set ups such as Mogoditshane, Tlokweng, and Old Naledi in Gaborone
* Urban rentals are comparatively high and most in the lowest-income group spend appreciably more than the UN standard of 30 % of their income on housing. Other basic needs such as food, schooling, transport, utilities/energy, clothing, etc. consume rest if the earnings, resulting in little or no disposable income.[[97]](#footnote-97)
* Urbanization is accompanied by challenges. In Gaborone and Francistown, most migrants from rural villages moved to degraded housing areas which show signs of slum or squatter existence, presenting at least one of the 5 deprivations as defined by UN-Habitat regarding permanent structures, living space, easy access to safe water and adequate sanitation, and security of tenure from forced evictions. The Government added the lack of access to proper storm-water drainage systems and lack of access to public facilities to these deprivations.[[98]](#footnote-98) Forced evictions in the context of absence of alternatives for shelter provision constitute violations of several internationally recognized Human Rights.

**Future Secure Human Settlements Reporting: Key Populations**

Evidence related to access to housing should be obtained for:

* Homeless people.
* Victims of Gender-based Violence.

**5.7 PARTICIPATION AND REPRESENTATION**

Inequalities in the capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence reflect, and are driven by imbalances in power between individuals.

**Driver of Inequality**: **Harmful Social and Cultural Norms Which Diminish the Participation and Representation of Women**

**Women in Politics**

* Botswana lags behind on women’s political participation and is among the countries of the sub-region and the world with the least women in political positions, namely in Parliament and government, in the House of Chiefs and local government, and in decision-making positions in higher courts and at the international level. Rural women are not adequately represented in political positions, including in village development committees. Botswana has no legislated quotas nor affirmative action, despite CEDAW’s recommendation.
* According to the Inter-Parliamentary Union, as of 1st October 2020, Botswana ranked 164, with 10.8% of women in national parliament (7 women only out of 65 parliamentarians). It ranks low in women in ministerial positions with appointments up to 1 January 2020 at 21.1%. By the end of the 2016 General Elections, out of 591 Councilors countrywide, there were 116 women Councilors constituting 19.4% of all Councilors compared to 80.4% of men. The 116 women consist of 78 elected (23.7%) and 38 nominated Councilors (37.6%).[[99]](#footnote-99)
* The level of women’s participation in politics is an indication of the limitations invoked by cultural norms and factors despite the higher prevalence of women voters and a constitution that protects women’s political rights.[[100]](#footnote-100) The poorly addressed interests of women could be attributed to this, more so that policies and laws are not in alignment with the prevailing context of women in Botswana, whose lived experience is characterized by inhibitive cultural norms.[[101]](#footnote-101) Barriers identified by Botswana women’s civil society and political groups include the lack of legally mandated quotas right from the political party level; lack of political party funding; patriarchal beliefs that women are not capable to perform in office; and the unaccommodating political atmosphere towards women.[[102]](#footnote-102)

**6. Planet and Development**

**6.1 Preamble**

This chapter recognizes the centrality of the planet in providing resources and services needed for the development and growth of Botswana’s economy as well as the well-being of her people. The UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development articulates the nexus between socio-economic development and the environment, hence the importance of protecting the planet by sustainably using and managing its resources to support present and future generations. The Botswana Vision 2036 Pillar 3 on Sustainable Environment envisages that sustainable and optimal use of the country’s natural resources, will lead to economic growth and improve livelihoods of the people. This has also been articulated in the National Spatial Plan 2036, which is intended to “provide an opportunity to establish prudent use of natural resources, nature and assets and to minimize development pressures on the natural environment and create healthy and sustainable sub-national regions”.[[103]](#footnote-103) The chapter, therefore, contextualizes the country’s environmental sustainability trajectory. It does this by showcasing Botswana’s alignment with its own eleventh National Development Plan (NDP 11) under the National [Vision 2036](https://vision2036.org.bw/about-botswana-vision-2036) (Figure 6.1). This is in addition to shedding light on its track record in commitments to the regional and global policy processes and priorities that the country has signed up to. Among them are the international community’s [Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development](https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/21252030%20Agenda%20for%20Sustainable%20Development%20web.pdf) and [Climate Agreements](https://unfccc.int/process-and-meetings/the-paris-agreement/the-paris-agreement).

Figure 6.1

*Environment is one of the key pillars of Botswana’s Vision 2036*



Source: *Botswana Vision 2036*.

Despite being a landlocked country, Botswana is rich in diverse sets of natural capital that are pertinent to its sustainable development trajectory. Its natural capital endowments constitute a huge component of its needed socio-economic growth. These resources include renewables and non-renewables such as minerals, forests, and wildlife. Its world-famous Okavango Delta, for instance, was listed in 2014 as the [1,000th World Heritage Site](https://www.iucn.org/content/iconic-okavango-delta-becomes-1000th-world-heritage-site). The delta is rich in plant and animal life that are vital in the maintenance of [healthy and productive ecosystems](https://www.unenvironment.org/explore-topics/ecosystems/about-ecosystems) that are pivotal to Botswana’s people and economy. Reports show the country’s natural resources and its reputation as a wildlife-rich economy are under threat from land degradation, climate change, and habitat loss, all of which pose a significant risk to the country’s natural capital. In line with long-term development strategies such as Vision 2036, Botswana will be able to optimally harness the socio-economic benefits associated with these resources through innovative options such as sustainable management interventions and the continuous assessments of the impacts of their exploitation, particularly on the economic and environmental fronts.

**6.2 Overview of Botswana’s Natural Capital**

**Energy**

Electricity access in Botswana stood at 62.8 per cent in 2017, with huge disparities being reported between the country’s urban and rural areas. One of the critical energy sector deliverables for the [National Development Plan (NDP) 11](http://extwprlegs1.fao.org/docs/pdf/bot175398.pdf) is increasing self-reliance on the country’s energy resources and sources. The country is exploring options to increase diversification and bolster the development of the economy by securing competitive, cost-effective, and sustainable electricity. Government reports show Botswana has developed a 20-year Integrated Resource Plan (IRP) for the power sector.[[104]](#footnote-104) The plan encompasses projections of future energy demand and development of the least-cost energy supply. This is in addition to giving due consideration to the demographic dynamics and level of economic activity.

Presently, wood fuel makes up a considerable component of energy sources among Botswana’s rural households.[[105]](#footnote-105) Reports in 2017 showed wood fuel accounted for about 30 per cent of the country’s primary energy supply and 38 per cent of total final energy consumption. This is in addition to the broader biomass energy supplies which stand at 46 per cent household energy nationally, with the bulk of it (77 per cent) being at the country’s rural areas. The 2017 Africa Atlas of Energy Resources reported about 70.7 per cent and 40.5 per cent of Botswana’s households in urban and rural areas respectively use LPG for cooking.[[106]](#footnote-106) The report further showed Botswana’s energy is liberalized with private sector players controlling the supply and pricing that has been pivotal in stimulating the country’s large market for LPG. Interestingly, and in spite of the potential health and environmental issues associated with kerosene, the Botswana government has been subsidizing it, as of 2017, with a view to increase access among its low-income parts of the population.

Government reports show Botswana meets its energy demand by importing both petroleum products and electricity[[107]](#footnote-107) with South Africa providing most of the country’s refined oil needs. The limited supply routes, however, lead to intermittent shortages in the country’s fuel supply while insufficient internal strategic storage capacity and the substantial travel distances required to supply the entire country exacerbate the situation. The country is planning to not only wean itself off this situation but also become an exporter of power to some of its neighbours. As a result, key among Botswana’s leading policy objectives, including in the NDP11, is to improve and sustain its energy security, particularly on the energy supply front.

Botswana is largely dependent on coal, with the national pundits citing its abundance and cost-effectiveness as the main reasons for a continued backing by the government.[[108]](#footnote-108) Reports show the country’s proven recoverable reserves at the end of 2011 was 40 million tonnes, and the total production of coal in 2011 was 0.9 million tonnes. The Morupule reserve accounts for 80 per cent of domestic production and other coal-to-electricity generation plants are being considered. Since 2012, the Government has been actively exploring the prospects for coalbed methane extraction.

The country’s opportunities for wind energy are slightly lower than those of its regional counterparts. Its average wind speeds are lower than 4 m/s, the minimum for wind energy to be viable. However, studies show that there may be superior wind speeds at higher altitudes of the country such as at Kwai Pan where wind velocities are between 6 and 9 m/s.

Botswana has one of the highest levels of solar insolation worldwide, with direct normal irradiation (DNI) of 3,000 kWh/m2/year. Expert projections show massive potentials in the country’s solar energy resources. Estimates show that using less than 1 per cent of its land area, Botswana could meet its current electricity demand. Global irradiation is highest in the west, averaging 2,350 kWh/m2/year near Kang and around Gemsbok National Park. The first solar power generation plant opened in September 2012. The potential for sustainable business opportunities in the manufacture and assembly of solar energy equipment is huge. Solar energy is prevalent in rural areas where access to conventional electricity is limited.

Key among Botswana’s opportunities for addressing the energy issues and their attendant climatic challenges include increased focus on renewable energy.[[109]](#footnote-109) This is, however, mostly limited by the existing policy frameworks, technical capacities, low prioritization in the national financing frameworks, and limited investment in R&D for renewable energy expansion.

**Ecosystem Management**

***Biodiversity***

The health and productivity of Botswana’s biodiversity and ecosystems constitute a key component of its economy. Its tourism industry, for instance, is hinged on the country’s thriving wildlife populations. Aware of this significance, Botswana’s Government has placed the sustainability of biodiversity and ecosystems at the centre of its political agenda. This is reflected in NDP 11 which considers ecosystems functions and services as a key constituent of the country’s third pillar on the environment. The country is made up of seven of the global ecoregions that are managed under specific protected area interventions, except for its southern bushveld.[[110]](#footnote-110) These ecosystems sustain the country’s diverse sets of flora and fauna. Among them are over 150 species of mammals, including the African wild dog (*Lycaon pictus*) and African Elephant (*Loxodonta africana*).[[111]](#footnote-111) Eland, gemsbok, giraffe, hartebeest, lechwe, sable, springbok, wildebeest, bats and panhandle crocodile are on a decline due to vast habitat loss and disturbances emanating from various land use changes and other human-induced activities. While the status of birds across all of Botswana’s ecosystems is on a relatively good standing, the critically endangered white-backed vultures face multiple threats from human activities such as the poisoning of wildlife carcasses, and in turn poses a significant threat to Botswana’s livestock and human health. On the other hand, Botswana’s floral species number more than 2800, with 13 of them being cited to be endemic plant species. Others that include ten potentially endemic, seven near-endemic and 43 threatened plant species, have been reported.

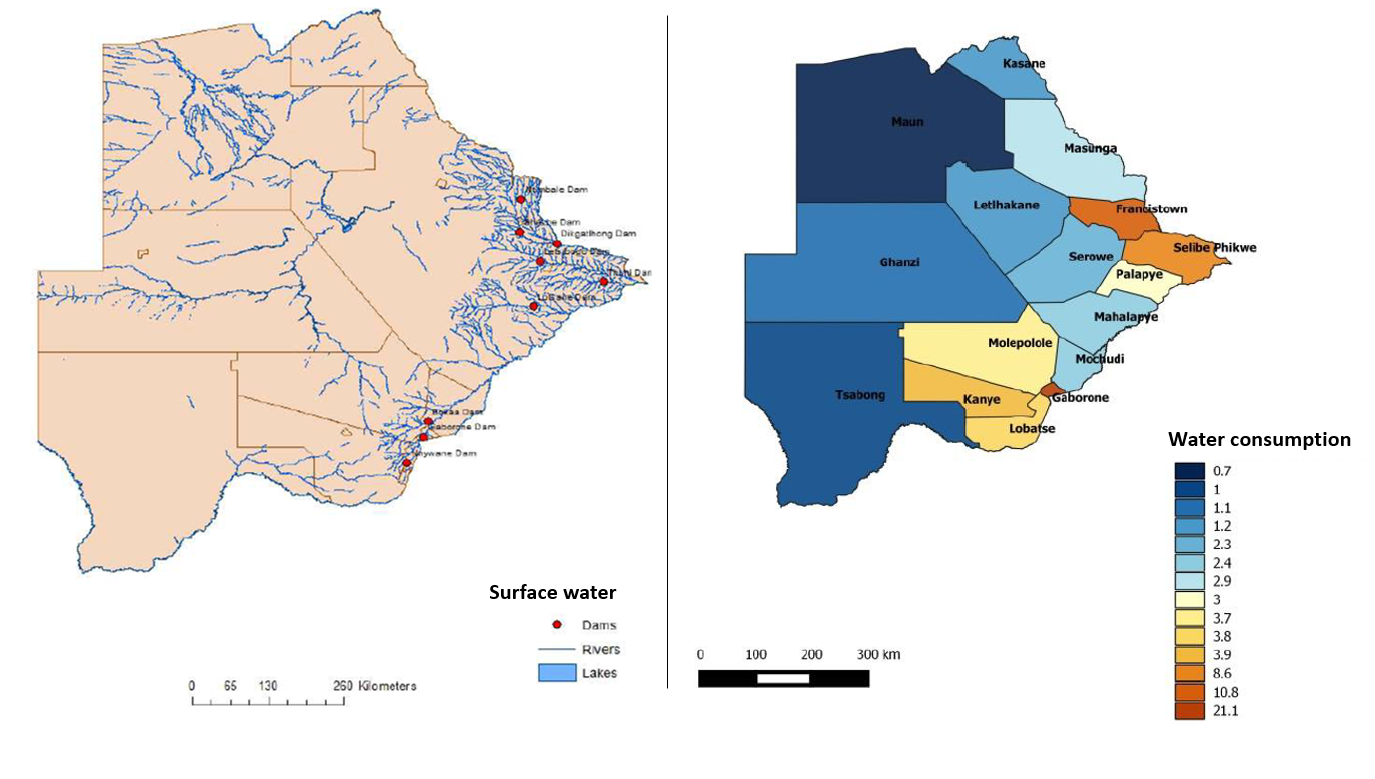
The Government continues to make a substantial contribution towards biodiversity management, including wildlife and forestry management, through its available financing mechanisms.

***Wetlands/Fresh Water Resources***

Botswana is considered a predominately semi-arid country with limited availability of surface water, coupled with endemic droughts and unpredictable rainfall.[[112]](#footnote-112) Recent statistics ranked the country 17 out of 150 countries at an extremely high risk of facing water scarcity.[[113]](#footnote-113) Its existing perennial rivers are mostly shared with neighbouring countries, including in the river-basins such as Okavango, Zambezi, Orange-Senqu and Shashe-Limpopo. As a result, many of its people depend on groundwater resources, most of which are interlinked with the country’s Okavango. This alternative, however, has various challenges that border on sustainability and human health. Botswana’s fresh and saline groundwater resources are assessed at around 100 billion m3 with a low average annual recharge of 1.6 billion m3. This state of affairs is a cause of concern as pressures from climate change, high demand and competition from its various sectors could further constrain the country’s limited aquifers. Its water storage capacity is cited to be much lower than those of its counterparts in Africa owing to its relatively flat terrain.

Figure 6.2

*Surface water resources and spatially-varied levels of consumption in Botswana*



Source: Department of Water Affairs, 2017; Setlhogile, et al., 2017.[[114]](#footnote-114)

Key drivers of the quality and sustainability of Botswana’s water resources include the country’s socio-economic development, land management, and urbanization.[[115]](#footnote-115) These stressors are compounded by the seasonal shifts and inter-annual variability of rainfall situations in the country. Reports of 2017 show the country’s renewable water resources per person stood at 5,340m3. At the same time, its water withdrawals stood at 88 m3 per person in 2016. Botswana’s agricultural sector takes the largest share of water withdrawals, followed by households and mining. These rates of water extraction differ according to location and seasonality being higher in highly populated cities and towns such as Gaborone, Francistown, Selibe Phikwe and Lobatse, and lower in arid areas such as Tsabong.

Poor maintenance and dilapidated water supply infrastructure, record- keeping and monitoring are some of the challenges facing the entire water supply and sanitation sector.[[116]](#footnote-116) Some of these issues, such as leaky water pipes in urban areas result in huge financial and precious water resources losses.[[117]](#footnote-117) For instance, the 2014 Botswana water accounts suggest that system water losses are averaging about 22.5 per cent or 3.5mm3 a year, costing roughly US $1.01 million.

Construction of strategic water infrastructures such as water transfer schemes, dams and wastewater treatment plants are reported to be expensive. The country’s current policy emphasis is on increasing supply, and this could be better supported by paying attention to the complicated distribution problems. This is in addition to incorporating the use of financial and economic instruments to help access the finances required to develop the expensive water-related infrastructure. Several institutional reforms were undertaken with a view to improving the efficiency, sustainability and equitability of water supply in the country. For instance, the 2013 IWRM-water efficiency (IWRM-WE) plan includes the incorporation of transboundary water management protocols and ideals into Botswana’s national water resources management.

***Agriculture and Land Use***

Land resources are crucial to Botswana’s desired development trajectory. Its main uses include agriculture, mining, and wildlife tourism. The 2020 World Bank’s [development indicators](https://databank.worldbank.org/reports.aspx?source=2&type=metadata&series=AG.LND.AGRI.ZS) capture Botswana’s [agricultural land](http://www.fao.org/ag/agn/nutrition/Indicatorsfiles/Agriculture.pdf) at 45.9% of the country’s land area. Out of this, arable land has increased from about 58% in 2014 to about 90% in 2016. Agricultural productivity, which accounts for [more than 80%](http://www.fao.org/3/a-bp626e.pdf) of income opportunities among rural populations, is tied to the vitality of their [arable land](https://vision2036.org.bw/sites/default/files/2020-21_BUDGET_SPEECH.pdf). Crop production is declining due to declining soil fertility in arable lands and increasing loss of soil and biodiversity. Other country’s land-based resources include wildlife and freshwater, which equally play a pivotal role in its economy. World Bank’s data in 2017 indicated Botswana’s forested land to be at 19.1% with an annual deforestation rate of 1%, and rangeland ecosystems comprising 57%.[[118]](#footnote-118)

Land degradation and desertification pose a significant threat to the productivity of Botswana’s land resources. Key manifestations of this include depletion of soil fertility and freshwater resources, as well as loss of vegetation cover, and other forms of biodiversity decline. Land utilization regimes in Botswana vary according to the different biophysical factors associated with each land type. Land uses in both the urban and rural areas are bound to take a major turn in the coming years, with increasing migration of rural populations to urban areas. Data from Statistics Botswana show a 10% annual growth in urban populations with major demographic shifts in the near future.

Despite the progress made to address pertinent land tenure issues, Botswana faces a number of challenges such as administrative procedures that hamper the efforts from Government and those who hold various forms of rights from making optimum gains from their respective tenure systems, with the most adversely affected groups being those under customary land tenure systems.[[119]](#footnote-119) Noteworthy among the cited challenges is poor record-keeping in many of the country’s land boards which hampers land distribution while also weakening measures addressing land disputes; lack of clarity of roles and reporting structures among different organizations involved in land administration; poor coordination of land administration institutions and overlapping legislation which result in delays and poor service delivery as well as high costs for communities to access services; and inadequate technical.[[120]](#footnote-120) For instance, within the Ministry of Land Management, Water and Sanitation Services, only 30% of its staff run the core business of land administration, with the bulk of its workforce undertaking support duties. This is in addition to inadequate talent to execute land administration responsibility, including among the land board members; a situation that compromises on the quality of service delivery and Government’s value for money. The multiplier effects for such issues include increased incidences of land degradation in the country’s farming areas and rangelands, with major impacts on food security and socio-ecological resilience.

**6.3 Multidimensional Risks and Threats to Botswana’s Natural Capital**

**Land Degradation and Desertification**

Botswana is one of the sub-Saharan African countries that are mostly affected by land degradation and desertification.[[121]](#footnote-121) The phenomena adversely affect the country’s natural capital, including water resources, biodiversity, and land productivity, among others. In many parts of Botswana, land degradation is manifested through vegetation and soil losses. Key among the drivers include overgrazing of livestock, severe droughts, and deforestation that is common in the country’s woodlands through overexploitation of wood resources for household energy in rural areas and the continued clearance of marginal lands for cultivation.

Consequently, various socio-economic and environmental risks abound. Livestock and crop production are likely to be jeopardized by the impacts of land degradation and desertification if no urgent measures are put in place. At the greatest risk of being affected are the country’s dependent population, especially in rural areas, whose livelihoods are hinged on agricultural and livestock output. For instance, the huge reliance on rain-fed agriculture and natural soil fertility have rendered most of the country’s farming populations vulnerable to shifting climatic situations, with the immediate impacts being heightened food insecurity and poverty. This is in addition to growing their susceptibility to environmental disasters such as severe droughts and outbreak of animal diseases, which in turn threaten public health systems in case such diseases jump to humans. The challenges of land degradation and desertification can be overcome through land restoration and sustainable land management, paired with robust policies.

**Urbanization and Population Growth**

Botswana is one of the fast urbanizing countries in the global south. Its urbanization has grown from a rate of 45.7% in 1991 to 61.8% in 2011 and is expected to rise to over 70% in 2021. Its rapidly expanding urban population place excessive pressure on the country’s natural capital through demands for physical space for infrastructure, housing and services; and demands for consumption and production resources at domestic and industrial levels. Moreover, the continued expansion of Botswana’s urbanization constitutes another risk to its agricultural lands. This leads to the loss of fertile farmland while pushing the country to invest in new, and often less productive drylands, thus putting more pressure on water resources. Other challenges of Botswana’s rapid urbanization include the growing informality in urban settlements, with underserved waste management systems, among other social amenities. These challenges are exacerbated by, among others, inadequate access to land for housing, inadequate access to infrastructure, poverty and unemployment in Botswana’s urban ecosystems.

Consequently, the health and productivity of Botswana’s natural capital is faced with enormous challenges that include pollution, littering, and overcrowding in low-income residential areas. Government reports also show Botswana’s urbanization has partly contributed to the country’s rural-urban inequalities due to prioritization in national development planning and policy processes, the emergence of gated residential estates and up-market shopping malls alongside burgeoning low income and inadequately serviced urban spaces where the informal sector has become a dominant activity. Key among the measures that can be put in place to remedy the waning situations include more urban governance strategies, mainstreaming of climate change in spatial development plans, the inclusion of disaster risk reduction, as well as sustainable consumption and production, in Botswana’s urban governance strategies.

**Pollution**

Various forms of pollution compromise the sustainability and utilization of Botswana’s natural capital. Key among the drivers of pollution in the country is the country’s existing waste management practices mostly proliferated by inadequate implementation and enforcement mechanisms of existing waste management policies. As a result, the country continues to experience challenges that include illegal dumping of waste, creating mini dumping sites.

Consequently, the country’s terrestrial and aquatic biodiversity are put are a risk, in addition to the lowered value of land in affected areas. Nature-based tourism activities are also staked by the accumulation of pollutants in ecologically sensitive areas. Pollution of Botswana’s water resources, for instance, is one of the key threats to the country’s natural capital and human health and wellbeing. The World Health Organization cited water pollution in 2012 as one of the key factors that contribute to 25 per cent of global childhood mortalities and other infirmities. Pollution of water bodies also compromises Botswana’s targets of providing clean and safe water to the country’s growing population. Spatially, Botswana’s significant sources of pollution include mines, breweries, various institutions, textile industries and small-scale chemical industries. Areas that host these sources include Gaborone, Francistown, Selibe Phikwe, Palapye, Sua Pan and Lobatse.

A growing concern is being raised regarding air pollution in urban areas. Traffic management techniques have evolved in tandem with the shifts in people’s behaviours and numbers of motor vehicles. As a result, traffic congestion continues to affect air quality, mobility, and physical space, thus constraining the overall socio-economic progress in areas such as Gaborone and Francistown.

Country reports show the factors that limit the efficacy of pollution control measures include a limited capacity of local authorities, particularly on matters of municipal solid waste management and the absence of an institutionalized approach to managing the informal recycling sector. Such circumstance encourages the propagation of adverse environmental impacts and a loss of economic benefits and valuable resources. The National Development Plan 11 aims to bring pollution under control by operationalizing the approved institutional arrangements, building capacity, addressing sanitation in remote areas without sewerage line coverage, adopting appropriate technologies and implementing an improved water monitoring and compliance programme. Botswana’s environmental and public health authorities have also made positive steps in the management of potentially harmful pollutants associated with the COVID-19 containment measures. These include those that emanate from the country-wide surge in the use of personal protective gear at household levels, as well as at public places and healthcare centres. It is, however, essential to recognize that many of the challenges could present opportunities for enterprises that work across the 3Rs (reduce, reuse, recycle) of sustainable waste management. Elsewhere, it has been demonstrated that integrated waste management enterprises serve the dual goal of poverty alleviation and prevention of environmental degradation across the waste management value chain.[[122]](#footnote-122)

**Climate Change**

Climate change puts adverse stress on the health and productivity of Botswana’s ecosystems that form the foundational elements for the wellbeing of the country’s populations.[[123]](#footnote-123) Its stable climatic conditions are characterized as arid to semi-arid with rainfall ranging from 650mm in the northeast to 250mm in the south-west. Day time temperatures are warm to hot with mean monthly maximum temperatures ranging from 29.5oC to 35oC in summer and 19.8oC to 28.9oC in winter. According to a recent tipping points analysis of five key sectors, namely water, biodiversity, health, cropping and livestock; Botswana is among African countries that are most exposed to climate change risks.[[124]](#footnote-124)

Increasing incidences of climate-driven aridity have aggravated the fragility of Botswana’s biophysical environment, with drought conditions being increasingly recurrent. Governments projections for 2050 indicate climate change will result in a decreased water inflow into Botswana’s dams by between 3.5 to 19 per cent, which represents actual loss of 34 to 75 mm3 by 2050.[[125]](#footnote-125) These situations adversely affect the water resources, agriculture, ecotourism activities, public health, and cost of doing business. It thus jeopardizes Botswana’s trajectory on the Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development, if no immediate adaptation and mitigation measures were to be put in place.

Botswana is likely to have many of its critical sectors affected through the pressure on its biophysical systems, including water quality and biodiversity. The country’s water resources, as well as their management practices and related ecosystems, are among those sectors that are highly exposed to climate change impacts. Its huge dependence on few water resources puts the country at a larger scale of exposure to the attendant risks. Exacerbating this mounting challenge are increasing demographic shifts, as well as urbanization and the country’s modalities of consumption and production. Climate-induced shifts in Botswana’s biophysical conditions, for instance, pose a significant threat to the country’s agricultural biodiversity and ecosystem services. These include its above- and below-ground soil biota and pollinators that are essential in the sustenance of its agricultural output, as well as their associated value chains.

Cognizant of the climate change risks, Botswana’s Government has put forward a number of technical and policy interventions that are aimed at cushioning its socio-economy and environmental systems from the projected impacts of climate change. According to the country’s 2019 third communication to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, the country has drafted policies on energy, climate change, waste management and Integrated Transport Policy, among others that are set to enhance its readiness to combat climate change. The country also continues to support ongoing global and regional policy processes on climate action, including the Paris Agreement on climate change, as well as the upcoming UNFCC Conference of Parties (COP26) in Glasgow, UK. In that regard, Botswana would do well to ensure that her priorities for climate change response are aligned to those already identified for COP26, which are, adaptation and resilience; nature (protecting and restoring natural habitats and ecosystems); energy; transport; and finance. The role women and girls as key leaders and agents of change is worth noting. They play a critical, but often unrecognized, role in climate action and the management of natural resources. Women are the primary household energy managers and can also be powerful agents of change in the transition to sustainable energy. Women entrepreneurs have enormous potential to create distribution and service networks in rural areas, helping to lower the cost and increase access to sustainable energy. As decision-makers, they have offered innovative solutions to respond to climate change impacts and to making development more sustainable overall.

**6.4 Cross-Boundary, Regional and Global Factors**

Botswana remains an active member of the global community, particularly on matters aimed at fostering of international cooperation and solidarity for the sustenance of natural capital and climate action. It actively participates in the African Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN) and [UN Environment Assembly](https://environmentassembly.unenvironment.org/) (UNEA). Moreover, the country has ratified various international conventions and agreements that are aimed at increasing collaborations in areas of biodiversity conservation and ecosystem management.[[126]](#footnote-126) These include the Convention on Biological Diversity, Nagoya Protocol on Access to Benefit Sharing, as well as the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety. It is also party to the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES), as well as the UN Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD).

On the climate front, Botswana is a signatory to climate agreements and subsidiary policy processes and priorities. As a Party to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the country seeks to contribute to the ambitious goal of limiting temperature rise to 2oC with efforts to reach 1.5oC agreed under the [Paris Agreement](https://unfccc.int/process-and-meetings/the-paris-agreement/the-paris-agreement).[[127]](#footnote-127) In the areas of sound handling of chemicals and waste and atmospheric protection, Botswana is a committed member to various policy platforms that include the relevant regional and global agreements. Among them is the [Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer](https://ozone.unep.org/treaties/montreal-protocol), where it continues to work with partners to implement its associated compliance programmes and targets.

Botswana is also a committed player in the regional cross-border management of water resources. It is an active player in the Permanent Okavango River Basin Water Commission (OKACOM) that includes its neighbours, Angola and Namibia. It is also part of the [Zambezi Watercourse Commission (ZAMCOM)](http://www.zambezicommission.org/), an inter-governmental organization that brings together eight riparian states that share the Zambezi River Basin - Angola, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe; as well as the Orange-Senqu River Commission (ORASECOM), responsible for managing the resources of the Orange-Senqu River basin shared by Botswana, Namibia, Lesotho and South Africa. Botswana is also a key actor in the [Trans-frontier Conservation Areas (TFCA) pro](https://www.kavangozambezi.org/en/about/about-kaza)gramme, in which participating countries aim to collaboratively manage their shared natural and cultural resources for improved biodiversity conservation and socio-economic development. So far, SADC region has eight established TFCAs and four emerging ones, with Botswana being a member of Kavango-Zambezi TFCA, which is already well established, and an emerging Greater Mapungubwe TFCA. The country has continued to demonstrate leadership in the implementation of the Gaborone Declaration for Sustainability in Africa.

**6.5 Financial Landscaping for the Environment**

Botswana’s environment and climate change portfolios continue to benefit from multiple sources of domestic and external financing. However, in light of the existential challenges presented by climate change and other sets of environmental shifts, robust and more innovative resource-mobilization strategies are needed to meet the surging needs.

**Domestic Financing and Context**

At the country level, financing for the environment has regularly been considered in annual budgetary allocations led by MFED. Environmental sustainability is part of the emerging strategic issues of NDP 11. In the 2020 budget, Botswana highlighted its need to continually build capacity of its subnational entities (districts) to effectively deliver the Local Economic Development (LED) Framework and Implementation Plan for Botswana. Among others, the LED focuses on mobilizing resources to support various environmental value chains such as eco-tourism, fish farming, and waste management at the sub-national level. Moreover, in the budget speech there was explicit mention of climate change as a critical issue upon which national policy priorities will have to be aligned with and subsequently respond to.

In the 3rd February 2020 Budget Speech, Botswana’s Sustainable Environment portfolio was allocated P164.5 million (US$14.4 million) in the 2020/21 fiscal year. The allocations were targeted to boost the implementation of climate change adaptation programmes and projects across all sectors. This underscored Botswana’s commitment to its global, regional, and national policy processes and priorities on climate action that align with SDG13. In spite of this commitment, it should be noted that in monetary terms the Sustainable Environment Portfolio received the lowest share of the overall development budget allocated to the four thematic working groups. Indeed, this corresponds with the reality that Botswana, although an Upper-Middle Income Country, is still confronted with various competing developmental needs.

Table 6.5.1

*Breakdown of Development Budget allocated to Four Pillars/Thematic Working Groups*

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Botswana’s Four Thematic Working Groups – Budget Allocation 2020/21** | | |
|  | **Development Budget Allocation (P billion)** | **Share of the budget (%)** |
| **Economy and Employment** | 6.9 | 58 |
| **Social Upliftment** | 2.5 | 21 |
| **Governance Peace and Security** | 2.4 | 20 |
| **Sustainable Environment** | 0.16 | 1 |

Source: Ministry of Finance and Economic Development 2020 Budget Speech.

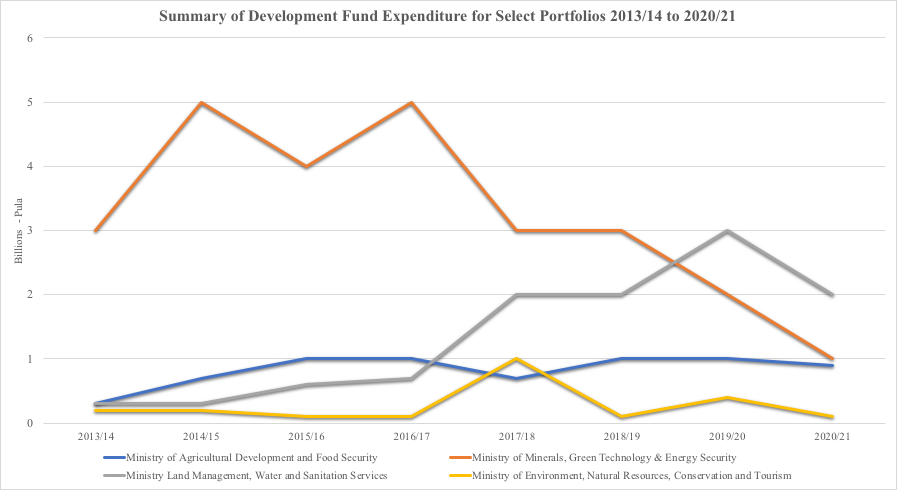
With respect to ministerial allocations, the 2020/21 budget saw the Ministry of Land Management, Water and Sanitation Services receive the country’s major share of the Development Budget at US$ 181 million (P2.07 billion) or 17.21 percent. The resources were mainly to support initiatives geared towards improvement of water supply and management in the country and this would naturally fall in line with a focus on SDG 6, which focuses on clean water and sanitation. The Ministry of Mineral Resources, Green Technology and Energy Security, received the fifth largest share of the budget allocation of P1.90 billion (US$ 95.4 million) which represents 9.05 percent of the overall share of the budget. These provisions were targeted to support the widening of national and community-level access to electricity in line with SDG 7 on affordable and clean energy.

Other key areas prioritized in the national budgetary allocations include poverty-environment linkages through the transformation of value chains such as agro-value chains which involve the curbing of post-harvest losses and soil loss. These initiatives are covered under monetary allocations to the Ministry of Agricultural Development and Food Security. The 2020 figures show the Ministry received the sixth largest share of the Development Budget at P976.17 million (US$ 85.4 million) or 8.12 percent contributing towards efforts to realise SDG 1 on poverty eradication and SDG 2 on the ending of hunger and promotion of sustainable agriculture.

Notwithstanding the positives noted above, there is still more to be done. As Figure 6.5 below indicates, the financial commitment to some of the ministries in the fight against climate change and environmental degradation, does not entirely capture the policy priority of attaining a sustainable environment. Financial commitments are on average reflecting a downward trajectory and this trend cannot prove to be sustainable in the long-term. This underscores the importance of having a domestic resource mobilization strategy that is robust and geared towards the greening of the economy and ultimately, halting the emerging impacts of climate change. On account of the fact that climate change and environmental concerns serve as a cross-cutting issue, with the potential to either undermine or consolidate Botswana’s developmental gains, it is crucial that environmental considerations are mainstreamed throughout the planning and budgeting process. The role of climate change as an existential matter that cuts across considerations such as: poverty eradication (SDG 1), hunger (SDG 2), the well-being of communities (SDG 3), dynamic economic development (SDG 8) and others cannot be overstated.

Figure 6.5

*Summary of Development Fund Expenditure for select portfolios over 7-year period*



Source: Ministry of Finance and Economic Development - Summary of Development Budget

Expenditure, 2012/13 - 2019/20 and Estimates of Expenditure 2020/21.

**External Financing**

Botswana, among other countries in the global south, is keen to harness the opportunities associated with its longstanding relationship with diverse sets of development partners, which include the United Nations system. The country is ready to tap into the financial architecture such as those housed under the global community’s interventions under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. Such avenues have developed over the years and continue to become a key channel of international climate finance for a number of countries. Moreover, a number of multilateral and regional financial institutions have formulated guidelines, advanced climate related funds, and mainstreamed sustainability into their planning and investment design. Table 6.5.2 overleaf, indicates some of the key institutions at the forefront of advancing finance towards climate and environmental projects.

The climate and environment finance architecture is complex and evolving. There are multiple mechanisms, institutions, programmes and activities at various scales. For this reason, it is crucial for the Government of Botswana to coordinate and engage in robust planning that ensures it can access the necessary funding from these sources, while avoiding inefficiencies in the process. In that regard, the country needs to further support the Biodiversity Finance Initiative (BioFin) and effectively leverage on the various finance solutions such as biodiversity offsets, carbon trading and corporate donations.[[128]](#footnote-128)

Table 6.5.2

*Breakdown of Key Multilateral Climate and Environment Finance Funds*

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Financing Institutions** | **Background** | **Focus area** |
| **The Green Climate Fund** | The Green Climate Fund was established as a financing mechanism of the Paris Agreement, to help developing countries mitigate and adapt to climate change. As of 2019, it had received US$10.3 billion in pledges, out of the goal of US$100 billion per year, and the Fund has committed about US$5 billion of that to approved climate projects | 1. Agriculture, Forestry and other land use (Mitigation) 2. Building Cities, Industries and Appliances (Mitigation) 3. Ecosystems and ecosystems services (Adaptation) 4. Energy (Mitigation) 5. Health, Food and Water Security (Adaptation) 6. Infrastructure (Adaptation) 7. Livelihoods of vulnerable communities (Adaptation) 8. Transport (Mitigation) |
| **The Global Environment Facility** | The Global Environment Facility provides grants for several types of environmental projects, including climate change mitigation and adaptation. It also serves as the financial mechanism for the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Since its founding in 1992, it has funded almost 1,000 climate mitigation projects and 330 adaptation projects. | 1. Climate Change 2. International Waters 3. Land degradation 4. Chemicals and waste 5. Biodiversity |
| **Adaptation Fund** | The Adaptation Fund was originally set up under the Kyoto Protocol and finances projects that help developing countries adapt to climate change. It has supported over 80 adaptation projects since 2010 and has committed US$564 million to climate adaptation and resilience activities (Adaptation Fund, 2019) | The Adaptation Funds’s goal is to increase resilience through **concrete adaptation** projects & programmes and as such, it has a strong focus on the most vulnerable countries and communities. |
| **Multilateral development banks/financial institutions** | Climate change is a threat to development and anti-poverty goals, while acting on climate can bring development and equity co-benefits. For this reason, a number of institutions such as the World Bank, the African Development Bank and the International Fund for Agricultural have increased their climate investments, integrated climate change and the environment into their operations and acted as convenors for the establishment of multi-party funds that channel climate finance to countries. | Depending on the focus of the institution it will usually aligns its internal processes and metrics to consider climate risks and opportunities and evaluates its operations for climate impacts and co-benefits. |

Source: Authors compilation

**6.6 Post Covid-19: Building Back Better and Greener**

The COVID-19 pandemic has precipitated massive socio-economic shocks across the world.[[129]](#footnote-129) Interventions at various levels, cessation of movements on land and on-air, coupled with other stringent health measures, have resulted in unintended shocks in societies. Among the knock-on effects are losses of livelihoods and plummeting government revenues. This is in addition, slowing down progress towards the 2030 Agenda at global, regional, and national levels. Responding to the UN Secretary General’s call to “build back better”, Botswana swiftly put in place a raft of measures to combat the socio-economic challenges presented by the pandemic.[[130]](#footnote-130) Its response strategy has been lauded as one of the best in the Africa region, including stimulus packages and partnerships with non-state actors for more significant impact and momentum.

Botswana’s economic recovery plan could, however, be augmented by additional measures from both the Government and its development partners and non-state actors in the country. These include more focus on widening access to clean and more sustainable energy at households and business levels. This way, more of Botswana’s populations would be able to avert the effects of indoor air pollution, which compromises people’s health while also increasing vulnerabilities and raising spending on medical remedies. Such energy interventions would also be pivotal in the recovery of Botswana’s business. For instance, the country’s micro, small, and medium enterprises comprise more than 35 per cent of the country’s GDP while at the same time employing a sizeable proportion of the country’s population.[[131]](#footnote-131) The country’s agricultural sector could benefit more from value-addition of yields, for example through solar-powered driers that have been shown to increase the product’s shelf life thus minimizing post-harvest losses in the value chain of Botswana’s crops such as sorghum, maize, millet, groundnuts and cowpeas, among others.

Other areas relevant to actors such as the [United Nations (UN) system in Botswana](https://unsdg.un.org/un-in-action/botswana) include targeted consideration of Botswana’s green and more inclusive socio-economic recovery options. In particular, and as a crucial component of a transformational change for nature and people in Botswana, the country’s diverse sets of ecosystems constitute a key base for forestalling future zoonotic diseases associated with human-wildlife interfaces. As such, significant and evidence-based policy choices could be deployed in the medium- to longer-term. These include tailored multi-stakeholder interventions to support the country’s communities around wildlife conservation areas, including through integrated ecosystem-based approaches for food security, energy, and clean water. Besides, opportunities exist in broadening collaborative avenues between the UN in Botswana and the Government of Botswana on options that can be harnessed to bring on board ‘like-minded’ actors to support green and inclusive post-COVID-19 recovery interventions. These include multi-partner collaborations, aimed at generating impactful interventions in the lines of investing in nature and people and connecting it to a [One Health approach](https://www.unenvironment.org/resources/report/preventing-future-zoonotic-disease-outbreaks-protecting-environment-animals-and) at national and sub-national levels, among other key frontiers of COVID-19 socio-economic recovery.[[132]](#footnote-132)

**7. PROSPERITY AND DEVELOPMENT**

### 7.1 Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the Botswana Economy

Botswana is one of the few countries in sub-Saharan Africa that has truly benefited from its mineral wealth. Revenues from diamond mines, combined with sound economic policies, have helped build infrastructure and kept the economy stable. But with high unemployment and limited export diversification, the mineral-dependent and public sector-led development model is showing its limits.

Botswana has shown steady progress against human development. According to the Human Development Index Botswana has grown from an HDI of 0.573 in 1990 to 0.735 in 2019, an increase of 28.3% percent and globally Botswana is ranked 100 out of 189 countries (Figure 7.1.1). The marked dip in life-expectancy during the early 2000s was due to the devastating effect of the HIV-AIDS epidemic. Pre-COVID-19, Botswana was in the highest category of the Gender Development Index (GDI) globally and for sub-Saharan Africa with a score of 0.990. The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic threatens to roll back these gains.

Figure 7.1.1 Change figure to reflect 2020 Human Development Report!!!

*Trends in Botswana’s HDI component Indices 1990 - 2018*



Source: UNDP (2020). *Human Development Report 2019*; Briefing Note for Countries on the 2019 Human Development Report, Botswana.

The COVID-19 pandemic continues to disrupt economies around the world, and Botswana is no exception. Even though the onset of COVID-19 has been slow and the number of deaths comparatively low, the economic impact of COVID-19 has been significant on Botswana’s economy. The contraction in domestic output for 2020 has been estimated at 8.9 percent.[[133]](#footnote-133) The latest published figures (June 2020) paint a grim picture, with the real economy shrinking by 4.2% in the 12 months leading to June 2020.[[134]](#footnote-134) This is in sharp contrast with the 3.6% growth over the previous 12 months (July 2018-June 2019).

When isolating for the impact of COVID-19, the year-on-year output contraction during the second quarter (Q2) of 2020 is a staggering 24.8% (see Figure 7.1.2), with the mining sector shrinking by 60.2% during Q2, 2020. Second quarter contractions have been experienced by the retail trade, hotels and restaurants sector (40.3%); manufacturing (31.3%); construction (36%); transport and communication (16.9%); and financial and business services (11.9%). percent. Non-mining GDP decreased by 20.7% during Q2.[[135]](#footnote-135) In comparison to neighboring economies, Botswana emerges as the hardest hit. Q2, 2020 growth rates for South Africa, Namibia, and Kenya are -17.1%, -11.1%, and -5.2% respectively. For 2020, the Economist Intelligence Unit has made a conservative prediction that Botswana’s GDP will contract by 7.8%.[[136]](#footnote-136)

Figure 7.1.2

*Real GDP Growth Rate by Quarter*

Chart, line chart

Description automatically generated

Source: Statistics Botswana, 2020.

The pandemic’s impact has therefore been particularly severe. Looking beyond the formal economy, the informal sector and micro-enterprises including street vendors have also been severely affected. The informal sector is predominantly female and highly vulnerable to economic shocks. Given the paucity data on the informal sector, it is hard to gauge the true impact. However, stakeholder interviews conducted mid-2020 highlighted strong social and economic disruptive effects on the informal sector of the COVID-19 pandemic and lockdown.[[137]](#footnote-137)

Given Botswana’s narrow economic base, the country relies heavily on diamonds and tourism not just to fuel its economic growth, but for export and government revenues as well. In fact, mining – mainly diamond mining – is the largest single contributor to government revenues in most years, and the source of 80% of goods export earnings.[[138]](#footnote-138) On both fronts—diamonds and tourism—the pandemic has led to a significant negative impact on demand. Diamond exports declined by 68.8% compared to Q1 2020 and by 77.8% compared to Q2 2019. This has contributed to a fiscal deficit of BWP 1.52 billion during Q2, 2020 which is likely to widen during the year, owing to increased welfare and healthcare expenditure.[[139]](#footnote-139) And despite an oil price slump, the current-account deficit will widen in 2020 as mining exports and tourism receipts decline sharply.

Politically, as one of Africa's most stable democracies, the country is on strong footing. Botswana’s strong macro-economic fundamentals, including its strong fiscal discipline and a robust economic policy framework, have given it some credibility with rating agencies and its international trading partners. However, in May 2020, Botswana was put on the list of countries that “pose significant threats to the financial system of the European Union” as recommended by OECD’s Financial Action Task Force (FATF). The blacklisting could prove to be detrimental for Botswana's capacity to attract foreign investment given the weak global environment. The listing will severely affect business confidence in the countries’ financial systems. It is expected that Botswana will be taken off this list in 2021 provided that it improves its regulatory environment and take appropriate anti-money laundering and counter-terrorist financing (AML/CFT) measures.

Regionally, landlocked Botswana relies on its southern neighbour for much of its trade. Since Botswana closed its borders (late March 2020), trade with its southern neighbor has taken on greater significance, especially with regard to imports. During the month of August (2020) 70.2% of all imports were from South Africa.[[140]](#footnote-140) From a political perspective, the relationship is perhaps one of the most critical ones. However, South Africa’s attempt to adjust the current revenue-sharing formula of the Southern African Customs Union (SACU) will likely adversely affect Botswana, leading to reduced trade-related revenues.

Inflation has been low, hovering between 1% and 2%, which is well below the Bank of Botswana’s target range of 3-6%. At the meeting held on October 8, 2020, the Monetary Policy Committee (MPC) of the Bank of Botswana decided to reduce the Bank Rate by 50 basis points from 4.25% to 3.75%.[[141]](#footnote-141) The rationale behind cutting the policy rate is to stimulate the economy and support credit growth amid weakening business sentiment. It is expected that the state bank will maintain its accommodative stance throughout 2020-21, in order to spur credit growth for business purposes. Monetary tightening is only expected once economic growth returns to pre-COVID levels.

With regards to the exchange rate, the pula (BWP) is pegged to a currency basket comprising the South African rand (a weighting of 45% of the total basket) and the IMF's special drawing rights (SDR) basket (a 55% weighting), using a crawling band mechanism for small-scale adjustments. As a widely traded currency, the rand remains vulnerable to global developments. The rand is likely to depreciate over the near-term horizon, especially given the pandemic-driven global economic contraction, coupled with a deep recession in South Africa. This will weigh on the pula, possibly causing it to depreciate. Sustained rand depreciation, due to a persistent current-account deficit in South Africa, will continue to affect the pula-US dollar exchange rate. On the other hand, the US dollar is likely to be affected by the result of the United States (US) presidential election and the strong possibility in the US of the incoming administration to pass another economic stimulus package.

### 7.2 Structure of the Economy—Sector-wise Analysis

1. The **industrial sector** of Botswana is dominated by diamond processing, food processing (mostly beef), textiles and mining, with diamond mining and processing comprising the major sources of revenue and foreign currency.[[142]](#footnote-142) According to the World Bank (2019), the industrial sector contributes about 28.3% of GDP to the country’s economy and accounts for 18.1% of total employment. Only 9.5% of women in the employed labour force work in this sector compared to 26% of the employed male labour force. Botswana also possesses the second largest coal reserves in Africa after South Africa (an estimated 212 billion tonnes) along with other metals and minerals such as copper, gold, nickel and soda ash production.[[143]](#footnote-143)
2. The **mining sub-sector** has been severely affected by COVID-19; it is expected to contract by at least a third during 2020, although some estimates put the contraction at twice that level.[[144]](#footnote-144) The De Beers Group reports that, as a result of COVID-19, revenue earnings from the diamonds have decreased by nearly 36 percent.[[145]](#footnote-145) The impact on diamond sales has a direct cascading impact on mining-related services. Diamond sales have however picked up during Q3, showing signs of recovery as the year-end holiday season approaches. 80% of total exports during August 2020 were attributed to diamonds (BWP 2, 124.2 million).
3. The **agriculture sector** contributes only 2% to GDP but is an important mainstay and source of employment and income for Batswana, especially for those in rural areas. It employs about 20.4% of the working population, which is a greater contribution than the industrial sector. About 17% of the female labour force is employed in the sector compared to 25% of the male labour force. Women in Botswana play an active role in crop production as well as in food and nutrition security. Their male counterparts dominate the livestock sector. They own more cattle, sheep, and goats than women involved in the sector.[[146]](#footnote-146) Overall, the agriculture sector has failed to provide a proper livelihood for Batswana, despite 58% and 42% of arable land being owned by women and men, respectively.
4. The **services sector** is the largest contributor to the economy, accounting for 60.6% of GDP in 2019. 61.5% of the working population is employed by the sector. 75% of the women’s working population is employed in services compared to almost 50% of all employed males. Similar to other sectors, services have not been spared by the COVID-19 pandemic, with the retail trade, hotels and restaurants sub-sector expected to contract by 32.2%; transport and communication by 4.1% and the construction sub-sector by 1.0% during 2020. The expected contraction in retail trade, hotels and restaurants can directly be attributed to border closures and successive lockdowns, which have halted foreign tourism since March 28, 2020, and drastically reduced domestic economic activity.
5. The 2015 Informal Sector Survey by the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning estimated that there were 116,571 **informal sector** businesses that employed 191,176 people, which amounts to less than 5% of the labour force (15 years and above). Data shows that a higher proportion of informal sector business owners are under the age of 41, are women, and operate in the retail trade sector in urban and peri-urban areas. The contribution of the informal sector towards GDP is estimated at 5.3%.[[147]](#footnote-147) While the contribution to GDP is lower relative to other African countries,[[148]](#footnote-148) the informal sector is estimated to have grown rapidly between 2007 and 2015 with the number of informal sector businesses having increased by 233% during the period.

### 7.3 Is the Current Growth Model Sustainable?

The nature of Botswana’s GDP growth over the longer term, as well as the composition of GDP over time reveals some interesting facts about the current growth model. While Botswana grew at an exceptional pace, averaging 13% annual growth for nearly two and a half decades (1968-1991), its growth has been quite modest since then. The growth rate since 1992 has averaged just 3%. Moreover, the inherent volatility of growth since 1992—with a high of 9.6% (1999) to a low of -7.6% (2009)—mirrors the significant variation in the demand for diamonds.

The structure of the economy after the discovery of diamonds can be simplified to mining and non-mining export sectors coupled with the domestic sectors comprising government and goods and services for domestic consumption. The structure of the economy has indeed diversified over time (Figure 7.3.1), with the share of mining shrinking from 53% of GDP in 1988 to 20% of GDP in 2017. The share of retail trade, hotels and restaurants in GDP has increased from 5% to 22% over the same period. Thus conceived, the economy has diversified, but the pattern of growth has focused on mining, government, and the domestic market for goods and services.

Unlike the local economy, the external sector has hardly diversified, with mining exports (i.e. diamonds) still accounting for the bulk of exports over time. Non-mining exports have shown little promise, with the exception of tourism (services). Exports, therefore, are yet to diversify like the economy. The composition of exports has remained stubbornly similar over the longer-term with diamonds taking the lion’s share (Figure 7.3.2).

As some other researchers[[149]](#footnote-149) have noted, the stagnant nature of non-mining exports does not bode well and is likely to lead to a balance of payments crisis, especially under the likely scenario where diamond revenues begin to decline. In fact, the COVID-19 pandemic’s impact on the diamond market has clearly demonstrated this scenario, where dwindling diamond demand has led to a sizeable trade deficit for Botswana.

Figure 7.3.1

*Composition of GDP (value added): 1988/89 (left) compared to 2018/19 (right)*

Chart, pie chart

Description automatically generated

Figure 7.3.2

*Composition of Exports 1992 (left) compared to 2016 (right)*

Chart, pie chart

Description automatically generated

The current growth model is therefore unsustainable. Due to the small size of the domestic market, there are clear limits to growth. Moreover, diamond production has peaked and other minerals’ (e.g. copper and nickel) contribution to exports is minimal (and not likely to increase). The severe impact of the pandemic on the economy has also exposed some of these inherent weaknesses.

The government’s focus has rightly shifted toward the non-mining sector and tapping its potential as a source of export revenue and growth. Both Botswana’s Vision 2036 and National Development Plan (NDP 11) emphasize export-led growth focused on the non-mining sector. The underlying question then becomes whether Botswana is (realistically) prepared and well-placed for export-led growth outside of diamonds.

### 7.4 Has Botswana’s Growth Been Inclusive?

Botswana economic success occurs at the expense of high levels of income inequality. The country’s Gini index—a measure income inequality—stood at 64.7 in 2002 before coming down to 53.3 in 2015. The high levels of inequality are evidenced from the fact that while the industrial sector (and mining sub-sector) contribute more towards GDP than the agricultural sector, the industrial sector’s relative contribution to total employment is much less than that of agriculture. In simple terms, agriculture plays an out-sized role in terms of employment compared to its contribution to national output.

While the average unemployment rate for all upper middle-income countries is 6% (2020), Botswana’s unemployment rate stood at 23.2% (Q1 2020) just before COVID-19.[[150]](#footnote-150) Unemployment for women stood at 21.76% - a 10-year high. Female participation in the labour market is 66.2% compared to 78.6% for men.[[151]](#footnote-151) One in three youth is unemployed (Q1 2020) and those youth that are not in education, not in employment or training (NEET) increased from 36.1% to 39.7% between the fourth quarter of 2019 and the first quarter of 2020, an increase of 3.6 percentage points. It should be noted that unemployment is higher among young women (32.2%) compared to young men (30.4%), with higher incidence in urban villages.[[152]](#footnote-152)

The private sector accounts for the largest share of formal employment in Botswana. However, much of the growth in employment is driven by the public sector, recording annual employment growth of around 3.3% (2018).

A significant proportion—52,114 persons—of the workforce are underemployed. Of this number, 38,813 are females (74.5%) and 13,301 males (25.5%). Women’s average cash earnings is P898 less than men (Men P5,283 and Women P4,385). Furthermore, the estimated overall inactivity rate is at 40.3%, with females and males recording 44.8% and 34.9% respectively.[[153]](#footnote-153) The Government’s Ipelegeng programme is a sizeable programme that accounts for 1 in every 10 employed persons in Botswana (as of Q1 of 2020). However, its access to women and men differs, as only 5.4% of the female workforce are part of the programme while 14.1% of the male workforce is employed by it. Moreover, within the programme, 17.1% of men are underemployed as are nearly half of the women (47.6%). This indicates the need for greater gender sensitivity in design and implementation, as well as in the monitoring and evaluation of Ipelegeng.[[154]](#footnote-154)

Figure 7.4 overleaf indicates that expenditure on education (7% of GDP) and health (4% of GDP) are fairly high. However, despite these spending levels and a mature set of social protection programmes, poverty remains a challenge. The pre-pandemic poverty headcount ratio at $1.90 per day and at $3.20 per day stood at 16.1% and 31.1%, respectively.[[155]](#footnote-155) These ratios will likely increase due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. In comparison, the average level of poverty (at $1.90 per day and at $3.20 per day) for all upper middle countries in 2018 was 1.6% and 6.4%, respectively. Poverty levels are higher for female-headed households. In cities and towns 54.1% of the poor are females, and similarly in urban villages and rural areas 57.6% and 53.8% of the poor comprise females, respectively. Poverty is highest in Kweneng West District (50.6%), followed by Ngwaketse West (40.3%), and Kgalagadi South (39.5%).[[156]](#footnote-156) Furthermore, about half of children (48.9%) live in multi-dimensional poverty. Sanitation remains the most common form of deprivation. At least 7 out of every 10 children are deprived of this dimension. Children from poor, rural households have higher rates of deprivation.

Figure 7.4

*Total Government Education and Health Spending as % of GDP*

Source: Author’s estimates based on the Botswana Financial Statistics (BFS) available at https://www.bankofbotswana.bw/botswana-financial-statistics.

Over the past years, social assistance spending gradually decreased as a share of GDP in Botswana. During the 2012/13 fiscal year, social protection spending accounted for about 3.5% of GDP, while current budget allocations constitute around 2.3% of GDP.[[157]](#footnote-157) There is a general sense that while the social protection system is comprehensive covering pensions, social assistance, school-feeding programmes, labour market programmes, and tertiary level scholarships, it has become cumbersome, with some 30 programmes spread across 10 government agencies.[[158]](#footnote-158) The efficiency and effectiveness of the social protection system have suffered as a result.[[159]](#footnote-159) Given the current fiscal constraints, it is critical that the social protection system be reformed so that outcomes are commensurate with the amount of spending.

In summary, while Botswana has made tremendous progress since its independence in lifting much of its population out of poverty through maintaining robust economic growth over several decades, it has reached a point where the current growth model is no longer sustainable. Relying on natural resources as the main source of growth and revenue is no longer a viable option. There is a clear need to shift trajectory toward tapping new sources of growth and revenue and strengthening existing (and in some cases setting up new) governance systems that are fit for purpose— whereby growth is not only sustainable, but also more equitable.

### 7.5 Development Financing: *Doing More With Less*

The COVID-19 pandemic has led to a significant contraction of the economy and a marked reduction in government revenues, which has implications for the overall budget. In the government’s Economic Recovery and Transformation Plan (ERTP 2020), the government’s revised budget for 2019/20 is 8.2% less than the initially planned budget, and the 2020/21 budget is 16% less than envisioned.[[160]](#footnote-160) There is a clear recognition that the government will have to do ‘more with less’ during this period of ‘radical uncertainty’, if it is to achieve its objectives of restoring ‘*economic activity and incomes, facilitate economic growth and the further expansion of productive capacity, accelerate economic transformation and build the resilience of the economy*’.[[161]](#footnote-161) At the same time, the Government is in talks with Multi-lateral Development Banks (MDBs) to secure concessional loans to bridge the budget shortfall over a 2 to 3-year time horizon.

Financing development has therefore become a very real issue which has serious implications for achieving the SDGs and positioning the country for a sustainable economic recovery. The government recognizes that the recovery from the pandemic offers an opportunity to take bold steps in terms of much needed reforms. The pandemic provides renewed impetus for *‘the transition towards a digital and knowledge economy, and highlighted the need for improved availability, accessibility and affordability of internet connectivity, and related investment in human capital and infrastructure’*.[[162]](#footnote-162)

Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, earnings from minerals and customs and excise revenue accounted for over fifty per cent of government revenues in the 2020/2021 national budget. This has been the trend in successive national budgets over the years, with these two budget items being the two largest contributors to the total revenues and grants.[[163]](#footnote-163) However, measures outlined in the ERTP to revive the economy, reduce inequality and boost employment will require additional spending. The country will either have to further draw down on reserves, print, or opt to borrow (domestically or externally) to overcome the budget shortfall. At the same time, there will be pressure to ensure that spending is efficient, and leakages are minimized.

In the short-term, the likelihood to expand sources of financing (beyond borrowing and/or drawing on reserves) seems limited, although there is greater emphasis on the private sector to contribute more toward achieving development goals. Deficit financing (through sale of bonds) is another option. The COVID-19 relief fund, established by the government to mitigate the negative impact of COVID-19, was, in essence, a crowd-funding mechanism to which everyone was encouraged to contribute. The success of any such measure, depends on the overall transparency and efficiency of spending, the underlying trust between government and the public, as well as the results achieved.

### 7.6 Where Do the Opportunities Lie for Botswana In 2020 And Beyond?

The COVID-19 pandemic exposed the strengths and weaknesses of country’s economy and its capacity to respond and recover from it. Immediately following the onset of COVID-19, governments in the region focused on (i) the ability and capacity of the health system to respond to the crisis and (ii) the support mechanisms needed to minimize the socio-economic fallout resulting from lockdowns and other preventive measures taken to curb or limit the spread of the virus.

In Botswana’s case, as was true for many other African countries, the government rightly prioritized ‘prevention’ of the virus and acted swiftly to close borders and introduce appropriate health safety measures. The closure of borders was announced even prior to the first COVID-19 case being identified. Prevention as a strategy was adopted for several reasons, but primarily because the health system would simply be overwhelmed very quickly if the virus were to spread. The preventive actions taken by the government were perceived as largely successful in that they significantly reduced the spread and onset of COVID-19. As of November 4th, 2020, Botswana has had 6642 confirmed cases and just 24 deaths associated with COVID-19.

On the socio-economic front, the pandemic did bring some structural and development-related weaknesses to the fore, some of which have been touched upon in the previous sections of this chapter as well as in other chapters of the Common Country Assessment (CCA). For instance, (i) poverty and high levels of wealth inequality; (ii) a relatively weak healthcare system; (iii) high unemployment rates; (iv) a sizeable informal sector; and (v) a narrow economic base that relies on mining diamonds for exports, in addition to (vi) geographic aspects such as being landlocked all contributed to exacerbating the economic and social impact of COVID-19.

At the same time, the pandemic also revealed elements of the socio-economic structure that proved resilient and robust and helped Botswana respond to contain the virus. For example, (i) the strong macro-economic fundamentals alongside a stable political environment; (ii) the fairly robust social protection system; and (iii) a relatively young population. These factors helped buffer some the worst potential effects of the pandemic.

Looking ahead, the opportunities that Botswana must seize are closely tied to addressing the issues raised in the preceding sections. There exist opportunities to change the current growth model and make it more inclusive by reducing inequality, poverty, and unemployment, especially among the youth. Achieving the SDGs for Botswana has to be seen in the context of an economic recovery that is inclusive, sustainable and resilient.

Countries that have either made the jump from middle-income to high-income or have made significant development strides have done so through industrial policy that is closely tied to international trade, with steady movement up the economic value chain. During the 1980’s and 1990s, the East Asian ‘miracle’ economies—Hong Kong, Singapore, Taiwan (ROC), Republic of Korea, and Thailand were unique in combining sustained growth with highly equal income distributions. Several factors played a role, including (i) maintaining macro-economic stability; (ii) broadly based educational strategies; and (iii) well-managed and flexible industrial policy focused on boosting productivity and competitiveness. These countries transformed by getting the basics right—private domestic investment, combined with rapidly growing human capital, were the principal engines of growth. Agriculture, while declining in relative importance, experienced rapid growth and productivity change.[[164]](#footnote-164)

In the case of Botswana, the need to diversify the economy is well understood in policy circles. The government has also long recognized the importance of international trade as a means to sustainable growth and development. Deliberate efforts have been made in the past to attract investment into the country vis-a-vis skills and technology transfer, economies of scale production, and targeting external markets that contribute to employment creation and poverty alleviation. However, the sort of export-driven strategy that worked for East-Asia latter part of the 20th century may not be a viable option for Botswana given differences in productivity, human capital, connectivity, and ability to tap economies of scale needed for competitiveness at a regional and global scale. While there are important lessons to be drawn from the successful experience of countries, the context (landlocked, natural resource dependent, historical and political-economy context, geo-politics. etc.) demands that Botswana develop its own unique policy mix to transform its economy.

Diversifying the revenue base is closely tied to the objective of diversifying the structure of the economy. Botswana will have to look beyond its borders to boost growth, given the relatively small size of the domestic economy. Growth that relies on non-tradeables is unsustainable given the small size of the domestic market. In line with Botswana’s strategy to diversify its economic base, non-mineral trade (goods and services) will have to play a more instrumental role in boosting growth and employment if Botswana aims to reduce its dependence on diamonds. Looking at the current structure of exports, the services sector presents greater opportunities given that trade related services account for the second largest share among exports and has shown a steady increase over time.

The role of services and its growing contribution to the economy is well-established (Figure 7.6). As the world emerges out of COVID-19, tourism services should be an area of focus and further development. Tourism also holds the greatest promise for employment creation. High-end tourism is an area that Botswana has done relatively well in given tourism’s increasing share in GDP over time. There is however scope to provide a broader menu of tourism products that cater to a wider range of income groups. Cultural tourism should figure as part of the country’s tourism strategy so that Botswana is perceived as an attractive destination that offers more than luxury lodges and game parks.

One of the main shortcomings of the National Export Strategy (NES) is that it focuses mainly on a strategy for the export of goods and does not address the potential for trade services. If Botswana is to shift from the mineral-based economy to a ‘knowledge-based’ one, a strategic approach to trade in services will be needed. The digitization of the economy is yet to take-off, and relatively weak broadband coverage population and speed has hampered business activity and FDI. While the National Broadband Strategy (2018) aims to ensure universal access to broadband services, and the Botswana National E-government strategy (2011-16) promised that *‘by 2016 all appropriate government information and services will be available online through a single government portal’*,[[165]](#footnote-165) these opportunities are yet to be realized. As of March 2019, penetration of fixed broadband in Botswana (per head of population) stood at one percent. Only two percent of the subscriptions are of speed over 10Mbps. This is in contrast to the proposed target that broadband speed in urban areas must reach a minimum 100Mbps by year 2023.[[166]](#footnote-166)

Figure 7.6

*Services, Gross Value Added (%), 2009-18*

Chart, line chart

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Source: Bank of Botswana and DNA Economics, RSA.

In general, if Botswana is to boost exports, it will need to be based on efficiency and productivity. For non-mineral exports, Botswana will have to be globally and regionally competitive and cost and quality of goods and services will matter. In addition to making investments and providing incentives to boost productivity and competitiveness, Botswana will have to improve its ‘ease of doing business’[[167]](#footnote-167) indicators if it is to attract FDI and talent. Attracting talent and achieving competitiveness are closely linked. While the concept of citizen economic empowerment (CEE) and associated policies are well-intentioned, its contribution to boosting domestic employment is yet to yield results. Depending on CEE’s application, it can pose a challenge for high-skilled foreign workers to take up employment in Botswana, thus adversely affecting foreign investment. This aspect has been noted, as the ERTP recommends, *‘issuance of work permits for domestic firms and foreign investors where skills are in short supply, perhaps through a quota-based system linked to citizen employment, and expedite introduction of eVisas’*.[[168]](#footnote-168)

Consistent with the development trajectory of countries that have moved up the development ladder, Botswana should identify areas where value can be added to goods and services it is already competitive in, including diamonds, beef and potentially soda ash. For instance, Botswana relies heavily on India/Surat for cutting and polishing its diamonds. Efforts should be made to diversify this stage of the value chain – and this is something that Botswana would be well-placed to exploit. A process of dialogue with the Botswana diamond cutting and polishing sector should be undertaken to determine and address the constraints to building a larger and more sustainable cutting and polishing sector.

### 7.7 Opportunities for Inclusive Growth and Reducing Inequality

Reducing Botswana’s high level of income inequality requires active engagement of the government. In countries where growth was accompanied by equity, there was active government intervention. An inclusive growth strategy, at a minimum, should ensure that:

1. ***Growth occurs in sectors in which the poor work***. There is need to focus on agricultural growth and rural development and to modernize the sector so that it becomes internationally competitive. For instance, there is scope to move up the agricultural value-chain vis-à-vis beef products as well strengthen agricultural extension services.
2. ***Investment occurs in areas where the poor live***. Greater investments should be made in districts with higher rates of poverty such as Kweneng West District and Ngwaketse West.
3. ***Use is made of factors of production that the poor possess to enhance their capabilities***. Labour demand created during the process of growth should be concentrated on creating employment opportunities for unskilled and semi-skilled workers. Labor intensive sectors should be encouraged by preferential allocations of credit and tax treatment. In addition, the ability of the poor and youth to avail emerging opportunities needs to be enhanced by higher investments in human development towards improving the quality of education and health services, ensuring school-to-work transition, and matching skills with the existing and future demand such as strengthening vocational training programmes.

Therefore, an inclusive growth strategy has to focus on *sectors*, *areas*, and *factors of production* as well as *items of consumption* which can play a role in alleviating poverty and reducing inequality. Beyond this, it is also important to recognize that particular groups are more vulnerable to being excluded or marginalized from the process of growth. To ensure that such groups are not left behind will require targeted measures that are effective. Women, youth, the landless, casual workers in the formal sector, minorities and indigenous people and the aged and disabled may not be covered adequately by the current social protection system.

Current economic challenges and budgetary constraints present an opportunity for the Government to drive through much needed reforms of the social protection system. The national social protection framework (NSPF), developed with the support of the World Bank, aims to address some of the shortcomings of the current structure. UNDP has also supported the development of the 2020 Botswana National Social Protection Recovery Plan. Together these initiatives aim to provide social protection through a combination of targeted and universal programmes underpinned by an ‘inclusive life-course approach’. The idea being that *“Social protection needs to be responsive to the different risks and vulnerabilities that citizens face throughout the course of their lives”*.[[169]](#footnote-169) The main objective is to move from an individual-based assessment to household-based and create a robust poverty focused programme by consolidating and rationalization of several programmes. ‘Doing more with less’ requires better information systems, reprioritization of resources to the most effective programmes, prioritizing resilience over relief, and perhaps even merging or shutting down programmes that overlap with others or do not deliver the desired results.

The informal sector provides direct incomes to households thus contributing to reducing poverty and stimulating economic activity. This is the opportune time to find innovative ways to identify the informal businesses in order to provide them with the necessary assistance. The reality is that majority of informal businesses have collapsed due to the COVID-19 pandemic and urgent intervention in terms of financial assistance is needed. Government has recently called on informal sector businesses to register with Local Enterprise Authority (LEA). If the registration exercise is successful and the informal entities are assisted, there is likely to be a marked improvement in economic activity. Most importantly, there are some businesses in the informal sector which qualify to be taxed and once these are identified, taxes from these establishments can contribute towards declining government revenue. The government should therefore fast-track the implementation of the recommendations of the 2020 Botswana National Informal Sector Recovery Plan to support the recovery of the informal sector from the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic. Among the key recommendations of the Recovery Plan is the establishment of an informal sector agency, which will formalize the engagement of the sector in policy making and drive the implementation of government actions to support the sector.

Finally, the role of the private sector in boosting economic recovery should not be discounted. Based on the experience of other countries, the private sector has played an instrumental role in economic transformation. It usually accounts for the bulk of formal sector employment and drives growth. The current scenario and associated challenges require government to strengthen its relationship with the private sector. If channelled correctly, the private sector can play a complementary role in helping the country achieve the SDGs. Government has a key role to regulate and steer the private sector toward development-oriented outcomes, including the achievement of the SDGs. Strategic partnerships should be established between Government and the private sector—public-private partnerships have the ability and capacity to promote innovation and aid the adoption of technologies that are necessary to spur a successful digital transformation.

### 7.8 Analyzing Risks

There are several risks, over the short to medium-term, that are likely to thwart Botswana’s economic recovery and transformation. *First* and foremost, relatively high levels of poverty; high unemployment, especially among female youth; and extreme levels of inequality together present a significant risk to development. *Second*, in the absence of a vaccine, COVID-19 is likely to spread further through local transmission. Due to stringent yet necessary measures taken by the government initially, the virus was successfully contained through May-June, but the subsequent opening up of the economy has led to a steady rise in the number of cases. Moreover, South Africa, Europe as well as the United States are witnessing a spike of cases. Depending on when the vaccine is received and how other countries fare, Botswana may face the prospects of a prolonged and deep recession. This would certainly affect demand for diamonds and tourism.

*Third,* Botswana being listed as a high-risk country for money-laundering has implications for FDI and business activity. Botswana moved from being on the grey list to being blacklisted. This would make any sort of economic recovery much harder, ceteris paribus. For instance, FDI will most likely be affected negatively, alongside general business confidence in the financial system. It also puts at risk Botswana’s investments in the EU region. *Fourth,* while the government has drafted an Economic Recovery and Transformation Plan, there is a high likelihood that many of the proposed interventions and policies will either face delayed implementation or not be implemented at all. If revenues are severely affected due the prolonged impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, the government may have to reconsider its stance and adjust budgets accordingly. Furthermore, Botswana has a weak track record in implementing planned policies and programmes. There are several factors that impede implementation including (i) issues around efficiency and productivity; (ii) lack of a monitoring and evaluation structure; (iii) connectivity issues; (iii) weak governance and capacity to implement at the local/district level; and the (iv) challenges and delays in sourcing foreign talent. The serious issue of implementation will remain even after Botswana and the rest of the world emerges from the pandemic. It is an issue that needs to be addressed in a concrete manner as the reforms needed for economic transformation cut across most, if not all, segments of government and society. Prioritization, sequencing and coordination are likely to be critical as well as the ability to course correct. This will most certainly require strong leadership. Political expediency in decision making will have to give way to decisions informed by evidence and technical know-how.

**8. CONCLUSION**

[UNCT input; The Way Forward]

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167. Botswana was ranked 159 out of 190 for starting a business; 139 in getting electricity; and 137in enforcing contracts. It takes an average of 48 days to start a business which is more than two times that of the average for Sub-Saharan Africa (21.5) days. Please refer to World Bank (2020). *Economy Profile Botswana: Doing Business 2020.*  [↑](#footnote-ref-167)
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169. Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (2020). Botswana National Social Protection Framework: Implementation Plan, 15 November draft. MLGRD. [↑](#footnote-ref-169)